EXPLORING THE ROLE OF CALL AS A COGNITIVE STRATEGY IN RENDERING EFL LEARNERS TO ENGAGE LEARNERS IN READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
Dadecades of research has supported strategy instruction and, by the same token, the integration of technology into different aspects of language learning seems to be worthwhile or perhaps an indispensable part of language learning and teaching. Hence, the present study investigates the effect of computer-assisted language learning or technology-based approach as a kind of strategy invested in order to enhance Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ reading comprehension by engaging the learners in the task. To this end, 60 grade three EFL learners of a highschool in one of the districts of Tehran were selected on the basis of an availability sampling procedure. Readings were instructed to the experimental group by applying Information and Communication Technology (ICT); however, the control group was taught the readings in the traditional way using only the book. To investigate the learners’ improvement, a t-test was run. The results of the posttest were significantly different, accordingly (p < .05). Based on the findings of the study, technology enhanced instruction in the field of language learning particularly in reading comprehension contributes to EFL learners’ accomplishments in the task. In addition, the teachers are proposed to be aware of their learners’ needs and interests; in this regard, the teachers themselves act like major decision makers who ought to employ strategies to solve learning problems and facilitate language learning in order to have successful learners in their classes. Finally, research demonstrates that CALL is required to be an essential part of learning and teaching.

KEYWORDS: Computer assisted language learning, technology, strategies, reading comprehension, engaged learner.

INTRODUCTION
The focus of this research study is to investigate the impact of technology; in other words, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) on teaching English readings in an EFL setting. A setting like Iran in which reading, as one of the significant and major sources of input to EFL learners, plays an essential role in language learning. On the other hand, as it is evident,
Based on the researchers’ careful observations, the students consider reading as a difficult and complicated activity; consequently, they tend to show no interest, or better say, unwilling to deal with English readings. Thus, the researchers made an attempt to find a solution and exert a strategy in order to facilitate language learning and render the learners into interested and diligent students who wish to solve their language learning problem. Accordingly, technology based approach is utilized, due to the fact that one of the important outcomes of a study done by UK Research on ICT-based program was to change the learners’ attitudes, ultimately led to learning and learner achievement in the related field (Marzban, 2011).

**LITRATURE REVIEW**

**The Logic behind Technology and Engaged Learner**

Technology and its relation with education was once declared by Ehrmann who persuaded other researchers to set forth some relevant questions about the usefulness of technology on education in 1997 (Ehrmann, 1997).

The sole concept of technology is not functioning alone; nevertheless, it is capable of presenting language teachers the chance to think about their classrooms, teaching and learning goals, whats and hows of learning, and learner needs; finally, find the answers to the aforementioned questions and apply technology where it is required (Egbert, 2007). It is worth mentioning that technology needs to be integrated to education in regard with learning and instructional goals.

The main goal, according to the teachers, is language learning. Moreover, it is preparing a learning environment which enhances language learning. To achieve this goal, they may use a tool like technology. Likewise, learning goals must be taken into account the time when personal goals for studying a language is discussed. For doing a task, other factors such as individual differences, competencies, and motivations should also be considered. Finally, teachers as researchers ought to realize the necessity of being proficient in '21st century skills' (Egbert, 2005). The skills, according to Egbert, are: knowledge acquisition, problem solving, critical thinking, production, inquiry, communication, and creative thinking. These skills should be emphasized without which the learners will not be prepared for their future lives.

Based on Egbert (2005), the skills are comprising the main part of the learning and playing a major role for learners’ goals in such technology-filled lives where teachers as experts need to choose, adjust, and then, if the need arises produce 'technology based media'. For changing the students into engaged learners, the teachers should cast utmost attention on the learners’ needs, wants, and interests. Further, according to McKenzie (1998), students can be supposed as engaged learners if they participate in real life tasks, interactive learning, discovery learning, collaborative learning, strategic earning and at the last point, take responsibility of their language learning task.
As Meltzer and Hamann (2004) argued, the teacher can rely on three helpful strategies for engaging the learners in the activity. The strategies comprised of establishing a class environment in which real life and authentic activities regarding the learners who should be involved and interacted in the tasks which are also 'challenging and differentiated'. Differentiated tasks remarked since according to the scholars, all of the learners should achieve the one similar goal but they may have different ways to achieve that goal.

Technology (here computers) can support language learners or learning and also language teachers in creating 'language and content resources' entailing a great deal of variety, interaction, a very big database and inquiry, problem solving, supporting 'multimedia input', and at the end, meaningful learning (Egbert, 2007).

In addition, Egbert (2007) demonstrates the advantages of technology use. To begin with, it is mainly used for making language learning more efficient. It can be repeated endlessly and quickly, function as a nonhuman instructor which is also objective one, providing plenty of resources for learner choices. Further, they are designed to motivate the learners and prepare the means for the learners to master the basic skill (Kleiman, 2001).

Since reading is not an easy activity, if it is particularly set out without considering different levels of reading ability, can lead to reluctant but not engaged readers. For engaged readers, Egbert (2007) proposes 'Thinking Reader Software' as a sample software for the teachers to utilize for teaching reading effectively.

**Cognitive Strategies**
The current study is discussing strategies from a new dimension. Strategies and their application were discussed since 1970s (O’Mally & Chamot, 1990; Rubin, 1975). Based on Oxford (1990), strategies are supposed to be related to the main goal of language learning, often a conscious effort aimed to solve problems.

Among Oxford strategies, cognitive strategies, as direct strategies are strongly deemed to be necessary for both comprehension and production. From strategy classification, using resources for receiving and sending messages listed as a subpart of receiving and sending messages is one of the cognitive strategies applied to four skills and thought to bring benefits to language learners. In addition, application of technology is previously mentioned in the practicing part. Further, it is suggested to be among 'a nonprint resource' which is employed to gain the meaning of what is heard or read in the target language and produce messages in the target language as well. Using such resources can also aid the learners to get ready for speaking skills (Oxford, 1990).

**CALL**
Computer assisted language learning (CALL), a recent matter of debate has been used so extensively every where, ranging from homes to workplaces, that language teachers now commence to think about the way they can exploit the computers for language learning(Warschauer, 1996). In order to grasp CALL, its development, and the way it is used for language learning, a brief overview on the history of CALL which entails examining the
following three phases of CALL apparently needed to be discussed. According to Warschauer (1996), the phases are Behavioristic CALL, Communicative CALL, and Integrative CALL.

History of CALL

Behavioristic CALL
Although Behavioristic CALL existed in 1950s, it came into use in 1960s and 1970s. The period comprised of programs targeted to provide repetitive language drills which were called 'drill and practice' (also 'drill and kill'). 'PLATO' system is one of the examples of Behavioristic CALL. It entails doing vocabulary drills, grammar explanations, and translation tests many times (Ahmad et al, 1985).

Communicative CALL
The second phase of CALL, Communicative CALL, began with the advent of communicative approach in the 1970s and 80s, the time when the need for real life communication instead of mechanical drills in Behavioristic CALL existed. The logic of Communicative CALL was to design the activities with the purpose of building 'intrinsic motivation' and establishing 'interaction' between the learners themselves and computers as well (Stevens, 1989 cited in Warschauer, 1996).

During the Communicative CALL, three kinds of CALL programs were utilized. In the first program, the computer is working like a 'tutor' in an extensive way. Based on Taylor and Perez (1989), the second model of communicative period entails computers working both as a tutor and 'stimulus' designed to stimulate the learners’ participation in authentic activities and critical thinking. 'Sim City' is one of the programs related to the second model. In the third model, computer is called a 'workhorse' or a tool which supports language learning through enabling the learners to use the language. Among the examples of this period, 'concordancers' acting like a tool or means used for learning (Taylor and Perez, 1989).

Integrative CALL
The foundation of Integrative CALL is decided by two technological resources, 'multimedia' and 'Internet'. Through multimedia or 'hypermedia', the learners find their own way by using a mouse. In this case, the learners will benefit in some ways. In addition to creating real world environment for the learners, it brings skills together in one activity. 'Dustin' as one of the examples, designed to represent the actions, a student arriving at U.S.A airport take at different parts of the airport (Schank and Cleary, 1995). Another technology of integrative period is the Internet or 'Computer Mediated Communication' (CMC) which helps the users send and receive information they wish by using emails. They can also use web for a variety of purposes.

In spite of the fact that CALL and its use is becoming widespread, the case of 'normalization ' of technology in education and classrooms has not occurred completely. Based on Bax (2003), normalization happens when technology is getting one part of the individuals’ daily life as BALL (Book Assisted Language Learning) and PALL (Pen Assisted Language Learning) have already become; plus, when individuals are working with computers with no fear and acting like a normal part of their life. The last point, normalization happens when it becomes a part of learning by
examining learner needs first and then applying technology in order to serve those needs (Bax, 2003).

**Reading Comprehension**

English has recently been considered as one of the most significant subjects the educational system of Iran; consequently, it has been one of the necessary subjects taught at all levels of study. Among the four language skills, reading is supposed to be one the crucial skills for EFL learners. As Richards and Schmidt (2010, p.483) state "reading is an activity of perceiving a written text in order to understand its contents. This can be done silently (silent reading). The understanding that results, is called reading comprehension". In addition, many methods of teaching reading have been implemented so far. However, the results yield success with some of methods with a specific group of learners (Hassanzadeh, 2013). Based on National Education Act of 1999: (as cited in Wichadee, 2011, p.1), "In organizing the learning process, educational institution and agencies concerned, shall provide substance and activities in line with the learners’ interests and aptitudes, bearing in mind individual differences".

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

Therefore this study aims to find an answer to the following research question.

*Research Question*: Does CALL and technology affect Iranian EFL learners reading comprehension positively?

In line with the above research question, the following null hypothesis was posed:

*Null Hypothesis*: CALL and technology does not affect Iranian EFL learners reading comprehension positively.

**METHODOLOGY**

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effect of computer assisted language learning and technology on Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension. The method of the study including the participants, instrumentation, procedure, design, and data analysis are explained.

**Participants**

For the sake of this study, sixty participants were chosen from among 75 female grade 3 students studying English at grade three in one of the highschools of Robat Karim (one of the districts of Tehran in Iran). Their age range was approximately 16-17 years. Having used the quasi-experimental group research design, the researcher assigned two grade three classes to the control (n = 30) and the experimental group (n = 30), arbitrarily.

**Instrumentation**

The main purpose of the study was to find the impact of utilizing technology in EFL classrooms on reading comprehension ability. In this regard, three instruments were employed. They can be explained as follows:
Proficiency Test
A Proficiency Test namely, Nelson 100A English Proficiency Test was administered to guarantee the homogeneity of the subjects. A pilot study had also been done with 30 female grade three students of the same highschool in order to check the reliability of the test before it was administered to the participants of the study. Accordingly, Cronbach ’s Alpha reflecting reliability turned out to be 0.80.

Reading Comprehension Test
A test of reading from PET was selected from the Preliminary English Test and administered as the pre-test and post-test. The reliability and validity of the test were supported and determined by University of Cambridge ESOL. To further check the reliability of the mentioned test, it was piloted among 30 grade three students of that highschool. The resulting reliability which was calculated using Cronbach ’s Alpha, yeilded a higher reliability that was 0.77. It should also be claimed that the readability of these reading tests and the readings used in the study were both checked to ensure that the reading tests selected for this test were at the level of examinees.

Students’ Textbook
The reading materials selected to be taught in this research study were all chosen from grade three English book in highschool. The book includes 6 reading comprehension passages. Both control and experimental groups were taught the same passages; however, as noted before, the readings were taught to the experimental group applying powerpoints and multimedias made by the teacher herself.

Procedure
The following steps were taken in order to test the research hypothesis of this study:
In order to homogenize the participants in this study, the standard Nelson 100A Test was administered at the outset of the study after being piloted. It consisted of 50 multiple choice items of knowledge of English structures. The time allotted to take the test was 30 minutes and the scoring was estimated out of 50. In this respect, sixty participants were chosen from 75 female grade three students as target participants of the research and divided into two control and experimental groups, 30 participants in each group. After considering the reliability of the reading test and estimating the readability of the reading materials in order to ensure they are close to each other, one of the tests in PET was chosen and first piloted among other students and then administered to the participants as the pretest, including 5 parts followed by 35 multiple choice questions. The time allotted was 35 minutes (one minute for each question). The participants in the experimental groups had 8 sessions of treatment between the pretest and posttest. As mentioned before, the experimental group was instructed applying technology; accordingly, the readings were taught using powerpoints and multimedia program. The powerpoints were made up to combine sound, images, and written text together in order to keep the learners motivated for better outcomes. At the end of the experiment, the reading test was given to two groups again to find out if there are any significant differences caused by the treatments.
Design
This study was conducted through a quasi-experimental pretest-posttest control group design. It was non-randomized because both control and experimental groups were selected from already formed groups of TEFL learners.

Data analysis
In order to test the hypothesis formulated in this study an independent t-test was used. It was used to examine the effect of technology on the students’ reading comprehension.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
To probe the effect of technology-enhanced instruction on the improvement of the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners, an independent t-test was applied to analyze the data coming from pretest and posttest as well. As displayed in Table 1, the assumption of normality of groups before the treatment was met through the results of t-test in the pretest (p > .05).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.5000</td>
<td>8.02904</td>
<td>1.46590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24.1333</td>
<td>7.16184</td>
<td>1.30757</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As revealed in Table 2, the experimental group (M =24.1333) showed a higher mean in comparison with the control group on the posttest of reading comprehension after controlling for the possible effect of the pretest. This was followed by the control group (M = 16.5000)
Based on the results displayed in Table 3, \( p < .05 \), representing a large effect size, it can be concluded that technology-enhanced instruction had a significant effect on the EFL learners’ reading comprehension. Thus the null-hypothesis that technology-enhanced instruction does not affect the learners’ reading comprehension positively was rejected.

Table 3: Independent t-test: Posttest of Reading Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Posttest</th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>-3.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>-3.886</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>57.258</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results of this study, it can be argued that CALL affects the learners’ reading comprehension positively; further, it caused a noticeable improvement in their reading comprehension. Also, according to the researchers’ vigilant observation, technology integrated instruction could help the learners remain involved and engaged in the task. This finding is in full agreement with Marzban (2010). The researcher surveyed the improvement of the learners in reading comprehension through CALL. The results of his study revealed that CALL could significantly affect the learners’ reading comprehension. Further, Smith (2000) asserted that CALL programs facilitate learning with respect to speed, individualized instruction, authenticity, efficiency, and administration (cited in Marzban, 2011). As a final point, the findings of some other research studies support this study in the way that all claim a positive relation between achievement in English and technology. (Navdal, 2007; Rahimi & Yadollahi, 2011; Satharasinghe, 2004; Taylor et al., 1999).

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, technology enhanced instruction in the field of language learning especially in reading comprehension contributes to EFL learners’ accomplishments in the task. Accordingly, utilizing technology as a type of strategy is intended to make learning more effective and aid the learners in order to become engaged in the reading task. In addition, as noted before, research demonstrates that CALL is required to be a part of learning and teaching or perhaps an indispensable part quickly. The results of this study may also bring some important implications for EFL teachers and specifically for Education Office. First, teachers should be aware of their learners’ needs and interests; in this regard, the teachers themselves act like major decision makers. Nonetheless, this study proposes technology-enhanced language learning and teaching in order to make the learners both interested and involved in the language learning task.
Second, Education Office is suggested to hold several theoretical and practical workshops on CALL for some reasons. Since the researchers, as teachers, believe that for keeping the students as engaged learners, they ought to employ strategies or tactics in order to solve learning problems and facilitate language learning in their classes as well. Like wise, the workshops are recommended to be held in order to eradicate the teachers’ computer anxiety (esp. those who are immigrants of CALL), make the teachers acquainted with CALL and how it works in language classes, and instruct them how to utilize CALL, for instance, by making their own powerpoints and multimedias in order to have successful language learners. However, the current study encountered a few limitations. This study did not compare two genders; all of the subjects were female; moreover, the center of attention in this study was mainly restricted to teaching the readings in the learners’ highschool book; the teacher wished to teach some other new and authentic readings outside the book but due to the case of time limitations, it was not possible.

REFERENCES


FACTORS AFFECTING CALL INTEGRATION IN ELEMENTARY EFL COURSES: IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS

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ABSTRACT
This study examined English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers’ perceptions of factors affecting their integration of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in the classrooms. The data was collected through questionnaires distributed to fifty EFL teachers who taught elementary level of Students’ proficiency in five different English language institutions in Bandar Abbas, Iran. In order to get in-depth results, interview was conducted by fifteen EFL teachers based on the results of the questionnaire. The results revealed the positive perceptions of teachers toward the use of computer and also the finding indicated the positive perceptions of the factors that affect their teaching. The results promise implications for renewing EFL programs and teacher training/education courses. It is hoped that the outcomes of this study can be used in shaping innovational practices in the Iranian EFL Educational System.

KEYWORDS: EFL Teachers’ Perceptions, Computer Assisted- Language – Learning (CALL)

INTRODUCTION
Computers are increasingly widespread, influencing many aspects of our social and work lives, as well as many of our leisure activities. As different tasks involve human computer interaction, computer skills and knowledge have become more positively correlated with both occupational and personal success. In most cases, the teacher is key to effective implementation of the use of computers in the educational system and they have tremendous potential to transmit perceptions and values to students, it is important to understand the biases and stereotypes that teachers may hold about the use of computers and the factors that act as facilitators to teachers’ positive computer usage (Askar & Umay, 2001). Therefore, the decision regarding whether and how to use computer technology for instruction rests on the shoulders of classroom teachers. In the literature, few studies have been accomplished in order to investigate what makes English language teachers use computer, the internet materials, resources and software in the language classroom. In order to help language teachers learn about and use technology effectively, we need to know more about the transfer of CALL experience, background and knowledge to the classroom. More specifically, we need to know to what extent computer attributes (availability, complexity, relative advantage, observability, and finally trainability) on the one hand and
The perceptions of teachers play an important role in educational interaction as well as instructional choices and as such are fundamental in examining the outcome of technological integration in the classroom (Albion & Ertmer, 2002; Becker, Ravitz, & Wong, 1999; Pajares, 1992). In fact, teachers’ perceptions of technology have been found to be among the most critical variables in predicting the successful use of technology during educational activities (Becker et al., 1999).

A growing number of studies on CALL focus on CALL-classroom comparisons (e.g., Gerosa, & Giuliani, 2008), students’ perceptions and attitudes of CALL. Clearly, previous research already offers new insights that come through vividly from students’ own voices and experiences in CALL environments. However, To the best knowledge of the researcher, very limited research has been undertaken to evaluate the perceptions of language teachers on the implementation of CALL. Furthermore, while there is still limited research addressing the perceptions of EFL teachers toward the implementation of CALL. (Aydinli & Elaziz, 2010; Wiebe & Kabata, 2010). The present study is designed to examine Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of the use of CALL. The study findings offer important insights for Iranian EFL teachers who want to support their language classrooms with technology such as computers, multimedia, the Internet, and educational software. Also, this study will provide information that proves effective to teachers embracing CALL integration for a wide range of teaching English. Finally, understanding the different qualities of teachers’ roles in CALL-enhanced language learning classrooms might aid teachers in implementing effective CALL curricula for EFL students. More specifically, this study explores the factors that affect implementation of CALL in EFL classrooms in Iran; (b) Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of CALL in EFL classrooms in Iran and whether Iranian EFL teachers have a clear-cut understanding of the roles of teachers in CALL classrooms.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous literature on the attitudes of EFL instructors has shown that EFL instructors have positive perceptions of the integration of CALL in teaching languages. To begin with, Cope and Ward (2002), conducted a study on perceptions of CALL of experienced teachers, asserted that teachers with little or no professional development in the use of technology in the classroom were less likely to use it in the classroom and were less likely to see the benefit of technology usage in the classroom. Royer (2002) found that the more teachers were involved in actually setting up classroom technology the more likely they were to use that technology for instruction (Royer, 2002). This is why it is important for teachers to receive technology skill training. This is not to say that the progress of technology use in the classroom changes the role of the teacher. Wang (2002) found that teachers saw their roles as being more teachers centered and fewer students centered in classrooms that did not have computers. However, teachers did not think that they would teach differently or that their roles would be different in a classroom with computers. Alshumaimeri (2008) found the positive correlation between a teacher’s attendance during training, both for computer as well as CALL, and a positive attitude toward the use of IT
approaches to learning in the Saudi classroom. He also, recommended actions include specialized training for EFL teachers who are required to integrate CALL into regular classroom instruction. Teachers are seen to be active agents in the process of changes and implementation of new ideas as their perceptions may support or impede the success of any educational reform such as an innovative technology program or the integration of technology to support teaching and learning (Woodrow, 1991). Thus, attention has recently been paid to the role of teachers in technology supporting classrooms, some researchers focused on the relationship between teachers’ perceptions and technology integration. Some researchers have directly examined teachers’ perceptions of CALL in various linguistic contexts. For example, Burnett (1998) conducted a case-study evaluation of teachers’ attitudes, behaviours, and beliefs toward a writing program called Assistant Francais in the computer-equipped French classroom. This study found that studied teachers had diverse experiences of the implementation of computer into language teaching in classrooms. Teachers preferred to use students’ first language (English) to explain technical vocabulary and provide lesson instructions in the belief that this will make content comprehensible for language learners. Specifically, “teaching students how to use the computer programs was considered more important” than teaching the second language (Burnett, 1998, p.114). As a result, teachers focus on students’ learning product instead of learning process in computer-equipped classrooms. Kessler and Plakans (2008) explored seven ESL/EFL teachers’ attitudes, and confidence in using CALL with a particular emphasis on digital audio and video in ESL classrooms. The findings indicated that the participants were integrating CALL in their course assignments. Specifically, they used audio or video for teachers’ feedback, listening or speaking assessment, and students’ self-assessment or self-study. To be more exact, the participants only used audio or video as an assessment tool. In terms of the types and levels of confidence, Kessler and Plakans (2008) divided them into three categories: highly confident, contextually, and less confident, and summarized his findings: “high confidence is not synonymous with high/integrated use” and “the teachers who used audio the most in integrated ways were those expressing contextual confidence” (p.278). The highly confident teachers spent less time using CALL than contextually confident and less confident teachers. Kessler and Plakans (2008) further suggested that teachers should start thinking about the importance of familiarizing themselves with technology for language teaching through repetitive practices. In addition, having time for practice, high quality of instructions and technical supports are needed. Park and Son (2009) conducted a study on the perceptions of Korean in-service EFL teachers of the use of CALL. The authors found that the teachers have positive perceptions of the use of CALL in EFL courses. The EFL teachers believed that computers were very beneficial to provide sufficient input as well as authentic materials and contexts for students. In another study on the perceptions of Arabic and English teachers on the use of technology in their classes in schools of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Ismail, Almekhlafi (2010), using questionnaires and interviews, found that the teachers were agreed with integration of technology in their teaching.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. What are Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of the factors affecting their integration of CALL in the classrooms?
2. What are Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of their integration of CALL in the classroom?
3. What are Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of their roles in CALL integrated classrooms?

METHODOLOGY

Participants
A total of fifty EFL teachers volunteer were selected to participate in the study. All of them were experienced teachers working at Shokooh, Dana, Farhikhtegan, Ariya, Arta language institutes in Bandar Abbas, Iran. The sample was comprised of twenty five male and twenty five female teachers, identical in number (ranging from 20-40 years) and their teaching experience ranged from 3 years to 13 years while their experience in using computers for work-related purposes ranged from 4 years to 6 years.

Instruments

Questionnaire
The design of questionnaire came from previous research on computer– assisted – language learning (Albirini, 2004; Bordbar, 2010; Dashtestani, 2012; Sahin Kiozil, 2011). The 33 items questionnaire consisted of two parts based on five points Likert Scale format with (‘Strongly Agree’, ‘Agree’, ‘Neutral’, ‘Disagree’ and ‘Strongly Disagree’) was used. The questionnaire was composed of two parts. The first part dealt with background information of the participants (ages and level for students; years of teaching experience and which language skills and CALL applications integrated in their teaching).

The second part was about the factors that influence CALL integration in their classrooms, general perceptions of using CALL and teachers’ perceptions of their roles in CALL classrooms with sub scales of "Perceived experiences with CALL", "The roles of ESL and EFL teachers" and "The factors affecting teachers’ CALL integration". The content validity of the questionnaire was established by a panel of three EFL experts. To determine the reliability of questionnaire Cronbach Alpha analyses were conducted as measures of consistency and a reasonably high range of reliability (0.8) was found.

Interview
In order to gather concrete data about the use of CALL, a sample of fifteen teachers with randomly selected from the teachers participated in face-to-face interview. The questions for the interview paralleled the sections in the questionnaire. Similar to the questionnaire study, three EFL and educational technology university professors validated the content of the interview questions. All research participants gave their verbal consent to the recording of their interview, as well as having them used for research purposes. In this study, 20-minute interview was conducted with 15 EFL individually to follow up their responses to the questionnaire. The participants’ names are not real; the researcher used pseudo names for the participants.

Procedure
At first questionnaire employed in the study was piloted with representative samples of the correspondent group of EFL teachers. Second the piloted questionnaire was administered to convenient sample of fifty EFL teachers in institutions in Bandar Abbas. Due to different locations of the participants, questionnaire handed in to the teachers participating in the study in
their working place. It took about thirty three minutes to complete the survey. After quantitative phase had been completed, the qualitative phase started. A sample of fifteen teachers participated in the interview. The interview took place in their workplace. The interview lasted between fifteen to twenty minutes and all audio –taped and then transcribed. Data from the interview were analyzed qualitatively and described according to the main interview questions and presented as statements of the teachers responses to the questions.

Data analysis
The data collected from the questionnaire imported and analyzed using SPSS (version 19.0) package. Frequency means and standard deviation (SD) utilized to report descriptive data. Frequency distributions used to measure how often certain scores occur (Salkind, 2008). In addition, mean is “the sum of all the values in a group, divided by the number of values in that group” (Salkind, 2008, p.20), whereas SD “represents the average amount of variability in a set of scores” (Salkind, 2008, p.37). The qualitative data analyzed using interpretive qualitative approach (Glesne, 1998). Within this paradigm, “it is possible to understand the subjective meaning of action (grasping the actor’s beliefs, desires and so on) yet do so in an objective manner” (Schwandt, 2000, P.193). The interview was conducted with the teachers individually to follow up their responses to the questionnaire. Each interview was recorded and transcribed. Data from the interviews were analyzed using interpretive qualitative approach and described according to the statements of the teachers’ responses to the research questions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Investigating the First Research Question
The first research question of this study inquired what are Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of the factors affecting their CALL integration. The frequency and percentage of the teachers’ responses to all 15 items of the perception questionnaire are provided in Table 1 below. As can be seen in the figure, the item that received the most positive responses (Disagree=74.0%) and (Strongly disagree= 14.%) of the participants was Item 14: “I do not use CALL because I lack technical support for the use of technology”; however, the table indicates that the item that got the least positive responses (Agree =36.0%) and (Strongly agree = 10.0%) from the participants was Item 3: “I use CALL because I have pedagogical knowledge of how to integrate CALL for language learning?”. 
Table 1: Frequency and Percentage of Teachers’ Responses to All Items Related to Factors Affecting Their CALL Integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I use CALL because I am aware of how CALL impacts my teaching.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I use CALL because I have a positive attitude toward CALL.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I use CALL because I have pedagogical knowledge of how to integrate CALL for language learning.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I use CALL because I have the ability to use technology.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I use CALL because I know how to integrate CALL into my classroom.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I use CALL because I have administrative support.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I use CALL because I have students with the ability to use technology.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I use CALL because my students understand the purpose of the use of technology.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I do not use CALL because my students lack the language levels to use technology.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I do not use CALL because I rely on textbooks.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I do not use CALL because I do not have time to integrate CALL into my language classrooms.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I do not use CALL because I lack technology in my language classrooms.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I do not use CALL because I lack training with technology.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I do not use CALL because I lack technical support for the use of technology.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I do not use CALL because my students lack previous exposure to technology.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The descriptive statistics of the teachers’ responses to the perceptions questionnaire were assessed and set forth in Table 2. It should be noted that we assigned 0 point for “Strongly Disagree”, 1 point for “Disagree”, 2 points for “Undecided”, 3 points for “Agree”, and 4 points for “Strongly Agree” choices in the questionnaire. The average of the teachers’ answers to the 15 items of the questionnaire was computed for more analysis. The table reveals that 50 teachers responded to the questionnaire. The mean turned out to be 3.79, which is above the median (3), with the standard deviation of .41.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Teachers’ Perceptions of Factors Affecting Their CALL Integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.415</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of interview
The results of interview showed that teachers used CALL since they believed that it is the most powerful way to improve students’ pronunciation, listening and speaking skills. The teachers agreed that computer is useful for improving language skills. It seemed that CALL has great impact on developing listening and speaking skills. The EFL teachers pointed out that CALL has effect on students’ accent and also provide native situation and students will be more familiar with native like. Below are some examples of what they have said:

Sara
It is important for student to hear native speakers so, I use audio via computer.

Vahid
One of the useful ways to improve accent and pronunciation in the classroom is throw CALL. I and my students can improve our pronunciation by listening to native speakers throw CDs or DVDs. Also, I have too much information about using computer so it makes me to use computer much more in my classrooms.

Investigating the second Research Question
The second research question of the current study asked what are Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of the integration of CALL in their classrooms.

The frequency and percentage of the teachers’ responses to all 15 items of the perception questionnaire are provided in Table 3 below. According to the table, the item that received the most positive responses (Strongly disagree= 100.0%) of the participants was Item 25: “CALL is beneficial in improving listening skills” And Item 27: “CALL is beneficial in improving speaking skills” with (Strongly disagree= 100.0%); on the other hand, the table indicates that the item that got the least positive responses (Agree =24.0%) and (Strongly agree = 6.0%) from the participants was Item 22: “I am frustrated because I am not trained to integrate CALL into my class”, and Item 23: “I am overwhelmed because there are numerous CALL resources to select from” with (Strongly disagree= 100.0%).

Table 3: Frequency and Percentage of Teachers’ Responses to All Items about the Integration of CALL
The results of interviews
All of the fifteen teachers considered using the computer as essential and necessary in an era of modern technology. It appeared that they naturally accepted the use of technology as an undeniable part of instruction. Some teachers asserted that CALL has made many more materials available to students and teachers need to be much more prepared to know what is available to students online and make resources available on the Learning platform.

Sina
Changing all of the previous and traditional systems with CALL is better, because this kind of learning is completely different with traditional system and it is much better for learning and teaching too. Also, teachers should be familiar with new technology and methodology using CALL applications and also should involve in use of computer materials. Teachers also need training by improving the technology.

Investigating the Third Research Question
The third research question of the current study asked what are Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of their roles in CALL integrated classrooms.

The frequency and percentage of the teachers’ responses to all 6 items of the perception questionnaire are displayed in Table 5 below. A quick look at the table hands on that the item that received the most positive responses (Agree =60.0%) and (Strongly disagree= 22.0.0%) and of the participants was Item 30: “I encourage my students to play an active role in their English learning.” ; conversely, the table indicates that the item that got the least positive responses (Agree =28.0%) and (Strongly agree = 2.0%) from the participants was Item 28: “I demonstrate how to use technology in support of English learning.”, and Item 23: “I am overwhelmed because there are numerous CALL resources to select from” with (Strongly disagree= 100.0%);

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28. I demonstrate how to use technology in support of English learning</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I prepare my students to become more skilled at using technology.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I encourage my students to play an active role in their English learning</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. I provide extra support to my students to improve their English learning</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. I select technology tools and applications I need in classrooms.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I troubleshoot technological problems.</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of interviews
The results also indicated that the teachers go beyond traditional teaching and they are close to the new technology and new teaching style. It also appeared that CALL motivates students in learning and teachers in teaching language. A large proportion of language teachers mentioned their role as a facilitator, manager, observer, designer and helper. The finding showed that the teachers in this study had positive perceptions of their role in CALL integrated classrooms. Aram and Azim for example said:

**Aram**

*Teachers guide the students and organize their activities. Teachers play a main role to do the task and reduce students stress. Teachers are computer specialist. I think teachers are a CALL observer, designer, implementer and manager.*

**Azim**

*Teachers should be familiar with new technology and methodology using CALL applications and also should involve in use of computer materials. In my idea, teachers are facilitator helper guide and have responsibility of student’s learning. Teachers are scaffold.*

**Discussion**

The results of the study showed that the teachers’ perceptions of CALL are generally positive. As evidenced by the teachers’ responses to the questionnaire and interview, all teachers believed that the use of computers adds value to their teaching and CALL is an effective way for improving the quality of their teaching because CALL can provide both teachers and students with useful information and resources, various modes and authentic contexts. It seemed that CALL is accepted among the teachers because they were aware of the benefits of using computers in foreign language learning and teaching. This is supported by findings put forth in the literature (e.g., Beatty, 2003; Healey, 1999) which indicated that CALL application may be helpful for developing learners’ skills and also for teachers in improving their teaching skills. The teachers agreed that the quality of education relies on exclusively on the quality of teachers. This confirms that the roles of teachers are important in organizing the activities and structuring the learning process. Also they thought that their perceptions can introduce new technology and brings effective learning and teaching in to the classrooms as emphasized by many researchers (e.g., Pennington, Lam & Lawrence, 2002).

It appeared that teachers agreed that CALL could improve their language skills as well as their students. Also, the expectation that teachers should be experts in the use of computers is not fully supported by the teachers since just one of the teachers mentioned that teachers should solve the computer problem as experts. This does not support the finding of Soo and Ngeow, (1997) indicating that teachers are computer exports in the CALL classrooms. Although they seem to be convinced that CALL makes language learning interesting. Also, the teachers emphasized that they are facilitators, guide, engineer and manager in classrooms integrated with CALL. This is consistent with finding of (Davies & Cronther, 1995; Kurnum, 1992; Beret, 1993). Teachers accepted that computer technologies are helpful for enhancing students’ language learning. They
also agreed that teachers and students can communicate with native speakers of English with computer due to the fact that all institution instruction is to help students to have native accent. The results of these studies also indicated this finding (Park and Son, 2009; Al-Mekhlafy, 2010; Kessler and Plakans, 2008). Although, this study aimed to investigate EFL teachers’ perceptions of factors affecting their CALL integration in their classrooms. The results of the study confirmed that factors such as teachers’ computer skills, computer facilities, knowledge about CALL students’ perceptions and teachers perceptions of CALL are factors affect the implementation of CALL significantly. This is consistent with Ertmer et. al. (1999) who suggested that internal and external factors influence teachers’ perceptions of the technology integration. On the other hand, it seemed that the factor such as experience was important for teachers who use technology in the classrooms. The study showed that more experience teachers have positive perceptions of the use of technology in the classrooms. This may also be supported by findings in the literature (Atkins & Vasu, 2000).

CONCLUSION
This study examined teachers’ perceptions of their integration of CALL in language teaching by investigating the perceptions of teachers towards the use of CALL and computers in general, the teachers’ roles, and factors that affect teachers’ use of CALL. The finding of this study suggested that teacher’s perceptions made the huge improvement in teaching. As a result of examining the perceptions received from the teachers to this study, the researcher had identified the widespread use of CALL by the EFL teachers.

This study showed the important role of technological support in the classrooms. Also, the study found that the teachers’ personal perceptions had influence on their use of CALL. This might be because of teachers’ knowledge of CALL programs and development of technology. Besides, the results indicated that computer use for general purposes among teachers was very common. Most teachers used computers for listening and speaking curse. They also asserted that they used computer to show video to their students. However, using computers made them more efficient in their lives and that they have positive perceptions of using computers in language instruction. Such responses were to be expected considered this fact that computer technology is fast identified in the field of learning and teaching a foreign language (Gruich, 2002). On the other hand, no any report of online use of computer in their classrooms, might come from their lack of much more time, weak internet and no any internet support.

The results of the investigating factors that affect EFL teachers’ perceptions of using of CALL in language instruction showed that teacher’s lack of training in using CALL affected their teaching with computers. Moreover, teachers also reported that the perceptions of their students affect their teaching with computers. Thus, students’ lack of motivation in computer sessions may have an effect on teachers’ motivation while teaching with computers. Finally, the finding indicated that, having enjoyable classrooms and funny time with student are also the important factors that teachers use CALL in the classrooms.

The findings of the study indicated that teachers demonstrated positive perceptions of the use of computers in language instruction. In addition, the findings showed that teachers believed that
training was required and they believed that they needed training to learn and teach with computers. The qualitative data also indicated that the teachers were affected by the student’s needs and ability in CALL classrooms. So teachers were more convenient to use CALL. Briefly, all these findings might show that teachers had positive perceptions of technology integration in general.

As a further study the impact of training on teachers may be analyzed as an experimental study. Moreover, this study added a contextualized description of the Iranian EFL teachers’ perceptions of integration of CALL in their classrooms. There is much more context that can be gathered about teachers’ perceptions of the integration of technology in the classrooms. The limitation of this study was that there was only one specific group of EFL teachers were selected to participate in the study. They thought elementary level of students. Other groups of EFL teachers, including university teachers and school teachers, could have provided useful data for the purposes. This study also provided some implications that would improve the success of integration of CALL for teachers, students, institutions and policy makers. Teachers are a key factor in whether students have a positive perception of this technology, which leads to better achievement in learning. Therefore, teachers should have a positive perception of this technology to help their students. The institutions must ensure that teachers develop positive perceptions of use of CALL. They should be decreased any fears and qualms that teachers may have to use technology. Since positive perceptions of CALL usually foretell future computer use, policy makers can make use of educators’ positive perceptions of CALL to prepare them better for incorporating CALL in to their teaching practices.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF USING SONGS ON IRANIAN YOUNG EFL LEARNERS’ VOCABULARY PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT
The current study aimed at investigating the effect of using songs on Iranian young English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ vocabulary performance. This quasi-experimental research was based on a pretest-posttest control group design. For the purposes of this study, 60 young EFL learners were divided into two groups. Before the treatment, both groups were administered a vocabulary pretest. The experimental group (n=30) was taught the new words through songs. However, the control group (n=30) received the traditional vocabulary instruction. The treatment lasted for an academic semester. After the treatment, the same vocabulary post-test was administered to the groups. The data analysis through the statistical test of t-test indicated that the use of songs in class had a significantly positive effect on vocabulary performance of young EFL learners. The positive effects of songs are result of their role in making a very relaxed atmosphere and decreasing anxiety. Through making use of songs learner feel free and since songs are enjoyable there is no such a burden on memory in the process of learning that is, it might be concluded that cognitive load is significantly low.

KEYWORDS: Vocabulary knowledge, Song, Traditional instruction

INTRODUCTION
There is no doubt that vocabulary is essential in learning a language in general. It can be said that vocabulary learning is even more challenging for foreign language learners given the limited exposure to language and insufficient opportunities to make use of the learnt items in real-life situations. Vocabulary is more than single words; it means the words of a language, including single items and phrases or chunks of several words which convey a particular meaning. In 1930s, it was found that there is a close relationship between word knowledge and achievement in life (Celik & Toptas). Success in earning and management was correlated with vocabulary scores. When vocabulary knowledge is not enough, people have difficulty in expressing their thoughts and ideas, and this usually results in physical aggressiveness (Shoari, 2013). It can be said that limited vocabulary is a kind of imperfection. For understanding what someone hears and reads and also to communicate effectively with others, vocabulary size is so crucial (Shoebottom, 2013). Wilkins on the importance vocabulary knowledge in communication stated that “Without grammar very little can be conveyed but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (as cited...
in Schmitt, 2010, p.3). According to Schmitt (2010), a large vocabulary is required for someone to use language in a desired manner. In English, vocabulary size results in limiting the type of texts someone can read; in other words, there is a close relationship between number of words someone knows and how well s/he performs in terms of different language skills. (Nation and Meara, 2002, p.46). Krashen on the importance of vocabulary stated that “a large vocabulary is of course essential for mastery language” (Shoari, 2013). Alderson on the role of vocabulary knowledge in language use states: “what would appear to show is that the size of one’s vocabulary is relevant to one’s performance on any language tests, in other words, that language ability is not quite a large extent a function of vocabulary size” (as cited in Schmitt, 2010, p.5). According to Carlo & August (2005), English language learners who are slow in vocabulary learning could not comprehend the texts of advance levels. They believe those students “are of poor performance and are at the risk of being diagnosed as learning disabled students” (August, 2005). Consequently in teaching vocabulary the type of the instruction is of great importance. For many years so many studies have been done for finding the most effective vocabulary learning strategy (Yongi Gu, 2003).

Statement of the problem
Undoubtedly vocabulary is central of English language teaching, since without acceptable word knowledge students cannot understand others or express their own ideas. Every one surely experiences the situations in which s/he without grammar, with some useful words and expressions, was able to manage communication. When speakers don have a rich word repertoire they cannot express their ideas. In most of the cases this results in physical aggressiveness. Generally speaking the lack of word knowledge is a kind of imperfection. When students cannot find the relevant words from their mental dictionaries while listening or reading have serious problems in understanding new concepts and also in connecting them to what they already know and in using them. These problems can make it difficult for a student to learn as quickly as someone who doesn’t have similar problems. Mostly these students are at risk of being recognized as disable learners. It seems the learnt items don’t move into long-term memory, maybe because they are not learnt in effective and meaningful manner. As a result there is strong need for more effective strategies in teaching/learning process.

Main Objectives of the study
In order to try to fill the gaps of which discussed above this study was performed. Because of the nature of songs they can be used for a large range of purposes in EFL situations. Songs result in deeper engagement in vocabulary learning. Through making use of songs learners besides learning new words in more relaxed conditions would also be familiar with dialect, culture.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Songs are parts of life from the early days. According to Gugliemino(1986), adults sing for various purposes for example at religious services, bars, in the shower so on. Songs are one of the integral parts of our language experience. Songs would be of great value if used in coordination with a language lesson they. There is no doubt that technology facilitate having access to different songs. Teachers can take songs into classrooms for educational purposes.
There is a large amount of literature which points to the role of using songs in ESL/EFL classrooms but not empirically. The first theoretical rationale for using songs in the classroom, goes back to the types of listening processes. Two processes involved in listening, and both can be used when songs are applied in the classroom. The activity of which is selected for a particular song determines which of these processes is active. Cullen (1999) states that:

The first is bottom-up processing where the listener builds up the sounds into words, sentences and meaning. The second is top-down processing where the listener uses background knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. Practicing both of these processes is essential for developing listening comprehension.

Music and, Song, and vocabulary learning

There are studies on the effects of using authentic materials, such as instructional games, songs and stories, on improving students’ progress but empirical supports are also required (Razmjoo, et.al, 2012). Because of the melody of the songs, they facilitate learning and, music helps learners in developing the cognitive skills and in improving language skills. Through singing songs, children learn rhyme and vocabulary (Yuliana, 2003). Music is universal factor in all cultures. Language and communication are also universal (Salcedo, 2002). According to Richman (1993) there are three types of human vocalization. Expressive sounds (e.g., sighing, crying, laughing), speech and singing (which is in between of two first types) (as cited in Salcedo, 2002, p 2).

Plato believed that "musical training is a more potent instrument than any other, because rhythm and harmony find their way into the inward places of the soul, on which they mightily fasten... making the soul of him who is rightly educated graceful” (as cited in Stansell, 2005). According to Yuliana (2003) singing a song is enjoyable for learners and, because words are repeated several times, learners are able to memorize them easily. Another feature of songs is that they are learnt by heart and as a result lead to learners ‘development.

Making use of the music in the ELT is not new task. Bartle (1962) and Richards (1969) or Jolly (1975), and other scholars have been studying the effect of music in language learning because of its linguistic, and motivational advantages (as cited in Engh, 2013). There are number of studies of which prove strongly the positive effectiveness of the music on various language fields. In Audio Lingual method of the language teaching music was used in order to reduce the negative effects of repetitiveness of the practices of the 1950s to 1970s (Bartle, 1962, Kanel, 2000). It was believed that making use of music resulted in a relax state for mind, and as a result improve learning. (Lozanov, 1978).

Most of the students listen to music when they study may be because they believe that music helps them to concentrate on tasks, but some people believe that music is a kind of distracter, and stops learning. Martin (1988) worked on the effect of the music and found that through listening to the background music students’ scores increased significantly. Kiger (1989) shows that, students’ scores in comprehension tests increased through using soft music and repetitive rhythm. Li (2008) is one of the researchers who worked on the importance of the music on vocabulary.
his experimental study he found that China’s learners’ scores increased significantly under the effect of the using songs (both lyrics and music). Huy LE (2007) found that music is very effective in improving all language skills.

There are also other supports for positive role of music on language learning by (Katchen, 1988 & Puhl, 1989; Baez, 1993). Brand (2007) found theoretical and psychological reasons for the use of music in language teaching. He believes that the ultimate aim in English learning is not only speaking English, but interacting with people from other cultures (Brand, 2002). It was found that music processing and language processing are placed in the same area of the brain (Maess & Koelesh, 2001).

According to Ayotte (2004); “music and language share the same auditory, perceptive, and cognitive mechanisms that impose a structure on auditory information received by the senses” (p.10). Music is a type of language package that connects the cultures, but there is an important point here, that pop songs are more effective in ESL environments, because, for example: first of all these songs are at 11-year-old native speakers’ level and, as a result simple vocabularies will be more appropriate for ESL learners, the lyrics are repetitive within each song, and because the words mostly are short, as a result vocabulary learning would be facilitated. These songs are conversational and are sung at approximately slow rate with frequent pauses, and give more chance to understanding (Murpley, 1992).

Gorjian et.al (2012) also studied the role of the songs on vocabulary learning. In that study they aimed at finding the effect of songs on upper-level learners. The results of the research strongly support the successful role of songs on teaching vocabulary. Kahraman (2008) studied the effect of songs on listening comprehension, and found that regardless the origin of the singer, songs improved listening comprehension. Making use of songs, lower the cognitive load during learning. Cognitive load means: The total cognitive activity imposed by task/ problem on working memory. Gerven states, the base of cognitive load theory is that our working memory is limited with respect to the amount of information that it can store (Ayres, 2006). Cognitive load theory was originated in 1980. This theory results in framework for cognitive processes and instructional design (pas, 2003). The term cognitive load is used in psychology for illustrating the related load to the control of working memory.

According to Sweller (1988) “Cognitive load has been designed to provide guidelines intended to assist in the presentation of information in a manner that encourages learners’ activities that optimize intellectual performance”. In this theory aspects of information processing theory are employed for emphasizing the inherent of concurrent working memory load on learning during teaching and schemas are used as unit of analysis for designing the materials (Sweller, 1988). Principles of Cognitive Load Theory:

1. Working memory is extremely limited.
2. Long term memory is essentially unlimited.
3. The process of learning requires working memory to be actively engaged in the comprehension (and processing) of instructional material to encode to-be-learned information into long term memory.
4. If the resources of working memory are exceeded then learning will be ineffective (Cooper, 1998). As it is evident there should be an instruction tool that helps learners to learn successfully. The instructional tools should result in low cognitive load, and since songs result in relaxed and enjoyable environment and as a result facilitate learning are strongly supported by this theory.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Does using songs in class have any effect on Iranian young EFL learners’ vocabulary performance?

Does using songs in class result in improving Iranian young EFL learners’ vocabulary performance?

METHODOLOGY

Based on a pretest-posttest design, this study tried to investigate the role of using songs as instructional tool for teaching vocabulary items. This is quasi-experimental, that is without random assignment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intervention Group</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>O</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*X = intervention is administered

O = measurement is taken

Context

This was conducted in one of the institutions in Tabriz, Iran. In this institute a course consists of 15 sessions which meet three times a week. The course books are based on interactions in different contexts. The course includes teaching new topics, vocabulary, function and grammar. Communication is one of the most important points of L2 teaching in this institute. Materials are used to activate new vocabulary learning and activate using in real situation.

Participants

A total number of 60 language learners all female with an age range of 11-14 participated in this research. The learners were from Turkish background. They were selected from 5 classes of the one of the institutes of Tabriz. The subjects have been assigned to classes based on their scores on their proficiency levels.

Instruments & Materials

Pre-test and post-test of which, have been conducted, included the words which learners were supposed to learn through relevant songs. There were 40 questions in each with reliability of .85.
Target words were selected from the source book of the institute which was *New Parade*. The researchers made use of songs of which include those target words. During practicing the new words light music was used in order to provide more positive and relaxed atmosphere.

**Procedures**

At the beginning of the program language proficiency test was administered to both groups, in order to assure their proficiency levels. After that one pre-test on vocabulary knowledge was conducted. Then the researchers started the program. The target words were from various songs of which were suitable for the level of the learners. The words are those that are included in the course book, and as a result were suitable for learners’ levels. In experimental group learners listened to the words in songs, in each session after listening to songs, learners were asked to practice the new words for the next sessions through listening to the same songs. But in control group the same words were taught through traditional instruction. That is new words and their meanings in learners’ first language were given in each session, and they were asked to memorize them. The students made use of dictionaries on their own way that is without any instruction. At the end of the study one post-test was conducted for measuring the effectiveness of the treatment. The collected data was analyzed by means of SPSS. Because there were two groups in this study the researchers used t-test for comparing the results, and measuring the effectiveness of the treatment.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Statistical Analysis**

After gathering the data through pretest and posttest, it was analyzed by means of SPSS. Firstly the scores are shown in Excel sheets of which the answer of the first question is given by:

The first question was loaded one. In fact there is only one question to be scientifically answered in this study. Two groups were approximately at same level on vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the program; it can be showed by comparing the means of them on pre-test. The mean of experimental group in pre-test was 12.9, and the mean of control group was 12.8. Before describing the tables, it is clearly shown in figures. In figure 1 it is there is a comparison of the pre-test and post-test of the control group. There is no growth in groups’ scores on post-test.

![Figure 1: Pre test control & Post test control](image-url)
In figure 2 which is the comparison of the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group, there are apparent differences in scores of the two tests.

![Figure 2: Pre test Experimental & Post test experimental](image)

It can also be proved while comparing the means of both groups in post test. Mean of post-test for control group was 12.4, while for experimental group was 17.2.

The research hypothesis was:
Iranian EFL learners’ vocabulary learning will be improved through using Songs.

The null hypothesis was:
There would no significant differences on the effect of Songs on vocabulary learning.

The statistical task is to reject the null hypothesis, and to show that there is a difference on the effect of songs. Table 1 is t-test of the control group:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: (t-test control)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pooled Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothesized Mean Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t Stat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P(T&lt;t) one-tail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t Critical one-tail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P(T&lt;=t) two-tail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t Critical two-tail</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is evident form the table 1 P(T<t) two-tail is greater than 0.01, as a result there is no significant difference in results, so traditional instruction was not successful in teaching vocabulary. Table 2 shows the results of the experimental group. P(T<t) two-tail is smaller than
Through using an experimental approach, this study examined the effects of applying songs on Iranian young EFL learners’ vocabulary learning. There are conflicting results gained from studies on the effects of songs on ESL vocabulary learning. But it is worth to say that in EFL classrooms songs yield in positive effectiveness. The results of this study support the study conducted by Schunk. He has found that music benefits vocabulary acquisition. Lozanov also applied music and songs as a learning tool and emphasizes the relaxed state of mine and increased retention as a result of inherent nature of songs and music. He claimed that atmosphere created by music enhanced the ability of the students to remember vocabulary words and shortened the study period of the foreign language. Lowe also studied the impact of songs second grade French immersion students in New Brunswick.

CONCLUSION
In this study the experimental group outperformed in posttest. Songs result in very relaxed atmosphere for learners. Stress stops learning, when it is eliminated learning takes place in effective manner. Songs lower the cognitive load on learners’ brains and as a result, facilitate learning. Consequently the positive role of applying songs as instructional tools has been supported.

Limitations of the study
It is worth to say that just like most of the studies; this study also suffers from some limitations. It is believed that maybe the main limitation was the effect of cross cultural differences on the selection of song types. The second one is that this study was conducted for female learners, and also the number of participants also is another limitation that limits the generalizability of the research. The researcher also believes that delayed post-tests are to be conducted in order to measure the long-term effects of the songs on vocabulary learning.
REFERENCES

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Salcedo, CS. (2002). The effects of songs in a foreign Language Classroom on Text recall and involuntary mental rehearsal. PHD Thesis. 170


INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS’ TEACHING STYLES AND THEIR AUTONOMY

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ABSTRACT
The present study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between English Language Teachers’ Teaching Styles and Autonomy. To this end, a group of 200 experienced English language teachers at various language schools in Tehran were given two questionnaires namely Grasha’s Teaching Style Inventory (1994); and Teaching Autonomy Scale (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005) among which 162 instruments were returned. After being verified, 129 questionnaires were selected. Since the teaching styles are categorized into low, moderate, and high levels, each teaching style – Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Delegator and Facilitator, is considered as a nominal variable. Moreover, as the autonomy is on an interval scale, the choice of statistic to measure the relationship between one nominal variable and one interval variable is eta. However, since the frequencies of some of the styles’ levels were very low, it was decided to choose non-parametric Kruskal Wallis and Mann Whitney tests to compare the levels of each style in terms of autonomy scores. As a result of data analysis, a significant relationship was found between teachers’ Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles and curriculum autonomy. Furthermore, the findings of this study could be utilized in the field of teacher education, particularly, by language school directors and owners.

KEYWORDS: Teachers’ teaching styles, teachers’ curriculum and general autonomy

INTRODUCTION
With the spread of globalization, language learning and teaching, as many other skills, are gaining more and more prominence every day. This phenomenon, language learning and teaching, has two sides: teacher and learner who influence the process in different ways. Menken (2000) believes that half of all teachers may anticipate educating an English language learner during their career. Along the same lines, according to Vieira and Gaspar (2013), with regard to impact on education effectiveness, teachers arise as a significant factor, accounting for about 30% of the variance on pupils’ achievement.
Students have different learning styles and familiarity with learning style differences will, to a large extent, help instructors; so teachers apply different teaching styles that suit their setting and their students’ needs. To overcome mismatches between learning styles of learners and the teaching styles of the instructors, teachers should tailor their approach to meet students’ learning needs meaning that they can combine teaching styles for different types of content and diversity of student needs. According to Purkey and Novak (1984, p. 13), “Good teaching is the process of inviting students to see themselves as able, valuable, and self-directing and of encouraging them to act in accordance with these self-perceptions”.

To this end, institutions initially need to prepare the ground through empowering their teachers. Multiple intellectuals involved in the field of educational reform assert that empowering teachers is where we can commence solving the schools’ problems (Melenyzer, 1990; Short, 1994). Pearson and Moomaw (2006) stated that:

if teachers are to be empowered and regarded as professionals, then like other professionals, they must have the freedom to prescribe the best treatment for their students as doctors or lawyers do for their clients. This freedom is teacher autonomy. (p.44).

In line with that, according to Masouleh and Jooneghani (2011), the term autonomy has sparked considerable controversy, inasmuch as linguists and educationalists have failed to reach a consensus as to what autonomy really is. In fact, autonomy in language learning is a desirable goal for philosophical, pedagogical, and practical reasons. Street (1988) believes teacher autonomy is “the independence teachers maintain in exercising discretion within their classrooms to make instructional decisions”. (p. 4).

The purpose of the present study was to inspect if there was any significant relationship between teachers’ teaching styles and their autonomy – curriculum and general.

**REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE**

**Teachers’ Teaching Styles**

Different educationists have different perspectives on teaching and learning a language through which the teaching styles that a teacher chooses play an important part. In accordance with Richards and Rogers (1986), the teacher’s role is to facilitate communication among the learners during the set activities, to provide learners with insight on how to become a successful language learner by sharing his/her own personal experiences of language learning and to organize resources.

Grasha (1996) defines the teaching styles as the pattern of belief, knowledge, performance and behaviour of teachers when they are teaching. He divided the teaching styles into five dimensions which are the expert style, formal authority style, personal model style, delegator style and facilitator style. Peacock (2001), on the other hand asserted that the teaching style is the manner a person teaches by nature, habitual, inclination or even a custom that s/he uses to convey information and skills in the classroom.
Along with the same line, Stein and Miller (1980) grouped teaching styles into two types: expressive teaching styles (the emotional relationship created by the teacher to the student or the class as a whole) and instrumental teaching style (the way teachers carry out the task to assist students, planning the lesson, setting up the classroom standard and ensure that students achieve the standards set).

Autonomy
In the last few decades, the diversity of ideas in the field of teaching and learning has been obvious and could have been the reason to many of the current developments in these fields. One of the subjects yet to be debated has been autonomy, inter alia, teachers’ autonomy. Hill (1991) asserts that “little progress can be made in debates about autonomy until these different ideas are sorted” (p. 44). In the same line, Barfield et al. (2002) stated that although researchers have clearly defined many aspects of learner autonomy, teacher autonomy requires a more focused and contextually sensitive definition. Furthermore, it could be said that autonomy is not a solid concept that has only one face but a complex one that is multi-faces; Hill and Holmbeck (1986) declared that 2 conceptualizations of autonomy “detachment from parents” and “freedom from social (largely parental) influence” have dominated recent research. Little (1991) held that autonomy is not a synonym for self-instruction; it means, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher; it does not entail an abdication of responsibility on the part of the teacher; autonomy is not another teaching method; and it is not a single, easily described behavior.

Arguing that ‘autonomy, in the perspective of complexity, encompasses properties and conditions for complex emergence, Paiva and Braga (2008) contended it is inextricably linked to its environment’. (cited in Paiva, 2011, p. 63) Likewise, Masouleh & Jooneghani (2012) claimed that its dynamic structure governs the nature of its interactions with the environment in which it is nested. Reviewing the literature on language teaching and learning, we face the fact that there is multiple basic ideas of autonomy. Some research, such as Smith (2000), identified four aspects of teacher autonomy: a capacity for self-directed teaching, freedom from control over teaching, a capacity for self-directed teacher learning and a responsibility to take actions and bear consequences.

RESEARCH QUESTION
Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' teaching styles and their autonomy.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants of this research were comprised of 129 teachers in the 22-45 age range who were yet teaching English at different language institutes of Tehran, Iran, inter alia, Asre Zaban Language Academy. The selection was based on willingness to participate and teachers were selected non-randomly based on convenient non-random sampling. A supervisor from each
Instrumentation

Grasha Teaching Style Inventory Questionnaire
A 40-item what named Grasha’s Teaching Style Inventory: Version 3.0 (1994), was used in this study. Teachers were asked to complete the scale about themselves and their teaching preferences. The questionnaire itself starts with an unfinished sentence: “When teaching my class, I would most be likely to:”. Each item is scored using a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Responses are scored for each teaching method on this 5-point scale. The five teaching styles (Grasha, 1994) considered in this questionnaire are Expert (Qs: 1, 6, 11, 16, 21, 26, 31, 36), Formal Authority (Qs: 2, 7, 12, 17, 22, 27, 32, 37), Personal Model (Qs: 3, 8, 13, 18, 23, 28, 33, 38), Delegator (Qs: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40) and Facilitator (4, 9, 14, 19, 24, 29, 34, 39).

Teacher Autonomy Survey (TAS)
Pearson and Moomaw’s Teacher Autonomy Survey (2005), is comprised of 18 questions originally designed so as to elicit the extent to which teachers perceive themselves autonomous in the following areas: (1) instructional planning and sequencing, (2) personal on-the-job decision making, (3) selection of activities and materials, and (4) classroom standards of conduct. The options vary from “Definitely True” to “Definitely False” and “More or Less True” and “More or Less False” comes in between. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17 were utilized to form the general autonomy scale. On the other hand, the curriculum autonomy scale was constructed by adding items 5, 6, 8, 12, 14 and 18. Moreover, items 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18 were recoded so that the high score denoted increased autonomy.

Procedure
In a descriptive study, the procedures should be described as accurately and completely as possible so that the replication of research by other researchers would become possible (Best & Kahn, 2006). At the outset of this study, in order to collect data, researcher distributed two questionnaires namely Grasha’s Teaching Style Inventory: Version 3.0 (1994), and Teaching Autonomy Scale (Pearson & Moomaw, 2005) among 200 teachers in various English language schools inter alia Asre-Zaban Language Academy. The teachers were requested to complete the survey during non-instructional times at their convenience, enclose and return them to the researcher within 1 week of receipt. The participants responded anonymously to the questionnaires. Out of 200 questionnaires, 162 instruments were returned. After being verified, 129 questionnaires, which were thoroughly done, were selected. The responses of all participants were carefully examined and scored. Afterwards, the correlation between the variables underwent statistical analyses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Testing the Null Hypothesis:
There is no significant relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ teaching styles and their autonomy.
In order to test the above null hypothesis, the frequencies of five aforementioned teaching styles in the sample were calculated, which are provided in tables 1 to 5.

### Table 1: Expert Frequency Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>98.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2: Formal Authority Frequency Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td>74.4</td>
<td>74.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Moderate</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3: Personal Model Frequency Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>80.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Moderate</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4: Facilitator Frequency Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Moderate</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 5: Delegator Frequency Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Moderate</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>93.0</td>
<td>93.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 1 to 5 show that 113, 33, 25, 81, 120 participants in Expert, Formal Authority, Personal Model, Facilitator and Delegator teaching styles, respectively, had the moderate level of the styles. Moreover, Personal Model had the highest number of low category with 104 by contrast to delegator style with 9. In addition, two teachers had a high level of Expert teaching style which
was, in effect, the only style with a high level. Tables 6 to 10 also present the descriptive statistics on curriculum and general autonomy scores alone and in terms of different levels of each teaching style separately.

**Table 6: Curriculum and General Autonomy Descriptives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>General Autonomy</th>
<th>Curriculum Autonomy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.8605</td>
<td>16.8915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>13.527</td>
<td>8.926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.67794</td>
<td>2.98758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.249</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.645</td>
<td>.545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>16.8915</td>
<td>16.8915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>.32382</td>
<td>.26304</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 6 demonstrates, general autonomy with 35.8605 owns a higher mean in comparison to curriculum autonomy with 16.8915. In addition, skewness for general autonomy is .249 which is quite different from that of curriculum autonomy (.356).

**Table 7: Curriculum and General Autonomy Descriptives for Different Levels of Expert Teaching Style**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expert</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>General Autonomy</th>
<th>Curriculum Autonomy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.4286</td>
<td>18.0714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>22.418</td>
<td>10.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>4.73472</td>
<td>3.55786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.380</td>
<td>.242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.1563</td>
<td>-.404</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.8584</td>
<td>16.9027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>12.658</td>
<td>7.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.55786</td>
<td>2.72542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td>-.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.404</td>
<td>.315</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. General Autonomy is constant when Expert = High. It has been omitted.
b. Curriculum Autonomy is constant when Expert = High. It has been omitted.
### Table 8: Autonomy Descriptives for Different Levels of Formal Authority Teaching Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Formal authority</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.5104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>12.631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.55408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Autonomy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>36.8788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>15.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.89517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>17.0625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>8.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>2.89396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Autonomy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>16.3939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>10.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.23979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>1.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>4.16333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>17.1346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>8.021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 9: Curriculum and General Autonomy Descriptives for Different Levels of Personal Model Teaching Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal model</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.6827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>12.607</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.55064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Autonomy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>36.6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>17.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>4.16333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>17.1346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>8.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>2.83206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Autonomy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>15.8800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>11.860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.44384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>1.616</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 10: Curriculum and General Autonomy Descriptives for Different Levels of Facilitator Teaching Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilitator</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.0625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.32883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Autonomy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>36.3333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.81117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>-.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>17.0417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>1.370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Autonomy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>16.8025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>2.80811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>1.354</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 11: Curriculum and General Autonomy Descriptives for Different Levels of Delegator Teaching Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delegator</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.2222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.96162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Autonomy</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>35.9083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>2.80811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>-.452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>1.354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>16.6417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>2.56413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Skewness</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from tables 7 to 11, Facilitator with 17.0417 has the lowest mean by contrast, Personal Model teaching style possesses the highest mean with 35.6827 regarding the low level. On the other side, in terms of the moderate level, Personal Model teaching style with 15.8800 has the lowest mean while Formal Authority teaching style with 36.8788 owns the highest.

Since the teaching styles are categorized into low, moderate, and high levels, each teaching style is considered as a nominal variable. Moreover, as the autonomy is also on an interval scale, the choice of statistic to measure the relationship between one nominal variable and one interval variable is eta. However, since the frequencies of some of the styles’ levels are very low, it was decided to choose non-parametric Kruskal Wallis and Mann Whitney tests to compare the levels of each style in terms of autonomy scores. The reason for choosing non-parametric tests was that the test of normality results in tables 12 to 16 indicated non-normality of the data (p <.05).

Table 12: Tests of Normality Regarding Expert

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expert</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
b. General Autonomy is constant when Expert = High. It has been omitted.
c. Curriculum Autonomy is constant when Expert = High. It has been omitted.

Table 13: Tests of Normality Regarding Formal Authority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Formal authority</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>.113</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
Tables 14 to 16 present the results on the comparison of general Autonomy and curriculum Autonomy scores across the categories of teaching styles. Evidently, the categories of Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles in terms of curriculum autonomy are significantly different from one another. In other words, there is a significant relationship between teachers' Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles and curriculum autonomy. A closer look at the descriptive statistics of these teaching styles reveals that the low category of the above teaching styles is of higher curriculum autonomy. This indicates that there is a negative relationship between teachers' Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles and curriculum autonomy while in terms of general autonomy, the hypothesis was retained.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of General Autonomy is the same across categories of Expert.</td>
<td>Independent-Samples</td>
<td>.300</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kruskal-Wallis Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Curriculum Autonomy is the same across categories of Expert.</td>
<td>Independent-Samples</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Table 17: Comparing Autonomy across Categories of Expert

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of General Autonomy is the same across categories of Formal authority.</td>
<td>Independent-Samples</td>
<td>.116</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Curriculum Autonomy is the same across categories of Formal authority.</td>
<td>Independent-Samples</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Table 18: Comparing Autonomy across Categories of Formal Authority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of General Autonomy is the same across categories of Personal model.</td>
<td>Independent-Samples</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td>Retain the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The distribution of Curriculum Autonomy is the same across categories of Personal model.</td>
<td>Independent-Samples</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>Reject the null hypothesis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mann-Whitney U Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

Table 19: Comparing Autonomy across Categories of Personal Model
Discussion

In its broadest term, this study was an attempt to broaden the scope of research on EFL teacher education. Among multiple variables related to English language teachers, researcher chose to remain focused to inspect whether or not there was any significant relationship between teachers’ teaching styles and their autonomy (general and curriculum). To this end, after examining 129 questionnaires which were thoroughly filled out, data analysis was run. After this stage, the researcher was able to reject the null hypothesis; that is to say, the categories of Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles in terms of curriculum autonomy are significantly different from one another. In other words, there is a significant relationship between teachers' Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles and curriculum autonomy. A closer look at the descriptive statistics of these teaching styles reveals that the low category of the above teaching styles is of higher curriculum autonomy. This indicates that there is a negative relationship between teachers' Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles and curriculum autonomy while in terms of general autonomy, the hypothesis was retained.
The findings of this study regarding teachers’ autonomy are to some extent in line with the results of the study done by L Carolyn Pearson and William Moomaw (2005) in which teachers’ autonomy was found correlated with on-the-job stress, professionalism and empowerment; in that as the curriculum autonomy increased, on-the-job stress decreased, but only little correlation was found between job satisfaction and curriculum autonomy; the study, as well, released that as general autonomy increased, so did empowerment and professionalism, but no relationship was detected between autonomy and teaching level (elementary, middle and high school).

Moreover, in terms of the second variable of this study, i.e, teachers’ teaching styles, pursuant to Hossein Nowrouzi (2012), it was proved that teachers’ teaching styles and self efficacy were significantly related; on the one hand, high self-efficacy was found to be related to particular teaching styles including Delegator and Personal Model, on the other hand, low self-efficacy was correlated to Expert and Formal Authority teaching styles.

**CONCLUSION**

The present study was an effort to contribute towards the betterment of the field of teacher education. The findings of this survey revealed that the categories of Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles in terms of curriculum autonomy are significantly different from one another. Simply put, there is a significant relationship between teachers' Expert, Personal Model, and Delegator styles and curriculum autonomy. A closer look at the descriptive statistics of these teaching styles proves that the low category of the above teaching styles is of higher curriculum autonomy.

The current study sustained the following limitations which are expected to be removed in the future studies.

First, the researcher based his selection of the participants on available sampling. The replication of the study is recommended in case procedures that allow a higher degree of randomization and ultimately more generalizability are employed. Second, on account of the corresponding nationality of all the participants – Iranian — the results cannot be generalized to teachers of other countries.

**Pedagogical implications**

This study was particularly performed so as to lay the major emphasis on teachers and their main attributes, the dearth of which has always been distinct throughout the academic research. By considering the main variables of this study, English language instruction could be facilitated and done more fruitfully. Teachers, by selecting an appropriate teaching style can make a great contribution towards the amelioration of students’ learning.

Pursuant to ETUCE (2008), it is the teacher who knows the classroom reality best and is able to make the best and most sound decisions with respect to the pupils. Accordingly, English language owners and directors ought to allow teachers more autonomy which may consequently enhance the quality of instruction.
REFERENCES


Wilson, M. (2011). *Students’ learning style preferences and teachers’ instructional strategies: Correlations between matched styles and academic achievement*

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**The Authors:**

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INCIDENTAL L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING AND RETENTION; TYPES OF GLOSSING: MARGINAL GLOSSES VS. ENDNOTES

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ABSTRACT
A surge of research interest has been targeted as to find the most effective types of glossing in second language (L2) incidental reading and L2 vocabulary learning. Capitalizing on Involvement Load Hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijin, 2001), the present study aims to compare the efficacy of two different types of glosses; marginal vs. endnotes in L2 vocabulary learning and retention. For the purpose of the data collection, two intact groups at Azad University of Bonab, Iran were randomly assigned to two groups. These two groups had more or less similar English proficiency knowledge. The participants (total=63) have been studying English at school and university for six years and all of them were majoring in accounting, genetics, electrical engineering, and microbiology. Students in first class were provided with marginal glosses and the latter group received glosses as endnotes. A pre-test was conducted to ensure that the target words were unfamiliar to the students. Both groups performed the given reading tasks under the similar conditions and allotted time. Finally, immediate posttest, embedding the same target words in it, was conducted. Two weeks a delayed posttest was conducted to investigate the retention of L2 vocabulary items. The results highlighted the beneficial effects for endnote glossing in both immediate and delayed posttest. It is argued that students in endnote group outperformed those in marginal gloss group (both in immediate and delayed posttest) highlight the fact that participants in endnote group involved in a wide range of mental tasks, e.g. making inferences, selective attention, establishing links between the meaning of the target words in the text and examples provided at the end of the reading comprehension task.

KEYWORDS: L2 vocabulary acquisition; L2 vocabulary retention; glossing

INTRODUCTION
There is little doubt that lexical development is an essential step in second language acquisition (Tight, 2010). Moreover, learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language, and the first or initial step in the process of acquiring vocabulary is to establish a form-meaning link (Schmitt, 2008). A number of studies (e.g., Schmidt, 2001; Watanabe, 1997) suggest that attention is crucial to learning. In all gloss conditions, the gloss drew attention to the word and encouraged learners to view the word as something to be learned and not just as part of the text (Watanabe, 1997). Gloss in L2 reading refers to providing a short definition or explanation of
important words in a text (Bowles, 2004; Nation, 2001). Traditionally, a ‘gloss’ refers to short definitions or explanations of the meanings of words at the bottom or sides of a text in order to support learners’ reading comprehension (Pak, 1986; Lomicka, 1998). Roby (1999) pointed out that “glosses are many kinds of attempts to supply what is perceived to be deficient in a reader’s procedural or declarative knowledge.” (p, 96). As an aid to learning new L2 vocabulary items and reading comprehension, 'glossing' has been the focus of much research interest in the field. Investigating the efficacy of different glossing types can have pedagogical implications for SLA theory and language teachers. The present study is an attempt to compare the effectiveness of two different glossing types on L2 vocabulary learning and retention.

LITERATURE REVIEW
It has been argued that glossing help vocabulary learning and assist reading comprehension (Ko, 2012). A number of studies have provided evidence that glosses are effective in helping learners learn new lexical items in a second language (Bowles, 2004; Cheng & Good, 2009).

Zhang (2007) showed that in terms of vocabulary gains, the provision of marginal glosses was the more beneficial than the availability of dictionary and non-dictionary use. By providing additional information such as definitions or synonyms, glossing helps students cope with insufficient contextual cues in learning new words while reading (Ko, 2012). Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996) examined Incidental vocabulary learning using marginal glosses and dictionaries. They also tested the effects of word frequency, either once or three times in the text. Researchers (Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Watanabe, 1997) have also found that glosses facilitate second-language learners’ vocabulary growth. Research has further indicated that language learners with access to marginal vocabulary glosses demonstrate greater vocabulary growth than those without glosses (Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn, et al., 1996; Watanabe, 1997). Additionally, Huang and Lin (2014) believe that glossing can increase the possibility of learning correct word meanings in context, but leaving words unglossed for learners to infer or retrieve their word meanings may increase the involvement load and mental effort, thus contributing to better retention (p.128).

Nation (2001) enumerated four advantages for glassing: First, learners can read difficult texts without simplification or adaptation. Second, providing accurate meanings prevents learners from guessing incorrectly, which should facilitate vocabulary learning and comprehension. Third, glossing does not seriously interrupt the reading process and it is less time-consuming than dictionary use. Fourth, learners may focus on glossed words, which may encourage learning. For example, the results of (Ko, 2012) indicated that glossing had a positive effect on L2 vocabulary learning.

More recently, (Ko, 2012) conducted a study to investigate the effect of different types of glosses as well as no- gloss and glossed texts on L2 vocabulary learning. The participants were randomly assigned to three groups: no gloss, L1 gloss, and L2 gloss. The participants were asked to read a text and after reading the materials, an unexpected vocabulary test was administered and a delayed vocabulary test was administered four weeks later. The findings showed that, on the
immediate vocabulary test, there was a significant difference between no-gloss and glossed conditions. However, participants showed no significant differences between texts with LI glosses and L2 glosses.

Turk and Ercetin (2014) investigated the effects of interactive versus simultaneous display of visual and verbal multimedia information on incidental vocabulary learning and reading comprehension of learners of English with lower proficiency levels. The study involved two conditions: interactive display condition and the simultaneous display condition. In the former condition, learners were permitted to choose the type of multimedia information while the simultaneous display condition presented the verbal (definitions) and visual (associated pictures) information in a single gloss. The results of (Turk & Ercetin, 2014) indicated that the participants utilized glosses less frequently when they were given the control over access to the type of multimedia information. Furthermore, simultaneous display of multimedia information led to better performance on reading and vocabulary tests.

Moreover, Nation (2001) is of the belief that unsimplified and unadapted texts can be used with L2 learners if glosses are incorporated. He adds that glossing leads to minimal interruption of the reading process by providing accurate meanings for words that might not be guessed correctly by learners. The results of (Ko, 2012) demonstrated that there would be a significant difference between gloss and no-gloss groups with respect to gaining word meaning. Huang's meta-analysis on the effects of glosses on L2 incidental vocabulary learning (2010) revealed that language learners who were provided with textual glosses gained more vocabulary than those who had no access to glosses.

According to Nation (2001), textual glosses help language learners consolidate knowledge of unknown words. Hulstijn (1992) proposed the use of multiple-choice glosses, which combine the advantages of inference with single glosses because they reduce the challenges imposed by insufficient context and the possibility of inaccurate inferences.

In addition, Hulstijn (1992) found that language learners who have to infer the meaning of unknown words in text by themselves (high mental effort) are more likely to remember the form and meaning of an unfamiliar word compared to those who are given the meaning of unknown words. In another study, Yanguas (2009) examined the effect of multimedia glosses on L2 incidental vocabulary learning. Two weeks prior to the research, a vocabulary pre-test administered to the participants. They were randomly assigned to one of four groups: control, textual, pictorial, and textual+ pictorial glosses. Results indicated that all groups exposed to glosses outperformed the control group in the immediate vocabulary recognition posttest. Furthermore, participants who were provided with textual +pictorial glosses performed the best, followed by the pictorial glosses, textual glosses, and control groups.

In an experiment, Yoshii (2006) found a significant difference between the L1 and L2 textual gloss groups and between the picture and no-picture groups. Among these four groups, the L1-plus-picture group performed the best. However, no significant difference was found on the
RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study addressed the following research questions:
1. Do glossing provided through marginal ones and glossing provided as endnotes affect L2 vocabulary learning differently?
2. Do glossing provided through marginal ones and glossing provided as endnotes affect L2 vocabulary retention differently?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants of the present study were 74 intermediate learners studying (EFL). They were 73 learners (male = 41, female = 32). But 9 of them were eliminated from the statistical analyses. Because 4 of them had the knowledge of some target words and five of them did not take delayed posttest. Two intact groups (group one = 31, group two = 32) at Azad University of Bonab, Iran were randomly assigned to two groups. These two groups had more or less similar English proficiency knowledge. The participants (total = 63) have been studying English at school and university for six years and all of them were majoring in accounting, genetics, electrical engineering, and microbiology. The participants age ranged between 19 to 39 (mean = 27).

Target words and materials
A reading text, a passage on philosophy, was adapted to the participants' level. Effort was made to ensure that participants were not familiar with the topic and therefore not have prior knowledge about it. We chose 12 target words and all of these lexical were bolded and appeared once in the text. Target words included: inquiry, privileged, legitimacy, revelation, speculative, epistemology, rational, extraction, insight, aesthetics, tacit, and obscurity. The text was adopted into two formats; one had marginal glosses and the latter had glosses appeared at the end of the reading task (as endnotes, as well as other information to trigger more mental processing). The reading task had 800 words and its reading difficulty index was determined through pilot study. Moreover, pilot study was conducted to determine the allotted time for task performance and ensure that the target words were unfamiliar to the participants. In this study, learning L2 vocabulary was operationalized as the ability to recognize vocabulary (receptive knowledge); because participants would be learning vocabulary as a result of reading.

Procedures
A total number of 63 students participated in this study. Prior to the main experiment, a cloze test was given to the students to check the equivalence of the two groups. The results of the independent T-test revealed that there were no significant differences between the two groups. Students in first class were provided with glosses in the form of marginal glosses and the latter group received glosses as endnotes. The participants in the marginal group received only English definitions of the target words on the margins of each page. Whereas, the participants in the
endnote group were provided with the definitions of the target words as well as examples to clarify their style, formal features, collocations, and other parts of speech of the target words in an attempt to trigger deeper processing level compared with the first group. A pre-test (recognition multiple-choice test) was conducted to ensure that the target words were unfamiliar to the students. Both groups performed the given reading tasks under the similar conditions and allotted time (40 minutes). The participants read the text and returned their materials. After finishing the reading comprehension test, they were given vocabulary test (11 minutes to take the L2 vocabulary test). Immediate posttest also had the format of recognition multiple-choice test. Two weeks later, the participants were given an unexpected delayed vocabulary posttest so that to investigate their retention of L2 vocabulary items. All tests were developed by the first researcher and through pilot study on a group of five students at the same level of L2 proficiency; some changes were made in their items and sequences. Both immediate and delayed posttest had the similar format and included 12 items. Following Ko (2012), every correct response on the part of the participants assigned 2 score. Hence the maximum score every participant could gain was 24.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Data were analyzed using SPSS version 18 and assuming the independence of the two groups, the independent samples t-test was used. Table1 provides the standard deviations, means, and for both marginal glosses and endnote groups (immediate and delayed posttest). The mean of marginal gloss group in immediate posttest was 9.29 and the mean of endnote group was 15.40. The mean of marginal gloss group in delayed posttest was 6.70, while the mean of endnote group was 11.31.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>delayed marginal</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6.7097</td>
<td>2.06871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delayed endnote</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11.3125</td>
<td>3.33542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immediate Marginal</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>9.2903</td>
<td>2.43849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immediate endnote</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.4063</td>
<td>2.94968</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the Table 2 t-observed of immediate posttest is 8.94 at (P<.05) and greater than t critical (1.67). Happily, the null hypothesis ($H_0$) stating that" there is no significant difference between the two groups in L2 vocabulary learning" is rejected. And the alternative hypothesis ($H_1$) stating that" participants receiving glosses at the end of the reading comprehension text with extra information about the target words outperformed those students that received the definitions of the target words as marginal glosses.

As far as delayed posttest is concerned, t observed for delayed posttest is 6.55 at (P<.05) and greater than t critical (1.67). The results verified the fact that retention rate of L2 vocabulary items is significantly different.
The findings of this study are in line with the predictions of Involvement Load Hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001) in that learning new vocabulary items is contingent on the degree of processing them. The results also gave support to (Ko, 2012; Roby, 1999) in that “glosses are many kinds of attempts to supply what is perceived to be deficient in a reader’s procedural or declarative knowledge.

It has been argued that glossing help vocabulary learning and assist reading comprehension (Ko, 2012). However, a number of studies have found beneficial effects for marginal glosses (Hulstijn, Hollander, Greidanus, 1996; Zhang, 2007). Some of them examined Incidental vocabulary learning using marginal glosses and dictionaries. The results of the study also support Zhang (2007) that in terms of vocabulary gains, the provision of marginal glosses was the more beneficial than the availability of dictionary and non-dictionary use.

The results of the present study are in line with the (Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Watanabe, 1997) in that glosses facilitate second-language learners’ vocabulary growth. A number of studies, however, highlighted the role of glosses in L2 vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn, et al., 1996; Watanabe, 1997). Those language learners with access to marginal vocabulary glosses demonstrate greater vocabulary growth than those without glosses. The present study, nonetheless, did not include control group to account for the differences between gloss and non-gloss groups.

The results of the present study also sit well with the argument of Huang and Lin (2014) in that leaving words unglossed for learners to infer or retrieve their word meanings may increase the involvement load and mental effort, thus contributing to better retention. We hypothesize that the more mental effort is consumed learning L2 vocabulary items, the longer and more stable would be the learning and retention of the target words. We also believe that providing L2 learners with different types of glosses should not be interpreted as not allowing them to involve in the task of L2 vocabulary learning and process incoming information. Rather, providing language learners with different types of glosses can be assumed as aiding reading task and proceed in it.

The fact that students in endnote group outperformed those in marginal gloss group (both in immediate and delayed posttest) highlight the fact that participants in endnote group involved in a wide range of mental tasks, e.g, making inferences, comparing and contrasting words, selective attention, returning back to the target sentences in the text, establishing links between the
meaning of the target words in the text and examples provided at the end of the reading comprehension task. All in all, these mental tasks and deeper levels of involvement in learning L2 vocabulary, we believe that, enhance the likelihood of coming L2 vocabulary items into memory.

**CONCLUSION**

Taken together, this study indicates that the more involvement triggered by the reading task, the better and higher the rate of L2 vocabulary learning and retention. We also call for modification of glosses in a way that trigger mental processing as well as aiding reading task. The results of this study should be taken as tentative and suggestive for future studies; different genre types, L2 reading proficiency, types of L2 words (emotion words, abstract words, and concrete words), L1 and L2 distance, age of the participants might have some moderating effects on the findings. Other studies should look at different types and times of delivery of the glosses. The timing of glosses may be a much more important factor in enhancing mental processing and deeper level of involvement in L2 vocabulary learning. This study has a number of pedagogical implications for syllabus designers, and language teachers as to involve students more deeply in the process of L2 vocabulary learning tasks. Language teachers should design classroom tasks in a way that trigger independent learning and allow mental processing. Language teachers should train students in a way that they would be able to employ different reading strategies as well as vocabulary learning techniques. Syllabus designers and curriculum planners should select and sequence learning tasks in a way moving from less mental demanding tasks towards the classroom tasks that require deeper mental processing on the part of the language learners. Other lines of inquiry can compare the sequencing of different glossing types in more longitudinal studies. Since L2 vocabulary and reading comprehension are regarded as incremental and long-term task. This study has a number of limitations; first, the duration of the treatment sessions was not long enough to generalize the findings to other contexts. Second, Iranian EFL learners' repertoire of L2 reading would not allow them to be good readers. They rarely taught reading strategies at schools and universities as well. Third, the reading task type and format and testing types might have confounding effects on the L2 vocabulary learning and retention. Fourth, all the target words in this study were "abstract words". Word type such as this may affect the findings.

**REFERENCES**


ABSTRACT
The present study is an attempt to investigate the effect of the interactionist model of dynamic assessment on the learners' grammatical knowledge of English relative pronouns through a sandwich format. To this end, 60 learners from Navid Language Institute in Shiraz, Iran were randomly selected; and also were assigned into two homogeneous groups. In this study, 30 learners were from the teenager department and the rest were from the adult department. Then, the three aspects of a sandwich format through the interactionist model of dynamic assessment (DA) were conducted in both departments. The independent sample t-test was used to analyze the results obtained from both the teenagers and adults' groups. The findings of this study illustrated a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the grammatical English relative pronouns tests in both groups which shows the improvement of scores after mediation. Consequently, it is shown that the teenagers would benefit from the interactionist DA based on a sandwich format more than the adult learners. The results obtained from this study can have useful implications for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners and teachers. To this end, the results can be of crucial significance for EFL students in order to diagnose their weaknesses and strengths; and also mitigate their weaknesses in subsequent evaluations. In classroom setting, teachers can also make use of DA as a kind of strategic assessment which provides them useful information so that they can evaluate their students precisely.

KEYWORDS: Dynamic Assessment, Interactionist DA, Sandwich Format, Relative Pronouns
INTRODUCTION
The first decade of the twenty first century is marked with the changes in educational settings including language assessment and instruction. One of the most important reconsiderations came about in reaction to traditional psychometric views which support a disintegrated view of instruction and assessment. The novel approach known as dynamic assessment (DA) has established a profound integration between language testing and language instruction. Poehner (2008, p.2) posits that "active collaboration with individuals simultaneously reveals the full range of their abilities and promotes their development. In educational contexts, this means that assessment – understanding learners’ abilities – and instruction – supporting learner development – are a dialectically integrated activity". This approach has come to be known as dynamic assessment. Dynamic assessment is primarily rooted in Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978, p.86) clearly defines ZPD as "the distance between the actual development level as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". As such, learners with a large ZPD are more responsive to the assistance, while the learners with a small ZPD are less responsive (Poehner, 2008). Dynamic assessment suggests a wealth of development in educational settings. It contends that mental abilities are socially mediated through interaction with others (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004).

While several studies have been devised (eg, Ableeva, 2008; Lantolf & Poehner; 2004; Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002) to evaluate dynamic assessment in foreign language learning, no study has been carried out thus far to examine the effect of DA on learners' grammatical knowledge of English relative pronouns. However, the main objective of this study was to investigate the effects of the interactionist model of DA on the learners' grammatical English relative pronouns through a sandwich format.

Dynamic Assessment vs. Non-dynamic Assessment
According to Poehner (2008) dynamic testing and non-dynamic testing are not referred to as assessment instruments but to administration procedures. In dynamic assessment the learners are taught on how to perform certain tasks through mediated assistance (Kirschenbaum, 1998). Also, in dynamic assessment procedures, the emphasis is on the process rather than the products of learning. In other words, the dynamic nature of this theory is highly and primarily rooted in Vygotsky’s observation that a body can envisage what it is only in movement (Lidz & Gindis, 2003). According to Lidz (1987, p. 4) DA is “an interaction between an examiner-as-intervener and a learner-as-active participant, which seeks to estimate the degree of modifiability of the learner and the means by which positive changes in cognitive functioning can be induced and maintained”.

Non dynamic assessment is to make decision on static, one time scores exclusively (Wiedl, Guthke & Wingenfeld, 1995). According to Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002), in non-dynamic testing the questions are administered to test takers who are supposed to answer successively, without taking any kind of assistance. In contrast, dynamic assessment intends to provide learners with sufficient support in order to make amend their learning deficits and also assist them to reach their potential development.
Interactionist vs. Interventionist Dynamic Assessment

In this section attempt has been made to elaborate on the differences between the two significant approaches to DA – interventionist and interactionist. In the interventionist model, different types of mediations are systematized and standardized, thereby underscoring the psychometric and statistical properties of the assessment procedure (Poehner, 2008). In the interactionist model, "assistance emerges from the interaction between the examiner and the learner, and is therefore highly sensitive to the learner’s ZPD" (Lantolf, 2007, p. 54). Interventionist DA "is concerned with quantifying, as an index of speed of learning" (Brown & Ferrara, 1985, p.300). In other words, Interventionist DA emphasizes on the amount of assistance or mediation indispensable for a learner to quickly reach a pre-determined end point. Interactionist DA, on the other hand, focuses on the development of an individual learner or even a group of learners, irrespective of the effort required and without concern for a pre-specified end point (Lantolf, 2007). Antón (2003) and Gibbons (2003) conducted empirical studies with respect to the interactionist model of DA. Antón (2003) supports an interactionist DA procedure used for placement purposes in a university advanced L2 Spanish program and demonstrates that the interactionist DA procedure indicated significant differences among candidates that may have otherwise remained hidden. Gibbons (2003) also demonstrates the importance of interactionist DA in an L2 content-based school setting.

Sandwich and Cake Formats of DA

DA procedures can be designed in accordance with what Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) have described as sandwich and cake formats. The sandwich format is much more consistent with traditional experimental research designs in which mediation is administered following a pretest and a post-test (used to investigate the effectiveness of the mediation) (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002). In the sandwich format to DA, "a mediation phase is similarly sandwiched between pretest and posttest that are administered in a non-dynamic manner (Poehner, 2008, p.19)". The performance on the posttest can then be compared to that of pretest so as to determine how much promotion an individual made as a result of assistance (Poehner, 2008). Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) also posit that these procedures can be administered in either an individual or group setting, and that in individualized procedures the assistance may also be individualized, while in group procedures the assistance tends to be equal for everyone. In the latter format namely the cake format assistance or mediation is offered during the administration of the assessment, whenever problems emerge. According to Poehner (2008) in interventionist approaches to DA, the assistance offered might be in the form of a set of graded standardized hints ranging from implicit to explicit. Then the mediator calculates the number of hints indispensable for the learner in order to respond appropriately to the particular item. Also, in an interactionist approaches to DA, any evaluation of variation in learners over time would have to include both the quality and quantity of assistance (Poehner, 2008). In the present study attempt was made to investigate the effect of the interactionist model of DA on the learners' grammatical English relative pronouns through a sandwich format.

Mediated Learning Experience (MLE)

Feuerstein et al. (1988) describe the mediated learning experience (MLE) as a procedure through which external stimuli do not influence directly on the organism but are adjusted through usually
an adult mediator, who frames order on the stimuli to make assure that the relations between specific stimuli will be experienced in a specific way. Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002) express that the mediator not only refines the stimuli or task but also influences the learner by provoking him or her to a higher level of curiosity and to a level at which structural cognitive changes can occur. While differences are apparent between Vygotsky’s and Feuerstein’s theories both researchers understand mediation and assistance as the psychological part of cultural transmission (Poehner, 2008). As Lantolf (2007) posit, the MLE comprises from several significant components, including feelings of competence, ability to self-regulate, and the internalization of general learning principles that guide the individual in ‘learning how to learn. Furthermore, the mediator must carefully select culturally determined stimuli for presentation to the individual. This enables the learner to easily inculcate the cultural practice one is taking part in with the mediator. In order to further extend current abilities to prospective performances, the individual must extend what has been internalized by expecting outcomes which are probable to result from certain actions (Sternberg & Grigorenko, 2002).

**Empirical Studies in Dynamic Assessment on the EFL Context**

On the EFL context in Iran the following researchers have conducted their studies to assess the effect of DA on the Iranian EFL learners. Jafary et al. (2012) investigated the effect of dynamic assessment on learners’ syntactic knowledge. The results showed that at a 0.05 level of significance the mean of experimental group was more than the mean of control group for different scores. Also, Pishghadam et al. (2011) investigated the effectiveness of using a computerized dynamic reading comprehension test (CDRT) on the Iranian EFL students. The results illustrated that providing mediation in the form of hints contributed significantly to the increase of students’ scores, and consequently to the improvement of text comprehension. In another study conducted by Zoghi and Malmeer (2013) attempt was made to explore the effect of an interactionist model of DA on the Iranian EFL adult learners’ intrinsic motivation. The results indicated a significant difference between the two groups namely experimental and control group in terms of their amount of intrinsic motivation. The experimental group showed a high intrinsic motivation due to the interactionist model of DA.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study was designed to investigate the possible effect of interactionist dynamic assessment on students’ grammatical English relative pronouns and the degree of the effect that DA can have with respect to the learners' age. Thus, the following research questions were proposed:

Q1: Is there any significant difference between teenagers and adults performance in grammatical English relative pronouns when a DA procedure is used?
Q2: Does the interactionist dynamic assessment based on a sandwich format promote the learners' grammatical English relative pronouns?
METHODOLOGY

Participants
In this study the three aspects of the sandwich format of dynamic assessment were used with 60 EFL students in Navid Language Institute in Shiraz, Iran. To this end, 30 learners were randomly selected from the adult department and the rest were from the teenager department. All the participants were basically studying the Top Notch series books for the purpose of learning English better and achieving higher degrees in their education.

Design of the Study
The design of the study was based on an experimental design accompanied with pre-test and post-test comparison groups. Also the three aspects of a sandwich format namely, pre-test, mediation, and post-test were used. As poehner (2008) clearly states, in sandwich format a mediation phase is sandwiched between pre-testing and post-testing. As such, in this study the researchers attempted to help the students in order to see the effect of the interactionist model of dynamic assessment. Also, attempt was made not to disclose the answers explicitly but to provide them with hints implicitly. Consequently, the performance on the post-test was compared to that of pre-test so as to see how much improvement in English relative pronouns emerged.

Corpus
For the purpose of data collection on the students' ability in relative pronouns the researchers used the exercises in Navid Language Institute students’ books.

Instruments
In this study, 40 multiple choice items of relative pronouns were extracted from the standardized TOEFL® test to be implemented as the questions of the study. The researchers administered two different but equivalent grammatical English relative pronouns tests in the pre-testing and post-testing stage. To this end, 20 items were administered in the pre-testing stage and the rest were administered in the post-testing stage.

Procedures
Six classes in Navid Language Institute in Shiraz, Iran (three from the teenager's department and three from the adult's department) were randomly selected and attempt was made to equate the number of students in each class for the purpose of having an equal sample size in each department in order to be able to compare the mean scores of the groups. To this end, in each department 30 students were randomly selected as participants of the study. The researchers scheduled to implement the three stages of sandwich format through the interactionist DA. To this end, two tests on grammatical English relative pronouns were prepared to be implemented in pre-test and post-test stage. The three stages are as follow.

In the pre-test stage as the first stage the students in both groups were given some question in terms of grammatical English relative pronouns and were asked to answer them. The questions were all in multiple choice formats. Then the researchers carefully corrected learners’ papers obtained from the students and tried to provide individual comments and explanations to the students for their errors of grammatical English relative pronouns.
In the second stage, the researchers, who adopt a mediator role gave feedback, explanation through interaction and provided hints to them from implicit to explicit.

Finally in the last stage a post-test was administered. In this stage the questions were equivalent but different to that of the pre-test stage so as to compare the learners' improvement in grammatical English relative pronouns in both teenagers and adults' group. Then, the data were submitted to Spss for two independent samples of t-test between the groups.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In order to delve into the research questions the three aspects of the sandwich format through interactionist DA was administered to the students in both groups. Then the descriptive statistic was used on both groups. The results of descriptive analysis are illustrated in Table 1. As can be seen from the result, in the pre-testing stage both groups were nearly homogeneous with respect to their knowledge of grammatical English relative pronouns. In addition, there was no significant difference between teenagers and adults in the pre-testing stage with regard to their mean scores. Moreover, as can be seen from Table 1, in the post-test stage the teenagers showed improvement in their grammatical knowledge of English relative pronouns in comparison to adults.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test Teens</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.317</td>
<td>2.78456</td>
<td>.45432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test Adults</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.325</td>
<td>3.42567</td>
<td>.32156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test Teens</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.750</td>
<td>2.65461</td>
<td>.45432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test Adults</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>16.525</td>
<td>3.31165</td>
<td>.37654</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Descriptive statistics: Results of pre-test post-test scores in both groups

Table 2 illustrates the result of the pre-testing stage. Regarding the pre-testing stage the independent t-test between teenagers and adults was conducted. As can be seen from the results, both groups are nearly equal before mediation. Then, another t-test was conducted on both groups in the post-test stage in order to reveal the amount of improvement in learners' grammatical English relative pronouns. To this end, Table 3 indicates the results of independent sample t-test pertained to the post-test scores in both groups. Independent sample t-test illustrates a significant difference of .108, \( t(60) = 1.575, p>.05 \). Also, the eta square is .02 which is small.
The findings of this study would be discussed with respect to two main objectives of the study that the researchers intended to investigate. At first, the effect of DA on learners' grammatical knowledge of English relative pronouns then the effect of DA on learners' age would be discussed. The results obtained from the comparison of the pre-testing and post-testing stage in terms of their mean scores revealed that both adults and teenagers improved their performances through the use of an interactionist model of DA based on a sandwich format. The results obtained from the present study are consistent with the other studies indicating the positive effect of DA on the EFL learners (eg. Ableeva, 2008; Jafary et al., 2012; Lantolf & Poehner, 2004; Pishghadam et al., 2011; Zoghi & Malmeer, 2013).

The current study also illustrated that learners in different age groups were not influenced by DA to the same degree. In this study, it was obvious that the teenagers would benefit more than the...
adults when an interactionist model of dynamic assessment based on a sandwich format was conducted in order to evaluate learners' grammatical English relative pronouns. A very lucrative interaction which happened between the teenagers and the researchers led the teens to gain more from this procedure. One possible explanation might be regarded as the behavior that the teens have in the process of interacting with the examiners because they are more lenient in accepting their mistakes in comparison to the adults. In contrast, adults seem to benefit from the controlled standardized teaching hints and techniques. Furthermore, the findings could be explained from Piaget's view of intellectual learning. For Piaget, language development is the result of gradual promotion of general intellectual skills. As adults have more developed intellectual system it is probable that they would benefit cognitive processes including standardized strategies more when they are learning a language than teenagers that their intellectual capacity is not as developed as adults and are more susceptible to interact with others.

CONCLUSION
This study attempted to investigate the effect of an interactionist model of dynamic assessment on the EFL learners' grammatical English tenses. The study revealed that an interactionist dynamic assessment based on a sandwich format plays a major role on the improvement of learners' grammatical knowledge of English relative pronouns. In other words the findings of this study propose practical usages for classroom learning. The learners in the current study had positive attitudes toward learning English relative pronouns through the interactionist model of dynamic assessment as was clearly shown in their posttest scores. To this end, the use of dynamic assessment in classrooms can set the ground for better instruction and assessment which consequently promotes the quality of education. The current study is also implicated that through the incessant interaction of teachers and students, students can be informed of their own weaknesses and their strengths. Teachers can also help them for their breakdowns in the course of teaching. The results also revealed that the adult learners will not benefit DA to the extent that the teens do. The results gained from this study can be of paramount importance for both EFL teachers and students. EFL teachers should have access to the finding of this study to provide an appropriate and useful way of integrating teaching and testing; and also EFL learners required to be informed that instruction through assessment help them to become aware of their weaknesses and strengths. As such, learners have this opportunity to mitigate their weaknesses in subsequent evaluations.

Not surprisingly, DA even with all its practical restrictions has been regarded as relative solution to the drawbacks of traditional static tests. The results of this study suggest that further research on the effects of mediations in dynamic assessment whether interactionist or interventionist are warranted.

Conducting needs analysis during a course and having classes with a few number of learners help teachers implement the features of dynamic assessment and reach the potential development of their students as much as possible.

Limitations of the study
Although this study informed EFL teachers regarding the integration of instruction and assessment in the course of education, it suffers from some limitations. First, variables such as gender and personal variables were not taken into account so as to have a good picture of the obtained results. Second, the number of the participants in this study was comparatively small for the results to be generalized to the population of EFL learners in Iran. Third, this study was mainly focused on the interactionist model of DA and the interventionist model was not emphasized. Therefore, other researchers interested in DA can benefit from these issues to fill the gap emerged in the literature.

REFERENCES
COMPARING TWO DIFFERENT VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES IN AN IRANIAN EFL CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT
This study was designated to investigate the effects of two mnemonic non-verbal vocabulary learning strategies (Key Word Method and Semantic Mapping Strategy Instruction) to learning new lexical items. 63 students majoring English as a foreign language at Islamic Azad University in Maragheh, Iran, were participated in this study. According to Nelson proficiency test scores, the subjects were divided into three groups. One control group who learnt the target words in a conventional way, and two experimental groups with two vocabulary leaning approaches, KWM and SMSI. Before treatment, the subjects participated in pretest to assess their levels of vocabulary knowledge, then they took a posttest to measure the amount of vocabulary learning and retention. The obtained data were analyzed through SPSS software for windows. The results revealed that the subjects in KWM performed better than the other two groups and those who were in SMSI group outperformed than those in control group. The outcomes of the present study would open a new way for presenting different vocabulary learning strategies and improving EFL learners’ better understanding and retaining of new presented target words.

KEYWORDS: vocabulary learning, Key Word Method, Semantic Mapping Instruction, vocabulary retention, mnemonics, non-verbal strategies

INTRODUCTION
Nowadays, vocabulary is considered as an essential segment of second language learning and acquisition. It provides many advantage second language learners (Hippner-Page, 2000). Lynch (1996) believed that acquiring vocabulary is assumed as a vital process in learning a second of foreign language because it enhances learners’ comprehension and serves as an influential step in making progress in language learning. Regarding the importance of vocabulary learning, a great number of different approaches to language learning, each with a different outlook on vocabulary, was proposed (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Jesa, 2008). On vocabulary (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Jesa, 2008). Once in a while, language teaching methodologies have received great weight to vocabulary learning, and sometimes it has been neglected (Schmitt, 2000). In practice, grammar and pronunciation are at the core of language learning, while vocabulary is neglected in most foreign language classes (Fernández, Prahlad, Rubtsova,
Sabitov, 2009; Farghal & Obiedat, 1995). Nowadays it’s widely accepted that vocabulary learning is one of the essential elements both of acquisition of one’s native language and of learning a foreign language (Morra & Camba, 2009). Learning vocabulary is seen as a key element to achieve a high level of proficiency in the target language by a large number of theoreticians (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Also researchers, teachers and others involved in foreign language learning are paying special attention to foreign language vocabulary acquisition (Zu, 2009). It is believed that having a large and varied vocabulary is the indicator of communicative competence and it is one of the important aspects of language learning (McCrostie, 2007).

Insights gained from the vocabulary learning processes have now highlighted the fact that second and foreign language learners should concentrate their efforts on developing vocabulary learning strategies. Regardless of this importance, for many years, there was little or no emphasis on vocabulary teaching. It was proposed that students should be able to learn the new target words they need without the aid of their teachers. Recently, researchers paid more attention to a number of strategies and techniques for teaching vocabulary (e.g. Rott, Williams & Cameron, 2002; Boers, PiquerPiriz, Free, & Eyckmans, 2009; Mizumoto, & Kansai, 2009; Shen, 2010). Research findings suggested that lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words in expressing intended meaning (Allen, 1983). Studies in vocabulary learning are considered as a “promising area of inquiry” (Ellis, 1990: 214).

Now that there is general agreement among vocabulary specialists on the point that lexical competence is at the very heart of communicative competence, there is a need for expanding the body of experimental studies to address several key questions about the effectiveness of different strategies and techniques of L2 vocabulary instruction on learning and retention. Considering the significance of vocabulary in language learning domain and to address the above problems, the current study was designed to determine the effectiveness of two mnemonic non-verbal approaches, Keyword Word Method (KWM) and Semantic Mapping Strategy Instruction (SMSI) in enhancing learning and retention of vocabulary items.

**Theoretical Background**

The first years of first language (L1) acquisition are often characterized as focusing on language at the lexical level (Piennemann, Johnston, & Brindley, 1988). Likewise, many second language acquisition (SLA) researchers believe that sufficient lexical knowledge is the essential component in developing second language proficiency (Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Kim, 2011). Researchers of SLA (Gass, 1989; Olshtain, 1987; Richards, 1976; Tekmen & Daloglu, 2006) have identified lexical knowledge as including seven major components: (1) knowing various denotations of a word, (2) knowing appropriate uses of a word, (3) knowing its syntactic properties, (4) knowing its underlying forms and derivations, (5) knowing the associations the word has with other words (collocations), (6) knowing the connotations of a word and (7) knowing its frequency of occurrence.
Accordingly, language teachers and researchers have recently been cognizant of the fact that vocabulary is a vital aspect of language, which is worth investigating. However, learners usually confess that they experience substantial complexity with learning new words and many of them spot the acquisition of vocabulary as their utmost foundation of problems. The problem is to discover which ways or skills will best help learners better learn, retain and retrieve vocabulary. Consequently, it is essential for language teachers to be aware of the effectiveness of different methods of vocabulary teaching to choose the ones that are the most effective to their students; this is what we follow in this experimental study. A number of researchers have recently examined the fruitfulness of different techniques of vocabulary instruction (Rott, Williams, & Cameron, 2002; Singleton, 2008; Min, 2008; Mizumoto, & Kansai, 2009; File & Adams, 2010). Among these techniques are two non-verbal strategies, as mentioned before KWM and SMSI.

Key Word Method
Numerous attempts have been made in the last few decades to optimize the teaching of foreign language vocabulary. Some researchers claim that optimization allows for far more effective vocabulary learning than having learners resort to his own instructional decisions. It was claimed that learners need to be given explicit instruction of vocabulary strategy in order to facilitate their awareness of vocabulary learning strategies that they can use to learn their own outside the classroom (Atay & Ozbulgan, 2007). Among the vocabulary learning methods, vocabulary memorization strategies involving deeper processing may result in better retention of words than strategies for shallow processing (Sagarra & Alba, 2006). Thus, one of the most popular and the most extensively researched foreign language vocabulary teaching methods has been the keyword method (Rodriguez & Sadoski, 2000; Pressley, Levin and Delaney, 1982) for that the theoretical framework for the encouragement of using keyword method (KWM) in vocabulary learning lies in its strength of verbal linkage and visual imagery in the memory process.

Djignovic (2000) illustrates that the KWM represents one attempt to optimize learning foreign language vocabulary. The idea emerged in an experimental psychologist’s laboratory and divides vocabulary learning into two stages. First, the learner associates the spoken foreign language word with the keyword, which is an L1 word that sounds like some part of the foreign word, that is, it is similar in sound but has no other relationship to the foreign word. In the second stage, the learner forms a mental image of the keyword interacting with the L1 translation. Thus, the keyword method consists in forming a chain of two links connecting a foreign word to its translation.

The KWM may trace back to the empirical support of Paivio’s (1997) Dual-Coding Theory (Rodriguez & Sadoski, 2000; Shapiro & Waters, 2005). As Shapiro and Waters (2005) pointed out, memories are stored in two different coding systems in Dual-Coding Theory with different levels of processing ranging from shallow to deep. Shallow processing emphasizes surface features of words to be remembered such as sounds, orthography, or physical features such as the number of vertical lines in a word, while deep processing focuses on meaning. The richer the meaning of an item to be remembered, the deeper the processing and the more it will be recalled (Craik & Lockhart, 1972, as cited in Shapiro & Waters, 2005). Such strategy associates the
meaning, sound, and image of the L1 and L2 has been found to improve retention (Hulstijn, 1997; Pressley, Level, & Miller, 1982, as cited in Fan, 2003).

Different definitions in the literature (Holden, 1999; Hustiljn, 1997; Paivio, 1983; Thompson, 1987) have been proposed for this mnemonic technique. The most comprehensive of which is the definition provided by Hulstijn (1997) who characterizes the KWM in terms of three categories: 1) an L1 or L2 word which refers to a concrete entity and is selected according to acoustic or orthographic similarity with the L2 target word; 2) a strong association between the target word and the keyword must be constructed, so that the learner, when seeing or hearing the word is immediately reminded of the keyword; 3) a visual image must be constructed combining the referents of the keyword and the target word, preferably in a salient, odd, or bizarre fashion in order to increase its memorability. (P. 204)

Recent studies examined the facilitation of the keyword strategy on foreign language learning and enhancement of vocabulary recall. Rodriguez and Sadoski (2000) conducted a study to explore the effectiveness of training in the use of the keyword method for vocabulary acquisition by students who are experienced in learning a foreign language. It was found that the keyword-trained students maintained a significant and substantial advantage in recall of word definitions over control students. Similarly, Shapiro and Waters (2005) indicated that the keyword method of vocabulary learning is a mnemonic method to help students learn foreign vocabulary. The keyword method was effective for that it provided a meaningful visual image upon which to base memory for a new word’s meaning. In Taiwan, researchers also found positive effect of the keyword method on elementary school and senior high school students’ vocabulary retention (Chen, 2006; Hsu, 2007; Lin, 2004) and on elementary school students’ learning of word meaning (Lin, 2009) as well.

McDaniel and Pressley (1989) compared the keyword technique, in which students learn words through the combination of an auditory and imagery link, with the context method and found the former to be significantly more facilitative to learning than the latter. However, for longer term retention, findings related to the effect of use of the keyword method are more mixed, with some research demonstrating growth in recall after an immediate decline (Lawson & Hogben, 1998) and other research showing decline in levels of recall (e.g., Avila & Sadowski, 1996; Wang & Thomas, 1995). To our knowledge and experience, we suppose that the mixed results seem to be associated with use of different experimental procedures and testing protocols applied in these studies. Another study by Pressley, Levin, and Miller (1981) carried out an experiment with elementary school students in which keyword training facilitated the recall of Spanish words with both concrete and abstract referents. For materializing the keyword method, Olshtain and Barzilay (1991) used English-language vocabulary items of a rare and rather technical kind. They found keyword superiority for concrete but not for abstract words on immediate post-testing.

Wyra, Lawson, and Hungi (2007) examined the effects on recall of word-meaning pairs of the training in the use of keyword procedure. The researchers used six Spanish words as instruction and 22 Spanish-English pairs used as target words in the learning and testing part and found that
the training was a significant predictor of both backward and forward recall performance. Chen (2006) investigated the effect of the keyword method on elementary school students’ long-term vocabulary learning in EFL setting in Taiwan and found that the elementary school students in the keyword-given and keyword-generated groups indicated that the keyword method was not only an interesting tool for learning English vocabulary, but also a skill helping them in acquiring the English words in a faster and easier way which can also increase the level of retention. The lack of the research on the keyword strategy training effect in learners’ vocabulary learning process motivated the researchers to conduct further study.

Semantic Mapping Strategy Instruction

In spite of the importance of direct vocabulary instruction and vocabulary acquisition strategies, little research has been carried out with special attention to the teaching of specific vocabulary strategy (Brown & Perry, 1991). Johnson and Gu (1996) proposed different vocabulary learning strategies in general and paid special attention to Semantic Mapping Strategy Instruction (SMSI). SMSI involves drawing a diagram of the relationship between words according to their use in a particular text and is defined as a collaborative effort between the teacher and the class (Stahl & Vancil, 1986). Other memory strategies such as elaborating, associating and using imagery are contributed in this strategy (Oxford, 1990).

In SMSI, usually, the teacher presents a particular topic or situation to the students (e.g., food, professions, vacations, and so on) and the students are presented with a list of words and pictures that are most commonly related to the particular topic or situation. The vocabulary is then semantically related. This method of presentation is also viewed as an effective tool for vocabulary acquisition and retention by researchers such as Gairns and Redman (1986), Nattinger (1988), Stahl and Nagy (2006), and Graves (2006), who believe that presenting two words that are semantically related not only helps a learner to become aware of the similarities in meaning but also to determine and remember the differences between them.

Semantic mapping has been utilized in a wide variety of ways, including the following: as a means of enhancing the teaching of study skills (Hanf, 1971; Heimlich & Pittleman, 1986), as a framework for identifying the structural organization of texts (Clewell & Haidemos, 1986), as a strategy for promoting disable students’ reading comprehension skill (Sinatra et al., 1948), as an assessment technique (Fleener & Marek, 1992), etc. this strategy is as well effective for enhancing vocabulary knowledge of the learners’ instructional level (Huynh et al., 2002).

A number of studies have been carried out regarding the effect of semantic mapping strategy (Bos & Andres, 1990; Brown & Perry, 1991; Zaid, 1995; Morin & Goebel, 2001). Crow and Quigley (1985) investigated the semantic field approach that there was a formal association between five related words and a keyword that could be mentally substituted in context. In a study with 61 high school students as subjects, Bos and Andres (1990) compared the effect of three knowledge-based interactive vocabulary instruction techniques, in which students were assigned to one of the three groups with three different treatments: semantic mapping group, semantic feature analysis group, and concepts’ relations analysis. According to their research
outcomes, students who received treatment with knowledge-based interactive vocabulary technique scored higher than other students.

Nilforoushan (2012) examined the effect of teaching vocabulary through semantic mapping on the awareness of two affective dimensions, evaluation and potency dimensions of deep vocabulary knowledge as well as the general vocabulary knowledge of EFL students. Sixty intermediate EFL female adult learners participated in this study; they were chosen among 90 students through Preliminary English test and a general vocabulary knowledge test. They were thus randomly divided into two groups, experimental and control, each consisting of 30 students. At the end, students took a vocabulary achievement test and a test of awareness of evaluation and potency dimensions of deep vocabulary knowledge. Results showed that teaching vocabularies through semantic mapping significantly improved learners’ awareness of the two dimensions.

Abdollahzadeh and Amiri (2009) investigated the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction via semantic mapping against the established traditional vocabulary teaching techniques in Iran. The sample of the study consisted of two hundred and sixty four intermediate adult Iranian EFL learners from different language institutes in Orumieh took part in the study. They were divided into two equal groups consisting of 9 classes in the control group, and 8 classes in the experimental group. They found out that the experimental group demonstrated significant superiority over the control group with regard to the scores obtained in the post-test. In other words, employing semantic maps to teach vocabulary items was demonstrated to have a positive effect on the vocabulary learning of adult Iranian EFL learners.

Simpson (1994) conducted a study to determine the effectiveness of semantic mapping as an independent note-taking skill especially in the content area of 11th grade English. The subjects consisted of 49 students. Results did not indicate a significant difference resulting from the use of semantic mapping although students’ attitude and assessment indicated an interest in and a willingness to use the method. The researcher recommended considering semantic mapping as an alternative to traditional linear note-taking because it is equally useful to promote achievement and may be more appealing to students.

Tinkham (1993) determined that L2 learners were able to learn words that were not semantically related faster than those that were. In his study, 20 English speakers were asked to learn and orally recall sets of three semantically related and unrelated non-words (paired with their English counterparts) and two sets of six semantically related and unrelated non-words (also accompanied by an English translation). In both experiments, the participants were able to learn and recall the semantically unrelated set faster than the semantically related set, and they also reported having greatest difficulty remembering the related words. The results of this study were replicated by Waring (1997), but with 20 Japanese speakers. The conditions and materials for the study were the same as Tinkham’s (except that the non-words were phonologically adapted to reflect Japanese phonology and their translations were words in that language). The results of this study mirrored those reported by Tinkham, as the Japanese speakers had less difficulty learning
the unrelated non-words than the related ones. In addition, they also described the semantically related sets as being the most difficult to learn.

The review of related literature on two non-verbal mnemonic strategies, key word method and semantic mapping strategy, has been conducted on different samples whereas the current study has been conducted on college EFL students. Moreover, there seems to be no experimental studies at all (to the best knowledge of the researcher) on the usage and comparing these two vocabulary learning strategies together as tools conducted among EFL classrooms in Iran. Therefore, this study aimed at filling this gap.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
One of the most formidable tasks that face EFL teachers is teaching lexical items. Most Iranian EFL learners usually learn and retain the new target words in a conventional way, that is learning and memorizing a long list of the new words with their equivalences in their mother tongue. Hence, there appears a need for students to be presented with some non-verbal techniques for effective teaching vocabulary. Regarding the importance of vocabulary in language learning and in communicating with others and different effective vocabulary learning strategies, the present study aimed to investigate the effect of two mnemonic methods of teaching vocabulary, namely KWM and SMSI, and compare them with the conventional verbal method. Accordingly, the following research questions were proposed in this study:

1. Does Key Word Method as a non-verbal vocabulary learning strategy affect Iranian EFL learners’ vocabulary development?
2. Does Semantic Mapping Strategy Instruction as a non-verbal vocabulary learning strategy affect Iranian EFL learners’ vocabulary development?
3. Do the two non-verbal techniques of vocabulary teaching differ significantly in terms of permanency of the acquired items?

METHODOLOGY
With the aim of investigating the effect of two non-verbal vocabulary learning strategies, a quasi experimental design study was conducted. The subjects in the current study were assigned into one control group and two experimental groups according to their homogeneity level. The dependent variable of this study is learners’ achievement of new target vocabularies. The independent variables are two experimental groups who study using KWM and SMSI, and one control group who learn target words in a conventional way.

Subjects
The sample of this study comprised 63 male and female subjects selected from among 85 students according to their scores (one standard deviation above and below the mean of the test) in Nelson proficiency test. They were pre-intermediate university students who were studying English as a foreign language at Islamic Azad University in Maragheh. Based on their proficiency test scores, the students were assigned into three groups, one control group and two experimental groups. The age range of the subjects was 18-25.
Instruments

For the purpose of data collection, the following instruments were prepared:

1. The Nelson test (adopted from Nelson English Tests, by Fowler and Coe (1976), series 200 B) was employed to ascertain the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of language proficiency.

2. In order to measure that whether students are familiar with the new target words or not, they were supposed to take a vocabulary test used prior to the experiment. In this test, the 80 new words were presented in a table with three columns. The students were asked to write “yes” in the first column if they have seen the words before, “no” in the second column if they have not seen, and the meaning of the target word in the third column if they know. From among these 80 target words, 38 words were selected to study during treatment sessions.

3. A pre-test with 38 items in the multiple-choice question type to measure the vocabulary knowledge of the students. The results of pre-test were submitted to Pearson correlation to measure the reliability of the test. The results confirmed that the test was reliable (r=0.78).

4. Twelve reading comprehension passages presenting the new target words that were chosen from some reading comprehension books.

5. As like as the pretest, a vocabulary posttest was designated in the multiple-choice question type to assess the amount of students learning and retention of new target words.

Procedure

First, a forty-five Nelson test of language proficiency was presented to 85 students to estimate their homogeneity level. The results of this test were used to select those students who were supposed to be the final participants of the study. As a result, 63 students whose scores occur one standard deviation above and below the mean of test score were selected as the final participants of the study. Then, the subjects were given 80 new target words in a table with three columns and were required to write “yes” in the first column if they have seen the words before, “no” in the second column if they have not seen the words and in the third column they were asked to write the meaning of the words if they know. Thirty-eight items were selected from among those eighty words to be studied during treatment. Before treatment, the students were supposed to take a pretest to evaluate their knowledge of vocabulary. This test comprised of 38 multiple-choice items in which the students were asked to choose the correct answer among four given choices. Next, the students were assigned into three groups: one control group who learnt the new target words in a conventional way (learning and memorizing a long list of words with their translations in their mother tongue), two experimental groups with two different vocabulary learning strategies. In experimental group 1, the students were supposed to make use of Key Word Method to learn the new words. That is, students were first taught keywords for the two practice examples from the preselected passages, then shown the new vocabulary word first, followed by a mnemonic picture and keyword linkage for this new word. Then, the Persian meaning of this new word was demonstrated). The semantic mapping, which was used for the treatment in the experimental group 2, were thematic maps, spider maps, problem and solution maps, and fishbone maps. The maps for the two first reading passages were filled by the learners with the teachers’ assistance. For the remaining passages, however, they were assigned to the learners
to fill in groups of four or five people. The teachers only observed and provided help if needed in this phase. The resulting maps which were checked to ascertain whether they had accommodated all the target lexical items were finally approved by the teachers. In the final step, the students were required to take a vocabulary posttest to measure whether the students have learned the new target words or not. In this test, like the pretest, the students were asked to choose the correct answer out of given choices. The data from both the pretest and the posttest were collected and submitted to SPSS for windows to be analyzed.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In this study, data collected through pretest and posttest was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences 17.0 version for windows. After administrating the Nelson test, the subjects were divided into three groups (one control and two experimental groups). Then, the students’ performances in each group were analyzed and compared with each other. In order to discover the homogeneity of the three groups, descriptive statistical analysis was done on the collected data and a one-way ANOVA was run. The results are shown in table 1 and 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.87</td>
<td>4.2859</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24.57</td>
<td>4.465</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>23.68</td>
<td>3.3302</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>24.08</td>
<td>4.0233</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: One-Way ANOVA for the Proficiency Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>6.083</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.028</td>
<td>0.130</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>1807.917</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>15.585</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1814.000</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As demonstrated in table one, in Nelson proficiency test, the mean scores of the three groups are approximately at the same level. Therefore, the students in proficiency test were homogenous (G1=23.87; G2=24.57; G3=23.68). The results of table 2, as well, confirm the consequences of table 1. Since the Sig. value is 2.70 which is much higher than the criterion Sig. ratio (p=2.70>.05). In order to investigate the first research question which is an attempt to survey the effectiveness of KWM in improving EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge, the obtained data from both pre and post tests of the experimental group 1 who were supposed to study the new...
target words through KWM were analyzed via utilizing paired-sample T-Test. The outcomes are presented in tables 3 and 4.

Table 3: Paired Sample Statistics of pre test and post test in KWM group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>KWM Pretest</th>
<th>KWM posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>18.2600</td>
<td>23.9850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.41862</td>
<td>3.86450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>.67608</td>
<td>.69031</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Paired Samples Test for both Pre-Test and Post-Test of KWM Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KWM pre</td>
<td>-4.4978</td>
<td>2.34279</td>
<td>.43784</td>
<td>-5.98540 - 4.16537</td>
<td>-10.983</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of table 3 demonstrate a significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects in KWM experimental group in pre test and posttest. As it is shown the posttest’s mean score is 23.98 which is higher than the pretest’s mean score which equals to 18.26. Hence, it would be possible to come to conclusion that the participants in KWM experimental group performed better in posttest than in the pretest. This conclusion has been authenticated in table 4, that explains the effectiveness of KWM on improving learners’ vocabulary learning and retention (p=.000).

The second research question addressed the value of teaching new target words via SMSI. To do so, the obtained data from both pretest and posttest of the subjects in SMSI experimental group were submitted to paired sample t-test to be discussed. Tables 5 and 6 are developed to illustrate the outcomes.

Table 5: Paired Sample Statistics of pre test and post test in SMSI group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>SMSI Pretest</th>
<th>SMSI posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>19.6832</td>
<td>21.9830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.57116</td>
<td>3.60345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>.68426</td>
<td>.70468</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As like as the subjects in KWM, those who learnt the new target words through SMSI outperformed in posttest comparing to pretest, since the mean scores differ with each other (21.98>19.68). To determine whether this difference is significant, the collected scores run on paired sample t-test. The results showed that there is a significant difference between the performance of the subjects in SMSI experimental group in posttest than in pretest (p=.003<.05).

Finally to answer the third research question which aimed to compare the effect of these two non-verbal vocabulary learning strategies, the scores were analyzed through ANOVA test analysis. The following tables show the results:

### Table 6: Paired Samples Test for both Pre-Test and Post-Test of SMSI Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair1 SMSI pre</td>
<td>-3.00031</td>
<td>2.17942</td>
<td>.39053</td>
<td>-3.84307</td>
<td>-2.71586 -5.996</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMSI post</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is clearly depicted in table 7, the mean scores show the KWM experimental group did much better than the other two on the posttest. In addition, the second experimental group (SMSI) performed better on the test than the control group, which scored the lowest on the test (KWM=23.98> SMSI=  21.98>  control=19.05). In order to make these descriptive findings more meaningful, inferential statistics like ANOVA was required. Therefore, a one-way analysis of variance was run regarding the results of posttests, and the groups were compared so as to locate the point of significance between and among the groups in study. Table 8 presents the results.

### Table 7: Descriptive Statistics for each Group’s Performance on the Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>3.13452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KWM</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>23.98</td>
<td>3.86450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMSI</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.98</td>
<td>3.60345</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8: One-Way Analysis of Variance on the Posttest Scores of the Three Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean squares</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>3175.482</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1573.397</td>
<td>6.893</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>11937.83</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>217.930</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1514.58</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table gives both between-groups and within-groups sums of squares, degrees of freedom, F value etc. The sig value is .002. Since .002 is smaller than .05, (.002<.05), there is a significant difference somewhere among the mean squares on the independent variable (posttest scores) for the three groups. As is observed in Table 8, these results coincide with what is illustrated in the means table further above (Table 7), where the mean tended to change with each group in the case of the posttest.

Discussion

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of two non-verbal vocabulary learning strategies, the KWM and the SMSI, on learning and retaining of vocabulary items among freshman pre-intermediate university students of English as a foreign language. To this end, the collected data were analyzed through two different statistical methods, one-way ANOVA and paired-sample t-test analysis, and the results demonstrated that the students in both experimental groups outperformed than those in the control group. But, the subjects in KWM experimental group showed higher improvement in learning and retaining the new target words than those in SMSI experimental group. For investigating the first research question regarding the efficiency of KWM, the paired-sample t-test analysis method was used and the t-test table showed great significant results for the first experimental group. Yet, according to the results of paired-sample t-test analysis for the second research question, the second experimental group, who received SMSI, showed little significant advantage over the control group in vocabulary development. The results of ANOVA test analysis, which compared these two non-verbal methods, validated the success of KWM over SMSI.

The outcomes of this study strongly corresponds to Hatch and Brown’s point of view (1995) that mnemonics, or memory-aiding techniques, are basic kinds of associations used by learners to increase recall and these techniques are used for consolidation of form-meaning connections in memory. The results are also in line with Riazi and Alvari (2004) who concluded that students who use more vocabulary strategies learn better and have longer retention compared to those who just memorize the words.

The positive attitudes toward the keyword method in the present study echoes the findings of Chen’s (2006) assertions that such method is an interesting tool for acquiring English vocabulary and most of the students believed that such skill can help them acquiring English words in a faster and easier way, and thus increase the level of retention. Nevertheless, the limitations of the keyword method which were reported by some the students in the present study corroborates the
assertions that the keyword method is most helpful for the beginners (Atkinson & Raugh, 1975) and was designed for use with concrete words (Rodriguez & Sadoski, 2000). Such limitations may be one of the factors interfering students with the application of the keyword method in new vocabulary learning tasks, and thus need to be taken into further consideration.

Keywords help individuals learn faster and recall better because they aid the integration of new material into existing cognitive units and because they provide retrieval cues (Thompson, 1987). Thompson’s findings actually provide empirical evidence in support of what we found in this study. The studies conducted by Atkinson and Raugh (1975), Levin and Pressley (1985), Shapiro and Waters (2005), Sagarra and Alba (2006), and Atay and Ozbulgan (2007) to name a few, further support the outcome of this study as in their studies the keyword method has been shown to be an effective procedure for the acquisition and retention of vocabulary in foreign language learning. This method is one of a number of procedures that have proved useful for the task of acquiring definitions of new foreign-language words (Ellis & Beaton, 1993; Mc Daniel & Pressley, 1989), particularly for immediate recall. The findings obtained in this study is also in line with the results Carlson, Kincaid, Lance and Hodgson (1976) achieved, since they found a better recall in subjects who received a mnemonic device compared to a control group.

Furthermore, a second key finding of this study, which can make it different from similar ones, is that results of analysis made clear that the difference between the second experimental group (using SMSI) and the control group (using conventional way) in terms of vocabulary development was not more significant than the first experimental group. This is against Gains and Redman’s (1986) assertion that non-verbal techniques, of any kind, lead to a better retention than verbal methods and that “there is little doubt that objects and semantic maps can facilitate memory” (p. 92), since EG2 did not perform better than CG in this study. Maybe because semantic maps just have a facilitating effect and are not sufficient for learning if they are used alone.

This positive impact of semantic mapping strategy can be attributed to the fact that in semantic mapping the relationships between words are explored, and thus, more ties among them are made in the lexical knowledge network of the learner. Establishing such a semantic network in the cognitive repertoire of the learner can lead to stronger comprehension of texts that use the target words (Bravo & Cervetti, 2008).

**CONCLUSION**

As mentioned before, this study aimed to investigate the efficiency of two non-verbal vocabulary learning instructions over conventional verbal strategy. Along with the acquired research outcomes and previous related literature, it can be stated that mnemonic devices used in this study were demonstrated to be more effective in L2 vocabulary instruction than verbal strategies. However, among these non-verbal mnemonic strategies, the KWM was corroborated to be more influential than SMSI in improving vocabulary knowledge of the learners. Consequently,
Vocabulary instruction is a complicated process which requires careful planning by teachers and active participation by students. Thornbury (2002) asserts, “learners need tasks and strategies to help them organize their mental lexicon by building networks of associations—the more the better” (p. 30). The findings obtained in this study may lead to a number of implications which could possibly be beneficial for language practitioners, teachers and students in an EFL context. First, this research is probably a call for language teachers, practitioners and researchers in language teaching and learning to pay more attention to L2 vocabulary teaching techniques. The findings may encourage teachers who still use the traditional verbal method of translation in their teaching to change their viewpoint in favor of a nonverbal method of teaching vocabulary. The result may especially be of great value to high-school teachers in an EFL context who are usually faced with the students’ request for information about effective techniques of vocabulary learning.

Second, the findings of this study are also useful for teacher trainers to incorporate appropriate and practical techniques for instruction of vocabulary in their existing training courses. This way, teachers themselves would be informed of different vocabulary teaching techniques and will develop positive attitudes toward the incorporation of the best techniques into their conventional teaching programs. In the long run, syllabus designers and textbook writers will also benefit from the results of this study; different mnemonics can be introduced within the graded vocabulary books and other materials in accordance to the level of the students for whom the material is designed. The major limitations of the present study was the number of the students. Since this study was carried out at the university context, due to administrative limitations, limited number of the students were participated in this study, therefore, generalizing of the results of the study to a large number of the students would not be reliable.

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THE IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH TEXTBOOK “PROSPECT 2” FROM THE TEACHERS’ POINT OF VIEW

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ABSTRACT
This study was an attempt to evaluate and analyze the teachers’ points of view toward the newly developed Iranian junior high school English textbook “Prospect 2”. For this purpose, eighteen male and female teachers teaching junior high school (grade eight) from some cities in Iran, namely, Tehran, Urmia, Chaldoran, Khoy, Sanandaj and Tabriz were asked one interview question. The researcher recorded their voices while talking by a voice recorder and then listened and summarized the answers and perceptions toward the book. The teachers mentioned both positive and negative points about the book, but finally the findings of the study revealed that most teachers have positive attitudes toward Prospect 2. Some practical implications are presented which are on the basis of the results of this study and might be of use to the teachers, teacher trainers and materials developers. For example, teachers should incorporate appropriate and practical techniques for the instruction of CLT which the book is based this method.

KEYWORDS: Textbook Evaluation; Teacher's points of view; Prospect2

INTRODUCTION
Textbooks are of great value and effect in the process of teaching and learning. As stated by Zohrabi, Sabouri, and Kheradmand (2014), "textbooks are one of the elements that may promote or discourage learners depending on their materials. They are a kind of support for both teachers and learners. Textbooks provide students a kind of consistency" (p. 95). They have an important influence in the instructional process. ELT textbooks have major function in the current discussion. Sheldon (1988, p. 237) states that “textbooks represent the visible heart of any ELT program”. Textbooks are an almost universal component of English language teaching.

According to Cortazzi and Jin (1999), ELT (English Language Teaching) textbooks play the role of a teacher, a map, a resource, a restrictor, and as an ideology. Further, as Cunningworth (1995) contends, a textbook can be a source of activities, a syllabus for pushing the teaching/learning process toward systematization, and as a scaffold for novice teachers. Still others refer to textbooks in tandem with innovation, students’ needs, issues related to money and time (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; O’Niel, 1982).
Textbooks hold a paramount status as an indispensable ingredient of language teaching profession; therefore, appraising and evaluating them seems to be imperative to assure their efficiency and consistency with the objectives defined and expected of the course. Constant evaluation of textbooks to see if they are appropriate is of great importance. This process enables us to make informed decisions through which student achievement will increase and educational programs will be more successful (Zohrabi, Sabouri & Behroozian, 2012).

It is good to mention here that Prospect 2 is the newly developed junior high school English textbook which is taught in schools now. It is based on the communicative language teaching approach (CLT). School teachers from all over the country have different perceptions and viewpoints toward its content. But there is no research to analyze and discuss it. The current study was an attempt to evaluate the strength and weaknesses of the junior high school English textbook “Prospect 2” from the teachers’ point of view.

**REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE**

As Zohrabi (2011, p. 216) argues, “Materials, especially coursebooks, need to be evaluated at every stage of the course in order to find their weaknesses and improve them.” As Tomlinson (2006) states, no textbook is perfect, since it can be used by different students in different circumstances. In evaluating a textbook, we need to know how it meets learners’ needs. Evaluation might vary from one context to another based on the aims, wants, and abilities of the evaluators. Assessment of textbooks is a profitable way of teacher development and gives beneficial perception to the teachers. Teachers' perceptions and experiences play indispensable roles in the process of book evaluation. (Ahmadi & Derakhshan, 2014)

There is conclusive body of researches in the field of book evaluation. The next paragraphs report some of the works done in Iran and other countries. The study by Zohrabi, et al (2012) evaluated the merits and demerits of English for high school freshmen in Iran from the viewpoints of teachers and students. They focused on seven sections of layout, vocabulary, topics and content, exercises, skills, pronunciation, function, and social and cultural activities. The results of the investigation pointed out that the book was grammar-oriented and more emphasis was placed on reading more than three other skills; insufficient practice was provided for pronunciation; with respect to target culture, no social and cultural activities were included; and the layout of the book was believed to lack beauty (Jamalvandi, 2014).

In other studies, Yarmohammadi (2002) and Abdollahi- Guilani, et al (2011) concluded that there is not authenticity in Iranian ELT books. They also added that there is not correspondence between the students’ needs and the content of the materials. In a study done by Litz (1997), ELT textbooks in South Korea were proved to be successful in reaching their desired goal. In his case study on ELT textbooks not only did he take into account skills, content, tasks, but he appraised cost, availability, authors and publisher’ credentials, layout and design and packages and websites related to the book evaluated. The textbook was shown to enjoy far more positive characteristics and it was able to suit the needs of the Korean learners. Multi-skills syllabus, clear
and logical organization of the book, inclusion of teaching strategies, and vocabulary skills were among the positive traits of the book.

RESEARCH QUESTION
What are the strengths and weaknesses of newly developed book “Prospect2” From the Teachers’ Point of View?

METHODOLOGY

Participants
The participants of this study were 18 male and female teachers teaching junior high school (grade eight) which were supposed to answer the research question (interviewees). The teachers were from different cities of Iran, namely Tehran, Urmia, Chaldoran, Khoy, Sanandaj and Tabriz. Their teaching experience was from 6 to 30 28 years. Some of them which were the researcher’s colleague in school discussed the subject face to face and the others responded by telephone or Email. They were free to speak in Farsi or English. The teachers were selected according to their accessibility by the researcher.

Instrumentation and Material
The material for this study is the English language textbook taught in Iranian junior high school (grade eight). "Prospect2" (Alavi, ForozandehShahraki, Nikooopoor, KhadirSharabian & Kheirabadi, 2014) includes work book, student book, audio CD and teacher's guide. The instrument used in this study was an open-ended interview question which the teachers were supposed to talk or write about it about 15-20 minutes. A voice recorder was used to record the teachers’ voices while interviewing in order to be able to listen later and take notes.

Procedure
This study began with an interview question. The researcher interviewed 18 teachers teaching junior high school (grade eight). Eight of the teachers expressed their ideas face to face with the researcher. Three of them talked on the phone and seven send their ideas by Email. The teachers expressed their ideas about the textbooks in accordance with the objectives of the textbook. The interviews lasted between 15 to 20 minutes. The researcher recorded their voices via a voice recorder and then listened again and took notes to be able to summarize them.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Eighteen teachers were interviewed and their opinions were asked about “Prospect 2” book. They talked about the virtues and weaknesses of the book. The researcher took notes and she tried to summarize the gathered data.

The teachers had both positive and negative perceptions toward “Prospect 2” but the positive attitudes were stronger than the negative ones. They all were agreed that the new book is according to communicative language teaching method (CLT) and satisfies the students’ needs.
They believed that the book is developed after a deep needs analysis and is exactly what students and teachers and the educational system in Iran needed from many years ago.

The researcher summarized and categorized all the advantages and disadvantages mentioned by the participants. The positive points are as follows:

1. The book is according to CLT which is one of the latest methods and focuses on interaction and communication.
2. The book is finely continuing the goals of “Prospect 1” which was developed the year before “Prospect 2” for the seventh grade students.
3. The vocabularies of the book are the necessary words which are needed in a daily conversation.
4. The book uses the vocabularies of the “Prospect 1”.
5. The activities are group or pair instead of individual ones.
6. The activities are higher order and there is no drill and memorization and they allow students to use their own features, favorites and information in responding the questions.
7. The book creates a friendly atmosphere in class.
8. The book (like Prospect 1) concentrates on speaking and listening and prepares students for communications in the society.
9. Topics are update and attractive and related to the everydaylife (like health, abilities, hobbies,...)
10. The lessons are from easy to hard.
11. To have a photo dictionary at the end of the book was a great idea.
12. Work book is a good practice. It’s questions are not limited to one-answer questions. There are lots of questions that demand student thinking and wants student’s own idea.
13. Teachers’ guide is good for teachers to be familiar with the right ways of teaching the book and knowing the goal of the book.
14. It is a finely-developed book for strengthening students in oral abilities.
15. Like Prospect 1, new words are taught in context not isolated.
16. The CD which distributed with the book helps students in listening which the previous series of the English books lack.
17. The book and its activities in it, creates a challenging atmosphere in class and make the students to participate. For example, the cards at the end of the book, the tables in the book like page 46, 52, 57 and etc. so, students are motivated to response the questions like what the city they live in it is like. Or what are their own hobbies and etc.
18. The teachers are satisfied and glad to teach the new book and they contend that they get energy from teaching it and it is not boring.

The negative points are listed below:

1. The time allocated to the book is limited and not enough to practice perfectly.
2. There is absolutely no grammar in it. It is better to put some grammar points, not complicated ones, to make them aware of the structures. When the students
memorize the sentences, they learn in Audio-lingual method, but the aim of the book is to teach in CLT. Some grammar can help solve this problem.

3. There is more than one subject (material) in one lesson. For example, lesson 5 introduces several structures like “where is it_ what’s Isfahan like/famous for_Are there/Is there”

4. The accompanying CD is audio cd instead of video one. In this stage of life, students need video graphics and listening to audio CDs get them bored.

5. The earlier studied vocabularies are not repeated in the later lessons.

6. The teacher has to speak in Persian; otherwise, students will not understand the content well.

7. There are too much new words in some lessons like lesson 6 and 7 and few ones in lesson 1.

8. The same as Prospect 1, Reading and writing is somehow neglected and the focus is on speaking and listening.

9. There should be some activities for teaching prepositions (to-on-in-at …) in either student or workbook.

10. The teachers who did not take the classes and enough trainings to teach in CLT, have problems teaching this book. They must take the required classes to be familiar with the goals of the book.

11. Review parts in the student book are confusing and students cannot do them without the help of the teacher.

12. The book puts a great pressure on teachers’ shoulders and teaching it, needs knowledgeable and experienced teachers.

13. Teaching this book needs help and collaboration from school, because the projector, computer, audio system are required and there are some cities and villages in Iran without any facilities.

According to the teachers’ points of view about Prospect 2, it seems that the book is finely accepted and proved by them. They mentioned some positive and some negative points about the book but the positive ones exceeded and they mentioned at the end that the new book is much better than the previous book and they are glad to teach this book. They asserted that the book is successful in teaching communicative aspect of the language. According to Alemi and Hesami (2013), the previous junior high school textbooks were not on the basis of students’ needs and expectations. The new book is developed to solve students’ problems in oral skills and communicative needs. Ghorbani (2011), in his study, analyzed and evaluated the previous textbook being taught in Iranian senior high schools. Findings of the study showed that the book is not successful in teaching four skills. It is structural-based and does not pay attention to communicative skills. There are no CDs and teacher guides or workbooks.

Previous textbooks being taught in junior high schools of Iran entailed teachers to teach in grammar-translation method and also entailed the students not to be active in communicative skills. There were just transferring data not negotiating or other higher order activities. the newly
developed series of Prospect, (in this study, Prospect 2), covered all the deficiencies of the previous books. According to the teachers’ points of view, Prospect 2 paid attention to students’ needs in its content and tried to teach four skills, especially oral skills which are very important in society and modern era. Prospect 2 demanded experience teachers and active students.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examined and analyzed the Iranian junior high school English textbook “Prospect 2” from the teachers’ point of view. It was on the basis of an interview question which was asked from 18 teachers in some cities of Iran. The results of the interview showed that the book is successful in teaching communicative skills and the teachers are satisfied with it and have positive perceptions toward the book. In other words, the newly developed book had tried to cover all the deficiencies of the last series of junior high school books. Prospect series pay attention to all four skills specially listening and speaking skill. The method of teaching is CLT which is suits the content and also demands experienced teachers. Teachers’ book, workbook and accompanying CD are all the merits of Prospect 2 and help students to learn communicative skills in much better ways. Activities are higher order and requires students to think critically. The teachers said they are eager to teach such books because these kinds of books are motivating, fresh, update and gives energy to them. The findings of this study are useful for teacher trainers and teachers to incorporate appropriate and practical techniques for the instruction of CLT. Teachers should be trained in an appropriate way. Materials developers also can use the results of the present study to recover the deficiencies in the introduced book or the later books.

This study was done with some limitations. The number of the interviewees were eighteen which is not that much enough for a research study. Another limitation was the interviewees’ cities. The researcher had access to the mentioned cities and not other areas of the country. The third limitation was experiences of teaching. the researcher tried to interview the teachers with different years of experience but as a limitation, the teacher did not have access to such teachers. Some other limitations also exist. These limitations might affect the results of the study.

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ABSTRACT
The present study aimed at identifying native English speakers’, native Persian speakers’, and Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ persuasion strategies and any possible pragmatic transfer from the EFL learners’ mother tongue (Persian) to their L2. The participants of the study included 10 native English speakers, 30 learners of English, and 30 native Persian speakers, all of whom were university students. The classification of persuasion strategies utilized in this study was based on Hardin’s classification of lexical and pragmatic realization of persuading speech act. The data were collected by means of a discourse completion task. The Chi-square test was used to compare frequencies of use of persuasion strategies by all the participants. Results indicated that although all the three groups used recommendation strategy most frequently and consolation and condolence strategies least frequently, the learners of English group and native Persian group made use of opinion-proving, request, advice, and suggestion strategies more frequently than the native English group. Iranian EFL learners were apt to express persuasion with care and/or caution represented by the mentioned strategies. Additionally, they were reluctant to use direct speech act, and they avoided imposition on the hearer. Avoidance and substitution strategies were among the more frequent pragmatic strategies which were transferred from Persian to English. The findings could be of importance for material developers and teachers in their development of instructional strategies as they interact with students during teaching English as a foreign language.

KEYWORDS: Interlanguage pragmatics, Pragmatic transfer, Persuasion strategies, EFL learners

INTRODUCTION
Pragmatics can be defined as the study of the relationship between language, its communication, and its contextualized use (Koike, 1996). Interlanguage is referred to as the learners’ language system that is not consistent with the native speakers’ language system (Selinker, 1972). Kasper (1998) combines the study of the two areas of pragmatics and interlanguage, and defines interlanguage pragmatics as the study of nonnative speaker’s comprehension, production, and
acquisition of linguistic action when they do things with words. Pragmatic transfer is a research branch of interlanguage pragmatics. Pragmatic transfer refers to the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than second language on their comprehension, production and learning of second language pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1992). Here pragmatic knowledge can be understood as a particular component of language users’ general communicative knowledge, that is, the knowledge of how verbal acts are understood and performed in accordance with a speaker’s intention under contextual and discoursal constraints (Faerch & Kasper, 1984). When people from different cultures communicate with each other without perceiving their different pragmatic knowledge, miscommunication may happen. Such phenomenon is due to transfer of native pragmatic knowledge in situations of intercultural communication (Zegarac & Pennington, 2000).

As noted by Leech (1983), there are two perspectives on pragmatic transfer. One is sociopragmatic transfer, and the other is pragmalinguistic transfer. According to Kasper (1992), sociopragmatic transfer operates when the social perceptions underlying language users' interpretation and performance of linguistic action in a second language are influenced by their assessment of their subjectively equivalent first language context. On the other hand, pragmalinguistic transfer designates the process whereby illocutionary force or politeness value assigned to particular linguistic materials in first language influences learners' perception and performance of form-function mappings in second language (Kasper, 1992).

For language use, pragmatic rules, as a matter of fact, are mostly subconscious and are not noticed by L2 learners until they are broken, i.e. feelings get hurt and offence takes place (Hanlig & Taylor, 2003). Accordingly L2 learners must realize that what is accepted in their NL at a given context may not necessarily be the case in another language when they contact with its native speakers (NSs). One area of pragmatic transfer which can possibly occur in Iranian learners of English language production is the speech act of persuasion. Persuasion is defined by Lakoff (1982) as the nonreciprocal attempt or intention of one party to change the behavior, feelings, intentions, or viewpoint of another by communicative means. Advertising, propaganda, political rhetoric, court language and religious sermons are obvious examples of persuasive discourse; however, persuasion may also occur in conversation. Persuasion is recognized as a directive speech act which, according to Searle (1969, as cited in Pishghadam & Rasouli, 2011) is that in which the speaker's purpose is to get the hearer to commit him/herself to some course of action. In other words, persuasion is an attempt to make the world match the words.

Despite large number of research done in pragmatic issues in general and speech acts in particular, they are still among the most popular topics that researchers try to investigate because of their dynamic features especially in the realm of teaching. The concept of this issue is reported by Delen (2010): “speech acts are not a new topic for researchers; on the contrary, they have been very popular since their emergence in the late 1960s” (p. 692). Finally, although a relatively large number of studies done on issues related to different types of speech acts and based on the fact that “research concerning L2 pragmatic competence often focuses on learners’ speech act behavior, primarily by contrasting nonnative with native performance” (Yu, 2011, p. 1128), little research has been done especially in the context of Iran to investigate the speech act of
persuasion among non-native speakers, and more importantly to find any sign of pragmatic transfer. Since Persian and English speakers have different perceptions of how persuading speech act should be conducted, it is more likely that pragmatic transfer of Persian will occur in intercultural communication between Persian nonnative speakers of English and native English speakers. Utilizing a prior study by Bu (2010) as the framework, the present study aimed to compare similarities and differences in the production of speech act of persuasion in English and Persian languages. The focus, moreover, was on determining any signs of pragmatic transfer from the first language to the second language. To this end, the researcher attempted to analyze the types of persuasive strategies used in English and Persian. As the next step, it was tried to locate any possible pragmatic transfers in persuasion strategies by Iranian learners of English.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE
As Hymes (1971) pointed out, communicative competence must include not only the linguistic forms of the language but also knowledge of when, how, and to whom it is appropriate to use these forms. Speech act has been one of the main aspects of pragmatic for a long time. Speech act theory refers to functions and uses of the language or in other words. It includes all the acts we do while as invitations, refusal, apologies, congratulation, persuasion and so on. According to Halliday (1972) such activities do not only by themselves give us enough information while the reveal much about social purposes in which people use language for (as cited in Schcmidt & Richards, 1980).

In this regard, pragmatic competence helps students to come up with the problems of miscommunication in different cultures, and for effective communication in second language it is necessary to make students familiar with the appropriate selection and production of different speech acts in different contexts. Usually language teachers take communicative competence the same as the knowledge of linguistic forms or the ability to carry out the linguistic interaction in the target language, but efficient communication is beyond that. Therefore, a great deal of studies have been conducted across different languages and cultures to address universalities and variations in regard to speech acts such as request (Tatton, 2008), apology (Clyne, 1994), complaint (Salmani Nodoushan, 2007), compliment (Grossi, 2009), and refusal (Al-kahtani, 2005). However, the speech act of persuasion has received little attention.

Robin Lakoff (1982) defined persuasion as the "attempt or intention of one party to change behavior, feelings, intentions or view point of another by communicative means" (as cited in Hardin, 2010, p. 155). Therefore, advertising, propaganda, political oratory, court language and religious sermons are example of persuasive discourse; however, persuasion can also used in daily interactions. Persuasion according to Searle (1969) is regarded as the directive speech act in which the speaker’s intention is to make the hearer to commit him or herself to perform some form of actions; in other words, persuasion is an attempt of speaker to match the world with his or her words (as cited in Bu, 2010). Persuasion according to Brown and Levinson's (1987) is categorized as a face threatening act, and according to Lakoff (1982) is considered as a kind of
imposition from the speaker upon the hearer; or as Searle (1969) pointed out, persuasion is a kind of commitment or urge for accomplishments of some actions form speaker to hearer. Therefore, having enough knowledge to infer the meaning and the ability to apply appropriate strategies for conducting persuasion seem crucial to hinder breakdown in intercultural communication.

Previous pragmatic research on persuasion has been conducted in different fields. One of these fields is pragmatic analysis of persuasion strategies. Rank (1988, as cited in Hardin, 2010) suggests a basic persuasive formula for advertisements. His five components are attention-getting, confidence-building, desire-stimulating, urgency-stressing, and response-seeking. Combining both Rank’s (1988) and Leech’s (1966) findings, Hardin (2001) examines persuasive discourse in Spanish language advertising and finds that memorability (making the audience remember the message), force (emotional and logical appeals and the strength of a message), and participation (the desire for a response or audience/hearer involvement) are primary persuasive goals.

Barkley and Anderson (2008) studied persuasion techniques in the courtroom and found that the persuasive effect of arguments is related not only to what is said, but also to how they are said and when they are said. In other words, the more reputable the source of the arguments, the more persuasive the arguments will be. The arguments delivered with confidence, persistence and clarity will be more persuasive.

One of the most recent researchers on the topic under question is Bu (2010), who investigated pragmatic transfer in persuasion strategies by Chinese learners of English. The subjects of the study included 10 native English speakers, 10 Chinese learners of English, and 10 native Chinese speakers, all of whom were university students. The classification of persuasion strategies was mainly based on Hardin’s classification of lexical and pragmatic realization of persuading speech act. The data was collected by means of a discourse complete test questionnaire. The Chi-square test was used to compare frequencies of use of persuasion strategies by the Chinese learner of English group, the native English group, and the native Chinese group. Results indicated that although all three groups used complaint strategy most frequently and opting out strategy least frequently, the Chinese learner of English group displayed advice/suggestion/recommendation strategy more frequently than the native English group. The Chinese learner of English group also used opinion-proving strategy less frequently than the native English group and never used consolation/condolence strategies.

Several pragmatic research studies have also been done on the use of directives in persuasive discourse. In his study, Hardin finds that directives are commonly used in Spanish persuasive discourse and directives may be either direct or indirect in force (Hardin, 2001). The illocutionary force of a directive may be softened through mitigation and pragmatic strategies that delocalize the speaker from his/her deictic center (Haverkate 1984; Koike 1992). Indirectness requires the addressee to infer meaning and rely on shared knowledge between the speaker and him/herself. Moreover, since persuasion may involve face threatening acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987), the speaker must use appropriate politeness strategies to achieve the desired message. Certain forms
or constructions are conventionalized; that is, they are customarily used to perform specific speech acts.

In the Chinese context, Tang Xia (2009) analyzed persuading speech act from the perspective of the theory of Chinese face and indicated that Chinese persuasion strategies are human relation-based strategies. In addition, Zhai Lingzhi (2010) investigated persuasion strategies commonly used by Chinese from the perspective of pragmatics. These strategies included the combination of reason and emotion, analogy, encouragement, irony, praise and metaphor.

More recently, in another comparative study by Pishghadam and Rasouli (2011), the researchers investigated the general application of persuasive strategies among Iranian learners of English as a foreign language. To this end, 150 Iranian English learners took part in this study. The data were collected by means of a discourse completion test, consisting of 6 questions similar to real life persuasive situations. The Chi-square test was applied to compare the frequencies of persuasion strategies’ application among Iranian EFL learners. The frequent use of query preparatory by nonnative English speakers was consistent with previous studies’ results (Blum-Kalka & Olshtain, 1984; Hong, 2009; Tatton, 2008) which mentioned that mostly all languages prefer the application of conventionally indirect strategies.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following questions were the center of focus in the present study:

1. Are there significant differences in the kinds of persuasion strategies used by native English speakers, native Persian speakers, and Iranian EFL learners?
2. What types of persuasion strategies are more likely to be transferred pragmatically from L1 to L2 by Iranian EFL learners?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The study took place in Iran and the participants consisted of three groups: the Iranian learners of English group, the native English group, and the native Persian group. Each group of Iranians consisted of 30 participants, and there were 10 participants in the native English speakers group. They were university students ranging in age from 19 to 26 years old. So they showed homogeneity in terms of age and education. The participants in this study were accesses through convenient sampling procedure.

**Instruments**

The data were collected from participants by means of a discourse completion task (DCT). The DCT consisted of 6 items in different contexts close to real life persuasive situations, three of which were adapted from the aforementioned study by Bu (2010). Modifications were made in the other situations to make them more appropriate in both Iranian culture and English culture since in interlanguage pragmatics studies it is necessary to make sure that the situations in the DCT are equivalent cross-culturally. Through the modification process, three experts in the field
of ELT were asked to examine the DCT to make certain it was as valid and reliable as possible. In order to avoid native Persian speakers’ misunderstanding of what they were required to do in the DCT, a translated version was given to them. As far as the scoring of the DCT was concerned, the data were first coded according to their classification based on the Bu (2010) framework. For the analysis of persuasion strategies utilized, descriptive statistics were employed to count the frequency and percentage of each strategy for each group, and Chi-square test was then used to compare the frequencies of persuasion strategies use by the Iranian nonnative English speaker group, the native English speaker group, and the native Persian group.

**Procedure**
To achieve the objectives of the study, the DCT was adapted and modified to fit the Iranian and American culture. Subsequently, three groups of participants (i.e. native English speakers, native Persian speakers, and Iranian EFL learners) were selected through convenience sampling and asked to take part in this study. They were ‘persuaded’ to fill out the DCTs and return them to the researchers. Once the completed DCTs were received, the data were subjected to statistical analysis.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**
As the total number of collected data comprised 30 DCTs in English by the Iranian learners of English Group (G1), 30 DCTs in Persian by the native Persian group (G2), and 10 DCTs in English by the native English group (G3), and there were six different persuasive situations in these DCTs, the whole number of responses by G1, G2, and G3 amounted to 180, 180, and 60 answers for each DCT, respectively. First, the answers of the three groups to all six persuasive situations were analyzed and tabulated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy / Groups</th>
<th>Native Group</th>
<th>English Learner of English Group</th>
<th>Native Group</th>
<th>Persian Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complaint</td>
<td>5 (8.33%)</td>
<td>14 (7.77%)</td>
<td>11 (6.11%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reaction</td>
<td>2 (3.33%)</td>
<td>8 (4.44%)</td>
<td>7 (3.88%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request</td>
<td>7 (11.66%)</td>
<td>27 (15.00%)</td>
<td>30 (16.66%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ultimatum</td>
<td>6 (10.00%)</td>
<td>4 (2.22%)</td>
<td>3 (1.66%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Order</td>
<td>7 (11.66%)</td>
<td>8 (4.44%)</td>
<td>5 (2.77%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion-proving</td>
<td>6 (10.00%)</td>
<td>31 (17.22%)</td>
<td>38 (21.11%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advice</td>
<td>8 (13.33%)</td>
<td>23 (12.77%)</td>
<td>19 (10.55%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestion</td>
<td>5 (8.33%)</td>
<td>22 (12.22%)</td>
<td>19 (10.55%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendation</td>
<td>8 (13.33%)</td>
<td>35 (19.44%)</td>
<td>41 (22.77%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolation</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condolence</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td>0 (0.00%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opting out</td>
<td>4 (6.66%)</td>
<td>8 (4.44%)</td>
<td>7 (3.88%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60 (100%)</td>
<td>180 (100%)</td>
<td>180 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Pearson Chi-Square value = 28.133, df = 4, Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) = 0.009*
The percentage of each strategy in the performance of persuading speech act is provided in parentheses after the frequency. The percentage numbers are rounded to two decimal, so the sum of the percentages may be more or less than 100%.

The descriptive data shown in Table 1 indicates that the frequency and percentage of the selection of the strategies among these three groups was not equally distributed. In order to be more specific, regarding the claim of difference between these three groups, the Chi-square test was run to detect the differences. The Chi-Square result is written beneath Table 1.

Based on these results, the answer to the first question was positive. That means that there was a significant difference in the number of persuasion strategies used by native English speakers, native Persian speakers, and Iranian nonnative English speakers since the groups showed discrepancy in the use of the strategies.

The research findings can be summarized as below: According to Table 1, all the three groups used recommendation strategy most frequently and consolation and condolence strategies least frequently. This phenomenon can be explained by the facts that in most situations the respondents tried to persuade the interlocutor in the same manner. All the participants of the three groups used different statements for recommendation and then tried to persuade the hearer. The second frequently used strategy by the native English group was advice when they performed their persuading act. Thus, advice and recommendation strategies were used equally by this group (13.33%).

By contrast, the second frequently used strategy by the learners of English group and native Persian group was opinion-proving (17.22%). Here the participants of both groups started the persuasion with what they would do to convince the person to do the favor for them. An example of the way they persuaded using opinion-proving regarding situation number six follows:

*Situation 6:*
You are the owner of a big bookstore. It is the beginning of the semester, and you are very busy. Today you want to extend business hours by an hour. So, you decide to persuade your clerk, whom you know quite well, to stay an extra hour more.

The learners of English, under the influence of their first language (Persian), tried to use expressions like ‘*If only you could stay a little longer, I promise to pay you more*’ and other similar expressions showing their awareness of the situation for the clerk which in some senses were exaggerated to show their understanding. This is due to their use of substitution strategy which results from Persian speakers as well as learners of English highly frequent employment of recommendation to persuade the hearer to comply with the situations.
The third prominent strategy utilized by the learners of English group and native Persian group was that of request (G2 = 15.00%, G3 = 16.66%). The English group used it as their fourth strategy. Here, using request strategy frequently, the learners showed lack of knowledge and insecurity about the proper strategy to apply in assigned situations which resulted in substitution of more polite strategy (e.g. request).

Strategy of order ranked fifth in the category of persuasive strategies for native English group (11.66%), but the other two groups seemed to be reluctant in using this strategy. Strategy of order was used with the same rate as the reaction strategy (4.44%) in the learners of English group and it even ranked after opting-out for the native Persian group (3.88%). Ultimatum was used occasionally after the order strategy for native English group (10.00 %); however, the other groups used this strategy less frequently. The strategy of ultimatum was used after opting out in the learners of English group (2.22%) and even less by native Persian group (1.66%). The least frequently used strategy by the three groups was consolation/condolence.

When the participants were asked about the use of recommendation/opinion proving/request/advice/suggestion, 21 out of 30 Iranian learners of English participants said that it was a duty for the speaker to give useful recommendations, prove their opinions, and ask for a favor through request strategy to change the hearer’s behavior or to make the person do something for them. When interviewed why they used a certain formula, 18 out of 30 Iranian learners of English participants admitted that they used substitution strategy. For example, some of them said:

‘When I needed help and I knew that this favor might bring about some difficulty for the hearer, I wanted to comfort him by giving a recommendation or asking to do the favor in the form of request. I would say: I promised to increase your salary to lessen the difficulty I might impose to them.’

Here, recommending was mostly used instead of other direct and explicit strategies in English. When they were asked about substitution strategy, they said the reason for substituting specific strategies was that they were not willing to impose themselves on the interlocutor through ordering or using ultimatum strategies. They also said that they were not fully familiar with these strategies and did not know how to utilize them properly in the required situations so they tried to avoid the strategies and substitute the ones which were known because of their use in their first language. Thus, these learners used two different pragmatic strategies: the first was avoidance strategy which was defined as “omission of speech acts whose formulas are unfamiliar” (Bu, 2010, p. 100), and the second strategy was substitution which was utilized to compensate for the students’ lack of knowledge about the principles and rules of using these strategies pragmatically in a foreign language context. Here, under the impact of Persian, besides their inadequate knowledge, the learners of English group tried to select a strategy with ‘less illocutionary force’, again to avoid possible imposition on the hearer. From these findings, the second question of the study could be answered: The persuasion strategies
which were more likely to be transferred pragmatically from L1 to L2 by Iranian non-native English speakers were avoidance and substitution.

Addressing the first research question

In this research, it was found that the frequency of use of persuasion strategies by Iranian EFL learners was significantly different from that of native English speakers, though they did share some similarities ($\chi^2 = 28.133$, $p = 0.009 < 0.05$). Iranian EFL learners were apt to express persuasion with care and/or caution represented by strategies of recommendation, opinion proving, request, advice, and suggestion and avoiding other strategies like ultimatum, ordering, complaint, reaction, consolation, and condolence.

They did this using statement of reason/explanation, statements of sympathy, as well as promise of compensation in the future more than native English speakers. Native English speakers were more sensitive to their interlocutors’ higher and lower status, whereas Iranian EFL learners acted similarly to interlocutors with different social status. Additionally, they were reluctant to use direct speech act and they avoided imposition on the hearer. Thus, through analysis of the responses, the researcher came to the conclusion that the most commonly strategies used by Iranian EFL learners were indirect strategies.

The quantitative analysis showed that the Persian learner of English group used opinion-proving/request/advice/suggestion more frequently than the native English group, which means that participants in the Persian learner of English group had a tendency of expressing their sympathetic feeling about their hearers’ situation and they preferred to use recommendation/opinion-proving/request/advice to improve their hearer’s situation and to comfort their hearers by being more polite and changing every situation to a request one. On the contrary, the participants in the native English group preferred to use recommendation/advice/suggestion to make the hearer comply with these situations. Such differences may result from their different perceptions of these situations. In the Iranian culture, making recommendation, opinion-proving, request, and advice is regarded as rapport-building. Although opinion-proving, request, and advice are also available in English culture for these situations, they were rarely used by native English speakers for the same situations compared to the answers given by Iranian groups. This is not surprising because English society is one of typical instances of individualist societies (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey & Chua, 1988; Hofstede, 1991). Extending business hours by an hour, or persuading a person’s little brother to pay the bill on her/his behalf are different matters for native English speakers as they behaved totally differently to these situations. They preferred to use ordering strategy more than the other two groups did, indicating their choice towards a more direct way for persuasion in these situations.

Table 1 indicated that frequency of strategy use by the Iranian learner of English group and the native Persian group was similar in the use of recommendation, opinion-proving, request, advice, and suggestion. This phenomenon was due to the fact that in our society,
A harmonious social relationship is highly valued. Advice-making, opinion-proving, and request-making are not only a method of keeping harmonious relations among people, but also a duty of benefiting the society. This positive culture orientation of such strategy results in the tendency that Iranian EFL learners of English group display similar frequencies to the native Persian group and more frequencies than the native English group in the use of recommendation, opinion-proving, request, advice, and suggestion. The similarity between the Iranian learners of English group and the native Persian group in the use of recommendation, opinion-proving, and request can explain the difference in the use of these strategies between the Iranian learner of English group and the native English group.

As far as opinion-proving strategy is concerned, the EFL learners of English group used this strategy more frequently than the native English group, which could be due to the fact that they were still influenced by Persian thinking pattern when they persuaded their hearers. Strategy of order, as another example, was used rarely in the learners of English group and it even ranked after opting out for native Persian group. This could be attributed to the fact that EFL learners, under their mother tongue influence, were not willing to use this strategy even when they were dealing with people from lower social level or when they were speaking to their family members. Instead of embarking on the utilization of the required strategies, EFL learners tried to show their politeness and understanding of the situation of the interlocutors, exaggerating their feeling in some situations, which in most of the cases were the reasons for which their utterances were colored and halfway between Persian and English.

In all situations, native Persian speakers and EFL learners of English similarly tried to show their understanding of the situation and difficulty they may bring for the interlocutors upon helping them with their problem; thus, opinion-proving, request, advice, and suggestion are encouraged to use when such situations are dealt with according to Iranian culture. It has also previously been confirmed that indirect speech act usually denoted politeness in the Iranian context as well. According to Allami and Naeimi (2010), in a high-context culture such as Iran, people tend to use indirect, symbolic, vague, and implicit style of communication whereas a low-context culture is generally represented by direct, lucid, accurate, and explicit communication approach. This result is not consistent with Hardin’s (2010) finding that, nonnative speakers use explicit speech act verbs in persuasive discourse, and the use of these verbs may be less dominant among native speakers.

Addressing the second research question
From the above-mentioned findings, the researchers deduced that there were a number of factors that partake in the weakness of the Iranian EFL learners in English language selection of correct persuasion strategy; influence from Persian and lack of pragmatic knowledge of English language stood ahead of them. Thus, based on these findings, the second hypothesis stating “there is no pragmatic transfer in persuasion strategies by Iranian EFL learners in their intercultural communication” could safely be rejected.
However, more salient pragmatic transfer of Iranian learners of English was one to one principle strategy, while based on the findings of the present study, avoidance and substitution were among the most frequent strategies which were pragmatically transferred from Persian into English by Iranian EFL learners.

CONCLUSION
The above-mentioned results demonstrated that there were some differences in persuasion strategies between the learners of English group and the native English group, while there were some similarities in persuasion strategy use between the learner of English group and the native Persian group. These research results provided an affirmative answer to the first question: there is a significant difference in the kind of persuasion strategies used by native English speakers and Iranian nonnative English speakers.

It is worth reminding again that the use of rules of speaking from one’s speech act community when interacting or when speaking in a second or a foreign language is known as pragmatic transfer. There was also pragmatic transfer in the use of persuasion strategies by Iranian learners of English as a foreign language. However, it was impossible to provide evidence of pragmatic transfer without simultaneously describing what was transferred.

As discussed above, the persuasion strategies that were mostly used by Iranian learner of English group and Persian native speakers were: recommendation, opinion proving, request, advice, and suggestion. The Iranian learners of English group also displayed some features of their pragmatic transfer of strategies of avoidance and substitution when they conducted a certain type of speech act. Avoidance and substitution of particular speech act were due to the learners’ lack of skill or explicit training, for example, in the way to form appropriate advice, or indirect commands. Moreover, learners tended to avoid or substitute for the level of directness appropriate for each context, either because they were unaware or because they lacked the necessary skills to do so (Koike 1994).

Finally, based on the findings of the study, it could be realized that English and Persian languages demonstrated parallel strategy in application of recommendation formula as the most preferred strategy while they revealed different patterns in application of order and ultimatum strategies as English people utilized them frequently; Persian speakers used these strategies quite rarely. As a result, Iranian learners of English transferred these habits to English not only because of the influence from their mother tongue but also as their lack of knowledge in pragmatic utilization of these strategies in English contexts. Moreover, evidence proved the existence of significant difference between English native speakers and Iranian EFL males and females in application of persuasion strategy. The results obtained from this study should be approached with caution since this study suffers from limitations, one of which is the limited number of native English speakers who served as the participants of the study. Future studies might be able to
make up for this limitation. It could also be suggested that future research in this area take gender differences into consideration and explore whether males and females use different persuasion strategies in the two speech communities under investigation or not.

REFERENCES


COMPARING ONLINE DICTIONARIES AND FLASH CARDS ON DEVELOPING VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE IN ESP CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT
Regarding the crucial role of vocabulary learning and retention in pedagogical context and the presence of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) as new and powerful technology in the domain of foreign and second language learning, this study aims to reports on the design and results of an experiment with an objective of assessing the different effects of utilizing two vocabulary development strategies, namely an online dictionary and flash cards, on improving learners’ vocabulary knowledge in ESP classes. To do so, 50 freshman learners, majoring information technology (IT), with an age range of 19-20 were randomly assigned into two comparison groups who learnt new technical Information Technology words by making use of an online dictionary and flash cards. The outcomes of the present study indicate that the comparison group 1 who utilized an online dictionary outperformed the comparison group 2 who made use of flash cards. The obtained results of the current study would be more beneficial to the students in order to enhance their capability in remembering and retaining new technical words. As well, it has some advantages for teachers and materials writers to present new vocabulary learning strategies.

KEYWORDS: vocabulary learning, ESP, flash cards, online dictionaries, CALL.

INTRODUCTION
The effectiveness of vocabulary learning methods and instructional techniques has been recognized as an important element in both first and second language pedagogy. During the 1990s, interest in vocabulary learning and teaching increased. Paul Nation’s (1990) “teaching and learning vocabulary” appeared at the beginning of the decade and proved influential in its inclusive review of research on vocabulary while providing pedagogical guidance through interpreting the research in terms of classroom applications.

Second language acquisition depends crucially on the development of a strong vocabulary (nation, 2001). Without an extensive amount of vocabulary and strategies for acquiring new
target words, learners may be unable to make use of some language learning opportunities around them such as watching TV, reading newspaper, listening to radio, etc. (Renandya & Richard, 2002).

According to Laufer (1997), vocabulary learning is considered as the heart of any language learning and language use. Metaphorically, Zhan-Xiang (2004) illustrates that words of a language are just like bricks of a high building: despite quite small pieces, they are vital to the great structure. If we spend most of our time studying grammar, our English will not improve enormously, much improvement is attained if we learn more words and expressions, little can be said with grammar but almost anything with words (Thornbury, 2002). Researchers now view vocabulary as an important language component upon which effective communication relies (Oxford & Scarella, 1994).

Learning vocabulary is seen as a key element to achieve a high level of proficiency in the target language by a large number of theoreticians (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). Also researchers, teachers, and authors in foreign language learning are paying special attention to foreign language vocabulary acquisition (Zu, 2009). It is believed that having a large and varied vocabulary is the indicator of communicative competence and it is one of the important aspects of language learning (McCrostie, 2007).

Considering the significance of vocabulary learning in the domain of language pedagogy, and with regard to the development of specific English courses such as English for technology, management, accounting, engineering, etc., most of the students encounter difficulties in learning and retaining technical English words relating to their specific course of instruction (ESP). Certainly, a great deal about the origins of ESP could be written. According to Hutchinson and Waters, (1987) there are two reasons common to the emergence of all ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point to the second world war as an "... age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale... for various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, the role [of international language] fell to English" (p. 6).

The second key reason cited as having a tremendous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Whereas traditional linguists set out to describe the features of language, revolutionary pioneers in linguistics began to focus on the ways in which language is used in real communication. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that one significant discovery was in the ways that spoken and written English vary. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. This idea was taken one step farther. If language in different situations varies, then tailoring language instruction to meet the needs of learners in specific contexts is also possible. Hence, in the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English for Science and Technology (EST). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) identify Ewer and Latorre, Swales, Selinker and Trimble as a few of the prominent descriptive EST pioneers.
David Carver (1983) identifies three types of ESP. First, English as a restricted language such as the language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters. Second, English for academic and occupational purposes in which according to the 'Tree of ELT' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), ESP is broken down into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE), and c) English for Social Studies (ESS). And third, English with specific topics that emphasis shifts from purpose to topic.

The main focus of ESP in pedagogical domain is on the second type of ESP, i.e. English for academic and occupational purposes. According to Akbari & Tahririan (2009), students in an ESP context come across unfamiliar target words in text materials and need to adopt some deliberate strategies to facilitate learning and retention of those words in their memories. Considering the crucial role attributed to vocabulary learning and teaching in second and foreign language teaching, recently, there has been a revived interest in the vocabulary nature and its role in learning and teaching in general and in learning technical English words in ESP classes in specific (Richard & Renandya, 2002).

According to Al-Seghayer (2001), advances and increased availability of computers have altered and expanded the field of second/foreign language education. The concern has been narrowed to the investigation of the efficiency of presenting information using multiple modalities such as text, audio, still pictures, and dynamic videos in the field of SLA (Robin, 2008; Belmonte & Verdugo, 2007). According to Lomicka (1998), with the advance of multimedia application in second language teaching and learning the investigation of annotation has been taken a step further. The computer is able to take a role as an interlocutor in language learning tasks. As well, it provides additional lexical information in the form of enhanced input for the user or language learner (Groot, 2009).

In today’s language classrooms, vocabulary teaching and learning is increasingly supplemented by software products. The most important reason for this is the possibility of integrating different modalities, i.e. pictures, animations, videos, and sounds in the program and consequently creating interactivity with that (al-Seghayer, 2001; Jones & Plass, 2002). Along with the use of computer in order to improve the students’ vocabulary knowledge, flash cards are, as well, considered as an educational tool to help people to memorize information. These constructive instruments are considered as a practical tool for stimulating English learners vocabulary in English classes because in addition being handy and useful in the English language learning classrooms, they are highly effective, versatile and fun, too. They’re also cheap to acquire or produce and, in fact, could even be made by the learners themselves. These cards are supposed to be imperative elements in teaching vocabulary and developing communicative skills. The learners would be able to improve their language learning ability via utilizing different kinds of flash cards, because these cards concentrate on repeating, memorizing, reading or listening, besides other skills. The teacher must plan this activity with a very specific objective according to the students' level (Lynch, 2010). Flash cards can also help learners to drill in the English alphabet, increase their concentration on games and also helps them to memorize vocabulary elements, images, phrases or even grammar aspects.
Many Iranian EFL learners tend to memorize new words in a conventional way, which is memorizing a long list of words with their translations in their mother tongue. However, this strategy would not be efficient in learning and retaining the words for a long period of time. Therefore, with the birth of new technology and new learning strategies in the field of second and foreign language learning, most EFL learners, teachers, and material writers prefer to utilize these strategies in order to enhance their vocabulary knowledge. Because of the importance of vocabulary learning in general and vocabulary development in ESP courses in specific, the present study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of two vocabulary learning strategies, online dictionary and flash cards, in ESP vocabulary instruction. To fulfill the present study, the following research questions were addressed in this paper:

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

1. What is the effect of using online dictionaries in improving EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge in ESP courses?
2. What is the effect of using flash cards in improving EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge in ESP courses?
3. What is the difference between using flash cards and online dictionaries in promoting EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge in ESP courses? Which one is more beneficial?

**METHODOLOGY**

This quasi-experimental study reports on the comparison between two vocabulary learning strategies, namely using an online dictionary versus flash cards, on improving Iranian EFL learners’ acquisition of ESP words in Information Technology (IT) classes. The dependent variable of this study is learners’ achievement of technical Information Technology (IT) vocabularies. The independent variables are two experimental groups who study using flash cards and an online dictionary.

**Participants**

Initially, 74 male and female students at Islamic Azad University in Bonab, Iran, aged 19-26, majoring Information Technology (IT), took the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP). Based on their scores, 50 were selected to participate in the study. In the next stage the participants were given a test of new target words which were presented in a table with four columns. The aim of this test was to measure whether the new vocabularies are familiar to the students or not. In the final stage the participants were randomly assigned into two comparison groups.

**Materials**

To fulfill the objectives of this study the following instruments were utilized:

- To ascertain the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of language proficiency, the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP) was employed.
- The new target words were presented in a four-column table to quantify whether the words are new to the students or not. This test was designed by the researcher and piloted.
for its reliability and validity. The words were included in the first column. In the second column the participants were supposed to mark “yes” if they know the meaning of the new word, and mark “no” if they have not seen that word before in column three. Finally in column four they were required to write the meaning of the target four if it is familiar to them.


- A thirty items vocabulary pre-test, with the reliability index of 0.82, measured by Pearson Correlation method, was designed in multiple-choice format.

- Flash cards which consisted of new technical Information Technology (IT) vocabularies on one side and their pronunciations, meanings, and examples on the other side.

- An online Information Technology (IT) dictionary which is a talking IT dictionary and helps users to learn and identify the meaning and pronunciation of technical key vocabularies. This dictionary is available in www.Englisg4IT.com.

- And finally, a multiple-choice post-test which was developed for the purpose of this study with thirty items. This test was also measured in terms of its reliability through conducting the scores to Pearson correlation method. The results confirmed its reliability (r=0.79)

Procedure

At the beginning of the study, a standardized general English proficiency test, MTELP, was administered to 74 participants who were divided into two groups in order to assess the participants’ proficiency level. Based on the outcomes, of this test 50 subjects were selected from among 98 learners. Then, these participants were randomly divided into two comparison groups. In order to measure the familiarity of the participants with the new target vocabularies, these words were presented in a four-column table. As well, the participants were supposed to take a thirty-item pre-test that was in multiple-choice form. Before treatment the researcher provided a brief introduction about how to use online dictionary and how to use flash cards to learn the meaning of the new words. Afterward, eight reading comprehension passages which were adopted from “Special English for the Students of Computer”, written by ManoghehrHaghani, were presented to the students. The subjects in comparison group 1, were required to learn the new words in each passage by using flash cards. These flash cards included the new vocabulary, its meaning, its pronunciation, and an example. The subjects in comparison group 2 were supposed to learn each new word by using talking online dictionary designed for the students of Information Technology. After treatment, the students were provided with a post-test which comprised of thirty multiple-choice question items with one correct answer and three distracters. At the final stage, the data were collected and submitted to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 17.0) to analyze the results.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study was an attempt to survey the relative effects of using an online dictionary and flash cards as two influential vocabulary learning strategies. To bring about the objectives of the present study and to answer the research questions, the collected data were conducted via submitting to SPSS for windows and the outcomes were reported as follows:

First, the scores obtained from general language proficiency tests were analyzed through paired-sample t-test. The results of this analysis are demonstrated in tables 1 and 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Paired Samples Statistics in Language Proficiency Test</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pair</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
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<td>2</td>
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</table>

The results in table 1 Shows that the mean score of the subjects in group 1 of proficiency test is 80.65 and the mean score for group 2 is 79.93. Accordingly, the mean scores are approximately at the same level and there is no significant difference in terms of general proficiency level between the participants. (p=.725).

To answer the first research question, which addresses the effectiveness of utilizing vocabulary online dictionaries on improving EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge, the scores of the both pre and post tests for experimental group 1, those who learnt the target words through an online dictionary, were submitted to paired-sample T-test. The results of this analysis are presented in tables 3 and 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Paired Samples Statistics for both Pre-Test and Post-Test of Comparison Group 1</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pair</td>
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<td>2</td>
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According to the results of table 3, the mean score for the participants in the comparison group 1, who utilized an online dictionary, in post-test is 24.28 which is higher than the mean score of the same subjects in the pre-test (19.16). These outcomes, as confirmed by the results of table 4, demonstrates that there is a significant difference between the performances of the subjects in group 1 in both pre and post tests and using an online dictionary as a vocabulary learning strategy in ESP classes has an influential effect on enhancing EFL learners vocabulary learning and retention. With regard to the second research question, the collected data from both pre and post test of the subjects in experimental group 2 who learn ESP vocabularies via flash cards were analyzed through utilizing paired-sample t-test and the results are revealed in tables 5 and 6:

Table 5: Paired Samples Statistics for both Pre-Test and Post-Test of Comparison Group 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>flashcard.pre</th>
<th>flashcard.post</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>19.8000</td>
<td>22.2800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>3.47611</td>
<td>3.60000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>.69522</td>
<td>.72000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in table 5 illustrates that the participants in comparison group 2 outperformed in post-test than in pre-test. Since the mean score for post-test is 22.28 which is higher than the mean score for pre-test (19.80). As well, the results of table 6 shows that the difference between performances of the subjects in group 2 in pre and post tests is dominant, since the Sig. ratio is
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(p=.000). Consequently it can be concluded that using flash cards has a positive effect on improving learners’ ESP vocabularies. In order to answer the third research question which deals with the comparison between the effectiveness of both aforementioned vocabulary development strategies, the scores of the post-tests of both groups were conducted by the use of paired-sample t-test. The following tables illustrate the obtained results:

Table 7: Paired Samples Statistics for both Comparison Groups in Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>online.dic post-test</td>
<td>24.2800</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.70270</td>
<td>.74054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flashcard post-test</td>
<td>22.2800</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.60000</td>
<td>.72000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Paired Samples Test for both Comparison Group in Post-Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair</td>
<td>Online dictionary post-test</td>
<td>2.00000</td>
<td>1.93649</td>
<td>.38730</td>
<td>1.20066</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Flash cards post-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Upper</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is demonstrated in table 7, the mean score for the subjects who learnt ESP vocabularies through an online dictionary is higher than the mean scores of those who made use of flash cards (m=24.28 > m=22.28), in accordance with the end result s of table 7, there is significant difference between the performances of subjects in both comparison groups in post-test and the participants in group 1 outperformed those in group 2 (p=.000).

Discussion

The present study was designed to shed light on the effects of using online dictionaries and flash cards on improving Iranian learners’ vocabulary knowledge in ESP classes. The first and the second research questions addressed the effectiveness of using different vocabulary development strategies and the third research question compared these two strategies. The outcomes obtained through data analysis confirmed that the comparison group 1 who learnt new words via an online dictionary surpassed than those in group 2 who used flash cards. Furthermore, comparing and measuring the mean scores and standard deviations in tables 7 and 8 indicated that the students are more likely to use multimedia technology than the other paper-based methods. The findings of the present study is in line with the findings of Tick (2009), who have posited online dictionary technology may lead to positive effects in learning environments because of its widespread use and being as a kind of new technology.

As well, the outcomes echo those of the study conducted by Davies (2002), showing that vocabulary learning via flash cards can be more effective than massed vocabulary learning
through paper medium. He believes that this success may be due to students’ easy access to flash cards, which results in their repeated exposures to and frequent practice of the vocabulary items on a daily basis.

Le (2010) also studied the effect of multimedia and traditional approach to the identification of English vocabularies. The result of his study was strongly in favor of multimedia technology. Emphasizing the importance of vocabulary learning, Brown (1973) stated that more attention can be placed on new target words by using new strategies to highlight new words for L2 learners.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the current study was investigating two different vocabulary learning strategies, namely using online dictionaries vs. flash cards, in remembering and retaining newly presented technical words. According the obtained outcomes, it was observed that presenting new words through online dictionaries was more beneficial than presenting those words by the use of flash cards. Since, the mean scores of the students in group 1 (online dictionary group) was higher than those in group 2 (flash card group). The needs of struggling readers highlight the importance of teachers making correct pedagogical decisions in identifying target vocabulary and choosing appropriate materials. Working with a limited range of genres at any one time is also a valid idea to enable students to engage in learning new target words before moving on. These entire highlight the demands on teachers not just be able to plan effective tasks, but also manage them in a way which will lead to students acquiring vocabulary effectively. Accordingly, this paper shows that making use of multimedia technology in general, and online dictionaries in this study in particular, would provide a wider path to the Iranian learners to enhance the amount of their vocabulary learning and retention. Therefore, in addition to utilizing paper-based methods such as flash cards, it would be very influential to provide learners, especially those in ESP classes with opportunities to be aware of the merits of employing technology in their vocabulary learning and retention. The major limitation of this study was imposed by administrative restrictions. Since this study was done at the university, the number of the students who participated in the study was limited. As well, in this study, only two vocabulary learning strategies were investigated, while it is possible to survey more vocabulary learning strategies.

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A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF TWO NEWS ARTICLES ABOUT NUCLEAR DEALS USING HALLIDAY AND HASSAN’S MODEL OF COHESION

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ABSTRACT
English language has been an important medium of instruction throughout the world and has been utilized in both spoken and written form for conveying intended meanings. This paper aims to exploit Halliday and Hassan’s framework of cohesion (1976) to analyze Ayatollah Khamenei and Rouhani’s viewpoints about the nuclear negotiations derived from Reuters (2015). A qualitative research methodology was utilized to analyze the writing of two news articles, named as “Iran’s Khamenei hints ready to accept fair nuclear deal as talks proceed” which was retrieved on February, 2015 and has been translated by Balali and Nasralla (2015), and as “Iran’s Rouhani says goal of nuclear negotiation is win-win outcome” translated by Dehghanpisheh and pressed in Reuters on February, 2015. The results confirmed the use of cohesive devices in these papers. Among cohesive devices, references particularly personal references and lexical cohesion were the most cohesive devices which were utilized in these papers.

KEYWORDS: cohesion, cohesive devices, discourse, texture, text

INTRODUCTION
The term “discourse” is used in day-to-day language interchangeably with discussion or dialogue. The story of a discussion or dialogue is the object of discourse analysis. Such analysis aims to expose patterns and hidden rules of how language is used and narratives are created. Thus, discourse analysis is a research method which involves examining communication in order to gain new insights. People in a variety of academic departments use the term discourse and discourse analysis for what they do, how they do it, or both. Many of these people have some training in general linguistics, and some identify themselves as linguists. Others, however, would identify themselves with other fields of study, such as communication, anthropology, psychology, education, and so on (Johnstone, 2008).
The study and analysis of actual language in use is the goal of text and discourse analysis. In talking about texture the most important concept is that of TIE. The term itself implies a relation: you cannot have a tie without two members, and the members cannot appear in a tie unless there is a relation between them. The nature of this link is semantic: the two terms of any tie are tied together through some meaning relation. Such meaning relation form the basis for cohesion between the messages of a text (Halliday & Hassan, 1976). Cohesion is in the level of semantic, which refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. Once people are involved in writing two or more interconnected sentences, they have to use cohesive devices and coherence as a means of linking sentences together.

**Theoretical background**

Blommaert (2005) states that to discourse analysts, discourse refers to real instances of communicative actions in the medium of language, although some defined the term more broadly as a meaningful symbolic behavior in any mode. There are various methods of discourse analyses which are emerged from different interpretations of the meaning of discourse (Mills, 1997; Torfing, 2005). Linguistic traditions define discourse solely as the units of written and spoken communication under study and focus on the content of texts and conversations. Other social science traditions define discourse as being derived from and dependent on social practices – the complex mix of cultural norms, disciplines and rituals – which govern discursive formations (Hajer, 1995). Social practices form sets of rules which work together to construct discourses. A definition of discourse which encompasses social practices draws attention to how discourses are formed and shaped, and to the possibility of contrasting sets of influences producing divergent discourses.

Although discourse analysis has been a busy field of activity for many years, there is a good deal of uncertainty about what it actually is. The generally accepted view is that it has something to do with looking at language above or beyond the sentence, but this is hardly an exact formulation. Stubbs (1983) strongly stated that discourse analysis refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence, or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. However, this definition has been criticized because it didn’t specify whether the terms clause or sentence refer to the same thing or not and whether the linguistic organization to be analyzed is above a clause or above a sentence.

According to Halliday (1994) a text, in the simplest way, is language that is functional. By functional, he means language that is doing some job in some context as opposed to isolated words or sentences that might be put on the blackboard. So, any instance of living language that is playing some part in a context of situation is called a text. He, further, believes that a text is both product and a process. The text is a product in the sense that it is an output, something that can be recorded and studied, and it is a process in the sense of a continuous process of semantic choice and a movement through the network of meaning potential. Ruqaiya Hasan (1984) proposed that the structure of a text is closely related to the context of situation, so much so that the specific values of field, tenor and mode, which together make up a contextual configuration,
can be used to make certain predictions about the structure of the text, just as the unfolding structure of the text itself can be used as a pointer to the very nature of the contextual configuration. Thus, there is a two-way relationship between text structure and contextual configuration: the on-going structure of the text defines and confirms the nature of the contextual configuration, while the latter acts as a point of reference for deciding what kind of elements can appropriately appear when, where, and how often which refers to texture, the main objective of this study. Texture is the basis for unity and semantic interdependence within text and a text without texture would just be a group of isolated sentences with no relationship to one another.

Eggins (1994: 85) refers to the term texture put forth by Schegloff and Sacks (1973: 74) “sequential implicativeness” which proposes that language follows a linear sequence where one line of text follows another with each line being linked or related to the previous line. This linear progression of text creates a context for meaning. Contextual meaning, at the paragraph level is referred to as “coherence” while the internal properties of meaning are referred to as “cohesion”. Since Systemic Functional Linguistics considers function and semantics as the basis of human language and communicative activity, Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) model of cohesion was adopted as the most suitable method for analyzing the legal text. This is because they (Halliday & Hasan, 1976) gave a detailed insight into the study of cohesion.

According to Van Dijk (1985), cohesion is a concept that is associated with the surface making of coherence which signals the ties between sentences and the points being made. He points out that cohesion is only part of the convention of coherence for the elements of a text to be seen as “connected”, with or without overt linguistic connections between these elements. Woods (2006) defines cohesion in terms of the distinction that is made between the illocutionary act and the proposition. In his view, prepositions, when linked together, form a text, whereas illocutionary acts, when related to each other, create different kinds of “discourse”.

Coherence has both “situational” coherence when field, tenor, and mode can be identified for a certain group of clauses and “generic” coherence when the text can be recognized as belonging to a certain genre. As mentioned before, cohesion relates to the “semantic ties” within text whereby a tie is made when there is some dependent link between items that combine to create meaning. Therefore, texture is created within text when there are properties of coherence and cohesion, outside of the apparent grammatical structure of the text.

Cox, Shanahan, and Sulzby (1990) supported the idea that cohesion is important for the reader in constructing meaning from a text and for the writer in creating a text that can be easily comprehended. Connor (1984) defined cohesion as the use of explicit cohesive devices that signal relations among sentences and parts of a text. This means that the appropriate use of cohesive devices enables readers and listeners to capture the connectedness between what precedes and what follows.

Like all the components of the semantic system, cohesion is realized through grammar and vocabulary (Tanskanen, 2006). Cohesion can therefore be divided into grammatical and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion includes devices such as reference, substitution, ellipsis and
conjunction, while lexical cohesion is divided into reiteration (repetition, synonymy etc.) and collocation (co-occurrence of lexical items).

Grammatical cohesion is constructed by the grammatical structures each component ties each other. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify grammatical cohesion into 4 major classes: Reference, Substitution/Ellipsis, Conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

Referencing
Referencing functions as a means for retrieving presupposed information in text and must be identifiable for it to be considered as cohesive. According to Eggins (1994), in written text, referencing is illustrated for determining how the writer introduces participants and keeps track of them throughout the text. There are three general types of referencing: homophoric referencing, which refers to shared information through the context of culture, exophoric referencing, which refers to information from the immediate context of situation, and endophoric referencing, which refers to information that can be “retrieved” from within the text. It is this endophoric referencing which is the focus of cohesion theory. Endophoric referencing can be divided into three areas: anaphoric, cataphoric, and esphoric. Anaphoric refers to any reference that “points backwards” to previously mentioned information in text. Cataphoric refers to any reference that “points forward” to information that will be presented later in the text. Esphoric refers to any reference within the same nominal group or phrase which follows the presupposed item. For cohesion purposes, anaphoric referencing is the most relevant as it “provides a link with a preceding portion of the text” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 51). Functionally speaking, there are three main types of cohesive references: personal, demonstrative, and comparative. Personal reference keeps track of function through the speech situation using noun pronouns like “he, him, she, her”, etc. and possessive determiners like “mine, yours, his, hers”, etc. Demonstrative reference keeps track of information through location using proximity references like “this, these, that, those, here, there, then, and the”. Comparative reference keeps track of identity and similarity through indirect references using adjectives like “same, equal, similar, and different, else, better, more”, etc. and adverbs like “so, such, similarly, otherwise, so, more”, etc.

Substitution and ellipsis
Substitution and ellipsis operate as a linguistic link at the lexico-grammatical level. In Bloor and Bloor (1995: 96), substitution and ellipsis is used when “a speaker or writer wishes to avoid the repetition of a lexical item and is able to draw on one of the grammatical resources of the language to replace the item”. The three types of classification for substitution and ellipsis: nominal, verbal and clausal, reflect its grammatical function. When something in text is being substituted, it follows that the substituted item maintains the same structural function as the presupposed item. In nominal substitution, the most typical substitution words are “one and ones” and they substitute nouns. In verbal substitution, the most common substitute is the verb “do” and is sometimes used in conjunction with “so” as in “do so” and substitute verbs. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 125–126) point out that “do” often operates with the reference items “it” and “that” but still have the main function as a verbal substitute because of its grammatical role. In clausal substitution, an entire clause is substituted and though it may seem to be similar to either nominal or verbal substitution, the difference is the presupposed anaphoric reference. Though substitution
and ellipsis are similar in their function as the linguistic link for cohesion, ellipsis differs in that it is “substitution by zero” (ibid: 142). Ellipsis refers to a presupposed anaphoric item although the reference is not through a “place-marker” like in substitution. The presupposed item is understood through its structural link. As it is a structural link, ellipsis operates through nominal, verbal and clausal levels. Halliday and Hasan further classify ellipsis in systemic linguistic terminology as deictic, enumerative, epithet, classifier, and qualifier.

Conjunction
Conjunction, as described by Bloor and Bloor (1995: 98) acts as a “cohesive tie between clauses or sections of text in such a way as to demonstrate a meaningful pattern between them”, though Halliday and Hasan (1976: 227) indicate that “conjunctive relations are not tied to any particular sequence in the expression”. Therefore, amongst the cohesion forming devices within text, conjunction is the least directly identifiable relation. Conjunction acts as a semantic cohesive tie within text in four categories: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. Additive conjunction acts to structurally coordinate or link by adding to the presupposed item and are signaled through “and, also, too, furthermore, additionally”, etc. Additive conjunction may also act to negate the presupposed item and is signaled by “nor, and...not, either, neither”, etc. Adversative conjunctions act to indicate “contrary to expectation” (ibid: 250) and are signaled by “yet, though, only, but, in fact, rather”, etc. Causal conjunction expresses “result, reason and purpose” and is signaled by “so, then, for, because, for this reason, as a result, in this respect, etc.”. The last conjunctive category is temporal and links by signaling sequence or time. Some sample temporal conjunctive signals are “then, next, after that, next day, until then, at the same time, at this point”, etc.

Lexical cohesion
Lexical cohesion differs from the other cohesive elements in text in that it is non-grammatical. Lexical cohesion refers to the “cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” (ibid: 274). The two basic categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation. Reiteration pertains to the repetition of a lexical item, either directly or through the use of a synonym, a superordinate or a generally related word. Collocation pertains to lexical items that are likely to be found together within the same text. Collocation occurs when a pair of words is not necessarily dependent upon the same semantic relationship but rather they tend to occur within the same lexical environment (ibid: 286). The closer lexical items are to each other between sentences, the stronger the cohesive effect.

Empirical background
Many researchers have conducted various researches focusing on cohesive devices and applying these devices in written and spoken languages in EFL and ESL contexts. In a study which was conducted by Liu and Braine (2005) investigating cohesive features in argumentative writing produced by 96 chinese undergraduate students, it was confirmed that students were incapable of using cohesive devices proficiently in their writing.

Xuefan (2007) investigated the use of lexical cohesive devices by 15 each of 1st-and 3rd-year English majors in china. The outcomes revealed that proficiency levels were not influential on the
students’ implementation of cohesive devices in their writing. Additionally, it was stated that repetition was more significantly used than other types of lexical cohesion. Ahmed (2010) investigated students’ cohesion problems in EFL essay writing. The participants in the study were Egyptian student-teachers. The researcher concluded that the low English proficiency of the students caused their non-cohesive writing.

Crossley and McNamara (2012) examined the possibility of predicting second language (L2) writing proficiency through the use of different linguistic features. The study’s corpus comprised of 514 essays that were collected from graduating Hong Kong high-school students at seven different grade levels. The study’s analysis stressed the notion that proficiency did not produce texts that were more cohesive, though they constructed texts that were more linguistically sophisticated.

Al-Jarf (2001) investigated the use of cohesive devices by 59 Arab EFL students from King Saud University. Substitution was deemed to be the most problematic form of cohesion for the students followed by reference and ellipsis. Furthermore, the outcome of the study also indicated that “cohesion anomalies were caused by poor linguistic competence, especially poor syntactic and semantic awareness, and poor or inaccurate knowledge of the cohesion rules” (Al-Jarf, 2001: 141).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Considering the vital role of coherence and cohesive devices in interpreting the spoken and written discourse, and despite many researchers who have identified several types of cohesion (Brown & Yule, 1983; Cook, 1989; McCarthy, 1991; Renkema, 1993), the current study was designated to interpret the viewpoints of Iran’s supreme leader, Ayatollah Khamenei, and Iran’s president, Hassan Rouhani, based on Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) cohesion framework due to the comprehensiveness of its well-developed taxonomy. To do so, the following research questions were proposed in the study:

1. What types of cohesive devices are used by Iranian diplomats in their spoken discourse?
2. How frequently do those diplomats use these cohesive devices in their speaking?

METHODOLOGY
Sifting through all the available approaches and facing with the enormous range of suggested ways, on may doubt which one to choose, however, the present study refers to Halliday and Hassan’s (1976) four dimensional framework to analyze two news articles. The paper aimed to unveil the cohesion of the texts produced by Iranian leaders through exploiting cohesive devices of news interviews.

The corpus of the study
The corpus for this study on the use of cohesive devices came from two online reports. The first one is about Iran’s paramount leader’s viewpoints about nuclear power entitled as “Iran’s Khamenei hints ready to accept fair nuclear deal as talks proceed” presented in “REUTERS” by
The data analysis procedure

Based on the taxonomy of cohesive theory provided by Halliday and Hassan (1976), the four elements of this theory, referencing, substitution and ellipses, conjunction, and lexical cohesion, built the categories for analysis. Each device and its functions are explained below accompanied by examples obtained from the corpus.

Referencing

Referencing functions as a means for retrieving presupposed information in text and must be identifiable for it to be considered as cohesive. Example: he in line 15 refers to Ayatollah Khameneie; those deadlines in line 94 refers to end of March and a Juan 30.

Substitution and ellipsis

Substitution and ellipsis operate as a linguistic link at the lexico-grammatical level. It is used when to avoid the repetition of a lexical item. Example: in line 44, if they can refers to taking the weapon of sanctions away from the enemy by Iran’s nuclear negotiators.

Conjunction

Conjunction acts as a cohesive tie between clauses or sections of text in such a way as to demonstrate a meaningful pattern between them. Example: neither, for, however, and, until, etc.

Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to the “cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. Example: date and time.... Sunday, second time, November, in 2013, in 1986, June 30, March, Wednesday, 36th anniversary of Iran’s Islamic Revolution, Monday

To provide detailed portrait of cohesion in writing and speaking, the following results are presented and discussed from cohesive theory with four major cohesive devices (referencing, substitution and ellipses, conjunction, and lexical cohesion) proposed by Halliday and Hassan (1976).

RESULTS AND TEXT ANALYSIS

According to the purpose of the study and abovementioned research questions, the papers were analyzed regarding cohesive devices as follows:

Referencing

As mentioned in previous paragraphs, referencing refers to retrieving presupposed information in text. Generally, there are three main types of cohesive references: personal, demonstrative, and
This research paper aims to analyze the passages in terms of incidences of personal, demonstrative and comparative references. Table 1 shows the results:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Line Reference</th>
<th>Referenced Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Iran’s paramount leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>A fair nuclear accord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>5-7</td>
<td>Clerical supreme leader Ayatolla AliKhamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Clerical supreme leader Ayatolla AliKhamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>9-10</td>
<td>President Hassan Rouhani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>The other party</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>On side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Khamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Khamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Khamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>35-36</td>
<td>Tehran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Themselves</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Negotiators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>36-36</td>
<td>Negotiators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Our</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Iran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>43-44</td>
<td>Iran’s negotiators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Our</td>
<td>43-44</td>
<td>Iran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>46-47</td>
<td>Khamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>54-55</td>
<td>Zarif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>They</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Sanctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>You</td>
<td>59-60</td>
<td>Munich gathering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>Them</td>
<td>57-58</td>
<td>Khamenei and Zsrif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Zarif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>Israel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>Itslef</td>
<td>64-65</td>
<td>Iran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Netanyahu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>67-68</td>
<td>Iran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>69-70</td>
<td>Iran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Rouhani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Khamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>It</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>Each side of negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Khamenei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>Rouhani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>85-86</td>
<td>Khamenei</td>
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<tr>
<td>87</td>
<td>We</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>Iran’s government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88</td>
<td>Our</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>Iran</td>
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<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>We</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>Iran’s government</td>
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<tr>
<td>97</td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>Iran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103</td>
<td>You</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>Criticism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>105</td>
<td>He</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>Rouhani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>Criticism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this paper, there were forty-one incidences of personal references which act to track of participants throughout the text. Most of these references are anaphoric. For example, in line 5, the “I” refers back to “Clerical supreme leader Ayatolla AliKhamenei” in lines 5-7. The second
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Substitution and ellipsis
As aforementioned, Halliday (1994) introduced substitution and ellipsis as the crucial characteristics of spoken text. These are utilized to represent grammatically cohesive relations. In substitution, one item is replaced with another and in ellipsis an item is omitted. In this article, there were just three notations of substitution. For example, in lines 43-44, “if they can” is interpreted to be a substitution of “taking the weapon of sanctions away from the enemy by Iran’s nuclear negotiators. The other instances of substitutions are presented in table 4. Regarding ellipsis, something is left unsaid in the passage and it’s the responsibility of the reader to supply the missing information. In line 14, “ one side” refers to line 9-12 in which the elliptical reference to the negotiators in nuclear dispute that are the world powers and Iran. Table 5 represents the elliptical references in the article.

Table 4: Substitution Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Line Reference</th>
<th>Substituted Information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>If they can</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>taking the weapon of sanctions away from the enemy by Iran’s nuclear negotiators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>If they fail</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>not taking the weapon of sanctions away from the enemy by Iran’s nuclear negotiators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>Than a bad one</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>having an argument with the powers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Ellipsis Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Line Reference</th>
<th>Elliptical Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>One side</td>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>Parties in nuclear negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>A single-stage</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>As the powers want</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>To lift the weapons of sanctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>A seven month extension</td>
<td>35-36</td>
<td>Extension of negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>They can</td>
<td>43-44</td>
<td>Taking the weapon of sanction away...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>They fail</td>
<td>43-44</td>
<td>Not taking the weapon of sanction...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>This weapon</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Weapon of sanctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Khameneie</td>
<td>General</td>
<td>Supreme Leader Ayatollah Ali Khameneie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Islamic Republic</td>
<td>General</td>
<td>Of Iran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Tehran and Washington</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>Nuclear negotiators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Zarif</td>
<td>General</td>
<td>Iranian Foreign Minister, Mohammad JavadZarif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Of nuclear negotiations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>Neither side</td>
<td>69-72</td>
<td>Of negotiation table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87</td>
<td>The battle field</td>
<td>87-89</td>
<td>Iran’s President Hassan Rouhani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>Rouhani</td>
<td>General</td>
<td>Of having peace and well-being to be...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>104</td>
<td>No path</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>Middle East</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>The region</td>
<td>103-105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conjunction
Conjunction contributes to textual cohesion by linking successive sentences that are not structurally related. Halliday defines conjunction as “a clause or clause complex, or some longer stretch of text, which may be related to what follows it by one or other of a specific set of semantic relations” (1994: 310). Under broad category of conjunction, four subcategories capture different relations: additive (and, in addition to, also, etc), adversative (however, instead, but, etc), causal (for this reason, because, since, for, etc), and temporal (next, after that, until, previously, etc). All four types of conjunctions represented in the current article are demonstrated in table 6.

### Table 6: Conjunction Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjunctions</th>
<th>Additive</th>
<th>Adversative</th>
<th>Causal</th>
<th>Temporal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>But</td>
<td>Since</td>
<td>After</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>And</td>
<td>However</td>
<td></td>
<td>Until</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>And</td>
<td>Also</td>
<td>Rather</td>
<td>For</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yet</td>
<td></td>
<td>Last November</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Than</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lexical cohesion**

Lexical cohesion differ from the other cohesive elements in that it is non grammatical. Lexical cohesion refers to the “cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:274). The two basic categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation. Reiteration pertains to the repetition of a lexical item, either directly or through the use of a synonym, a super-ordinate or a generally related word. Collocation pertains to lexical items that are likely to be found together within the same text. Collocation occurs when a pair of words is not necessarily dependent upon the same semantic relationship but rather they tend to occur within the same lexical environment. Whether it is through the different forms of reiteration or through collocation, a clearly identifiable choice of lexical pattern is very apparent. In table 7, a general word list is utilized to generalize the overall pattern of lexical cohesion from the article. It is necessary to mention that repetition of lexis is due to repetition in the text.
Table 7: Lexical Cohesion Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical Cohesion</th>
<th>Lexis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Power</td>
<td>Paramount, power, supreme, clerical, leader, president, clergy, senior, senator, prime minister, authority, elite.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date and time</td>
<td>Sunday, second time, November, in 2013, in 1986, June 30, March, Wednesday, 36th anniversary of Iran's Islamic Revolution, Monday.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement</td>
<td>Boosting, landslide, enrichment, ambitious, extension, raise, develop, continue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negotiators</td>
<td>Officials, negotiators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreement</td>
<td>Oppose, contrary, illogical, rejection, against, suspected, deny, conflict, stand-off, preventing, enemy, overrule, skeptical, criticism, severed, blasted, conservative, critics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement</td>
<td>Go along, accept, back up, sanction, coincide, agree, endorse, assuring, agreement, rapprochement, fair accord, interest, conciliatory, détente, diplomatic relation, compromise, final accord, reach a common point.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negotiation</td>
<td>Deal, statement, message, negotiation, dispute, remark, talk, comment, discussion, sticking point, consultation, speech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nations</td>
<td>Iran, world, nations, West, international world, Middle East, Syria, Iraq, Tehran, US, Russia, China, Britain, France, Munich, Islamic Republic of Iran, Washington, Afghanistan, Israel, Germany, Lebanon, Yemen, Islamic State</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>News Agencies</td>
<td>ISNA, RUTERS, IRNA, FARS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output</td>
<td>Demand, behavior, capability, consensus, output.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuclear</td>
<td>Nuclear weapon, uranium, nuclear arm agenda, nuclear program, civilian energy, nuclear fuel production capacity, oil production, nuclear bomb, nuclear talk/negotiation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount</td>
<td>Major, excessive, alternative, crucial, wider, deeply, firmly, high profile, more time, technical, size, length, so much, highest, bilateral, underlying, further, strongest, high stake, mutual, broad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End</td>
<td>End up, finals, limit, end, deadline, removed, take away, crippling, scrap, get rid of s.th, defuse, undermining, quite, change, ravage, uprooted, drive s.th out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meeting</td>
<td>Conference, parliament, meeting, office, gathering, cabinet,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationalities</td>
<td>Shi‘ite, Sunni Muslims, Islamic State, Al-Qaeda.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dangers</td>
<td>Dull, unidentified, mortal, thread, bad, dangerous, imperil, warn, fear, suspicious, wrong, inhuman, illegal, covert, war, battlefield, independence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idea</td>
<td>Approach, point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace</td>
<td>Peace, well-being, peaceful, win-win, security, ceremony, independence, liability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>Government, terrorism, world powers, arms, negotiators, terrorist groups, people, militants, hardliners, officials, diplomats, western officials.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION
Discourse analysis challenges researchers to question policy making process, how dialogue takes place, and how power relations produce dominant discourses and marginalizes others. Such questions require researchers to be reflective, querying the research material in ways that they may not otherwise consider (Richardson, 2001). This study contributes to literature on pragmatic analysis of metadiscourse in lectures of clerical Supreme Leader Ayatollah Khamenei and President Hassan Rouhani about Iran’s nuclear negotiations with world powers. The relevance theory was adapted from Halliday and Hassan’s cohesive theory (1974). This theory is constructed to theoretically explore the occurrence and the role of cohesive devices in lectures by Iranian diplomats. In order to meet the requirements of the current study, two lectures by Ayatollah Khamenei and Hassan Rouhani were selected from Reuters and was analyzed based on
Cohesion analysis has shown what principles exist that creates semantic links within text between sentence and paragraph boundaries. The data of the study was qualitatively analyzed through identifying the numbers and the types of aforementioned cohesive devices. According to the discussion of results presented hereinbefore, two cohesive types, namely reference and lexical cohesion are the major forms of cohesion used to hang sentences together in editorials analyzed. Of these ties, it was demonstrated that the occurrence of lexical cohesion in terms of frequency was slightly higher than reference cohesion. But among different types of references, it was observed that personal reference items were the most of the reference cohesions utilized in the texts. The results, as well, illustrated that the lectures are highly coherent texts as they tend to make use of all cohesive devices in hanging sentences together, albeit at varying degrees or frequencies of occurrence. In this study, only two article papers were analyzed by the use of cohesive theory. The corpus of two articles is not small considering the qualitative and quantitative nature of the study. However, the corpus does not provide sufficient findings to allow generalization about the rhetorical structures of all the news articles. One way to verify the results is to undertake investigations using larger sample sizes from various journals.

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EXPLORING IRANIAN EFL UNIVERSITY STUDENTS’ ATTITUDES TOWARD MOBILE APPLICATIONS FOR VOCABULARY LEARNING

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ABSTRACT
In the modern world, mobile phone as a new addition to information and communication technologies have provided new ways to help learners in the process of language learning. Given the importance of vocabulary, this study thus investigated the learners’ attitudes toward vocabulary learning by mobile applications. To this end, One hundred higher-intermediate university students in Sirjan, Iran, participated in this study. After administered a pretest, the next phase started. During the experiment which lasted for four weeks, the participants in the experimental group were expected to use 504 Software installed on their mobile phone to do all vocabulary learning activities. Meanwhile, the control group worked with the 504 printed Book. At the end of the experiment, they were given a vocabulary test to see the effect of mobile application on their vocabulary learning and then attitudes’ questionnaire was given to the experimental group. Then, their pre-test and post-test scores were compared using an independent t-test. Results of t-tests run revealed that the experimental group students significantly outperformed their control group in EFL vocabulary learning. Moreover, the students exhibited their positive attitudes to use mobile applications in vocabulary learning. The finding of the study underscored the vital role mobile phones play in extending learning out of the classroom anywhere anytime. Also, This study has some implications for syllabus designers to incorporate technological and mobile-based learning into the pedagogical language courses.

KEYWORDS: students’ attitude, mobile application, vocabulary learning

INTRODUCTION
Vocabulary learning is a basic component of foreign language acquisition. According to Wilkins 1972 “without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing at all can be conveyed”. Also (Laufer, 1998) stated that learners should know at least 5000 lexical items in order to understand non-technical English text. Therefore enlarging English vocabulary is of great significance in English acquisition. However, the best means of achieving good vocabulary is still unclear, partly because it depends on a wide variety of factors. EFL learners in Iran face the challenge of lacking exposure to English vocabulary since for the majority of them the English class is only time to use English. Because of the inadequate class time, students do not
have the opportunity to speak and use all of the words in class (Motallebzadeh & Ganji, 2011). In such conditions, there are some problems for language teachers and learners. The problem faced a language teacher is difficult choices about how to use this limited time to teach this large number of vocabulary. Here, there seems an urgent need to find an effective self-study approach for students to enlarge their vocabulary size outside classroom hours (Alemi & Lari, 2013).

Teachers should make them responsible for their own learning outside the classroom. Furthermore, some Iranian students are bored to learn vocabulary through papers, books, and dictionaries. One of the ways that can help teachers and learners in teaching and learning of this large number of vocabulary is using different technologies available to students (Alemi & Lari, 2013). An abundance of evidence from some researchers suggested that one of the technologies that can be used to help learners in learning a foreign language is mobile phone. This technology has brought a new type of language learning called Mobile Assisted Language Learning (Thrnton & Houser, 2005; Chinnery, 2006). With the inevitable integration of mobile technology into our lives, to justify learners’ needs in learning English vocabulary, it seems that mobile applications play an important role (Grace, 1998). Mobile learning is effective method; it can overcome restrictions of time and space, enabling learners to learn vocabulary at any time and any place. Besides, for students mobile applications offer a wide range of learning tools they can be download to their mobile devices and help language learners to manage their time of studying more efficiently. And of course, the exposure can be happened better and more frequent by mobile applications. Therefore, this study, aims to implement a complementary learning aid to solve the learners’ vocabulary learning problems. In spite of the fact that the use of mobile applications has been on the rise during the last few years, however, so far to the best knowledge of the researcher, very limited research has been undertaken to evaluate the students’ attitudes toward mobile learning. Few studies investigated “students’ personal use of mobile applications for learning and learning benefits” (Steel, 2012, p, 1).

Moreover, there is a serious lack of research on the issue of mobile applications in the Iranian language teaching and learning context (Dashtestani, 2013). In an attempt to fill in some the gaps that currently exist in the literature, the researcher aimed to examine Iranian EFL learners’ attitudes toward mobile applications for vocabulary learning, thereby the researcher tried to show some ways of implementing and integrating mobile phones into the language classroom. Many features of mobile phones, which have been mainly used in language learning, include Short Message Service (SMS), recording voice services, email services and java dictionaries. However, some applications and their role in language learning have been neglected. One such type of applications is, 504 Software. The current study is significant because it can shed more light on the students’ attitudes on effectiveness of mobile assisted language learning (MALL), in general, and mobile applications in particular on speeding up foreign language vocabulary learning.

Also, this study explores the gender differences in acceptance of mobile learning. Moreover, the findings of this study help EFL teachers, EFL learners, syllabus designers, educational managers, English institutes, colleges and other places working on the English language teaching and learning to facilitate the process of vocabulary teaching and learning through supplementing books with mobile Applications in language classrooms.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Mobile learning can be defined as the acquisition of any knowledge and skill through using mobile device, anywhere and anytime (Geddes, 2004). According to O’Malley, Sharples and Lefrer (2003), any kind of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed state and takes advantage of the learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies.

Squire and Dikkers (2012) described the following affordances of mobile phones as basic contributors to their enhanced popularity: a) Portability: such devices can be taken to different sites and move around within a location due to small size. b) Social interactivity: can exchange data and collaborate with other learners face to face. C) Context sensitivity: the data can be gathered uniquely to the current location and time including both real and simulated data. d) Connectivity: mobile devices can connect handhelds to other devices, data collection devices or a common network that creates a true-shared network. e) Individuality: activities platform that is customized to the individuals’ path of investigation. Mobile phones are effective devices for language learning, (e.g. Rosell & Aguilar, 2007; FallahKhair, 2012; Pemberton & Griffiths, 2007), have positive effect on the development of language skills (e.g., Chen & Chung, 2011) and enhance learners’ language learning attitudes and motivation (e.g., Hang & Lin, 2012). In the study conducted by Steel (2012), the researcher investigated how 134 language learners used mobile apps to profit from their available learning time outside of class. It provides insights into student perspectives on the benefits of using mobile apps for foreign language learning. Mobile technologies provide EFL learners with additional exposure to target content anytime, anywhere. Mobile devices have numerous advantages for vocabulary learning. Recently, a few studies have investigated the pedagogical use of mobile phones for vocabulary learning. The projects (Thornton & Houser, 2005; Ghorbandordinejad et al. Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010; Lu, 2008; Zhang et al.,2011) integrating text message and vocabulary learning were generally well received. Students learn more effectively when exposed to spaced-repetition of vocabulary than massed repetition.

Similar to mobile phones PDAs Which also offer features such as personalization, localization, and mobility can be used for language learning. Song and Fox (2008), for instance, investigated undergraduate students’ dictionary use of PDAs to increase their vocabulary learning in English. The results revealed that the students produced positive attitudes towards the use of mobile devices in learning. One of the most used features of mobile phones in language learning is short message service-SMS and has been used to help learners in different aspects of language learning Especially vocabulary learning.

In a study conducted in Iran, Derakhshan and Kaivanpanah (2011) provided evidence for the effectiveness of SMS on university students’ vocabulary learning. During the experiment, which lasted for seven weeks, the participants were taught fifteen to twenty words each session and were asked to work in groups to talk about the words. Then the experimental groups were told to send a sentence for each word taught in class to researcher and to three of their classmates. The participants of the control group were asked to write sentences on paper and bring it to the class. The result of the posttest showed that the experimental group had higher scores than the control group; that is they outperformed the control group in vocabulary retention. In another study
conducted in Iran, Amirian and Zare (2013) investigated the effect of Java mobile dictionaries on EFL students’ vocabulary learning. To this end, the researchers divided forty intermediate Iranian EFL learners into experimental and control group. Both groups, initially, took the pretest designed based on the vocabulary in the course book, Touchstone 3. While the experimental group received three java mobile dictionaries and installed them on their mobile phones, the control group attended conventional classes without any additional tool. Experimental group took the advantage of their mobile dictionaries throughout the course looking up the meaning of unknown words. After the treatment both groups firstly filled out questionnaire, which would elicit the learners’ attitude toward java mobile dictionaries. Then, they took the posttest. Findings showed that the experimental group students significantly outperformed their control group in EFL vocabulary learning. Moreover, participants demonstrate positive attitudes toward MALL that more technology-based tasks and activities will definitely contribute to Better vocabulary learning.

In a study, Shih-hsieh Yang (2012) investigated the attitudes and self-efficacy of using mobile learning devices for college students in a language class by employing task-based instruction. The participants of the study comprised 58 second-year students at a technical university in central Taiwan who used mobile devices for M-learning in an English class to complete assigned tasks under the guidance of the instructor. Results showed that most students agreed that their motivation for English learning was enhanced and most of them had positive attitudes towards M-learning. The results related to research on students’ attitudes toward the use of mobile devices for Language learning suggested that there is a general consensus among the majority of students over the suitability of mobile use for language learning in Asia and other parts of the world. As the literature clearly depicted, although many studies related to mobile phones use in Language learning were carried out, there are still steps to take probing areas which have not received as much attention as they observe. One of such areas is the mobile Applications in vocabulary learning. In this respect, the current study was designed to determine students’ attitudes toward the mobile applications in vocabulary learning.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
To this end, the following research questions were addressed in this study:
1. What are the attitudes of Iranian EFL university students towards the Mobile Applications for vocabulary Learning (MAELL)?
2. Do attitudes of the male and female students toward the mobile learning differ significantly?
3. Does mobile application affect the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL university students?
4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of vocabulary learning via mobile applications?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
An original population of 140 EFL students from Paiame noor University in Sirjan, Iran, voluntary were selected to participate in this study. A TOEFL test was administered to homogenize the students. Having administered a test of homogeneity, the researcher could finally
select one hundred students for the purpose of this study. The participants were divided into experimental (25 male and 25 female) and control groups (25 male and 25 female) based on their choice to work with a mobile application or a printed book for their vocabulary learning. The sample was comprised of fifty female and fifty male students, identical in number. The participants in this research, with an age range of 19 to 22, were in the higher-intermediate level based on their performance of the placement test.

**Instruments**
To fulfill the current study, the following instruments were applied:

**Placement test**
A Language proficiency test, a TOEFL test consisting of 75 questions, was administered to screen the students and homogenize them based on their level of proficiency before experiments were launched. The time limited for answering the test was 75 minutes. After administering the TOEFL test, those students who scores fell one standard deviation below and above the mean were chosen as valid sample of this study and divided into experimental and control groups.

**Questionnaire**
The design of the questionnaire came from previous research on mobile assisted language learning (e.g., Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008; Stockwell, 2007). The 30 items questionnaire consisted of two parts based on five points Likert-scale format with strongly agree; agree; neutral; disagree; and strongly disagree, was used. The time considered to complete the questionnaire was 35 minutes.

To ensure the validity of the questionnaire, content of the questionnaire was validated by a team of three experts who were EFL and educational technology university professors. The evaluation session was held and they passed their comments. On the basis of the review panel feedback the content and the layout of the questionnaire were improved. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated through Cronbach’s Alpha was 0/82, which is acceptable value.

**Pre-test and post-test**
In order to assess the participants’ level of achievement throughout the research, a vocabulary test was developed by the researcher. The participants took the test before and after the treatment as the pretest and posttest. The researcher randomly selected 8 units of 504 Book for this study. The words (N=96) were extracted from 8 units from the 504 absolutely essential words book and the students were expected to learn.

Both groups were pretested on their vocabulary knowledge prior to the study and after finishing the treatment were post tested to see the effect of mobile applications on their vocabulary learning. Due to the long interval between the pre-test and post-test, the same test was used as post-test at the end of treatment but in order to minimize the effect of memorization the order of the items were changed for the posttest. The best time to the participants based on the pilot test was determined to be twenty minutes. Before any instruction 30 vocabulary items were administered to 30 students for the purposes of the pilot study. Based on the performance of the
participants, the item analysis was performed and 10 items were omitted. The reliability of the test was calculated using Cronbach’s Alpha 0.85 after item analysis. The item facility and item discrimination indexes were 0.48 and 0.52 respectively, which are acceptable values. To determine the validity of the test, the researcher asked the supervisor and 3 experts to pass their comments on the content of the test. Therefore, some items were deleted and some items were revised.

504 Software and 504 Book
The 504 Software is a mobile application, which can be installed in diverse mobile phones. The distinguished feature of the 504 is that it is not only an application but also has some aids for vocabulary memorizing. The 504 Software provides the text and meanings of the words to assist word memorizing.

The screen was divided into three main sections. When a word is displayed on the screen, the learner can read the word by his/her self from phonetic symbol or can click the button on the right top of the screen to listen to the pronunciation of the word. In the second section, Persian explanation was given to help learners understand the word. In the third section three sentences was given to provide a context that the word can be used. The experimental group used the 504 Software, mobile version. The control group used the 504 Book.

Interview
In order to gather data about the advantages and disadvantages of mobile application for vocabulary learning fifteen interviews were conducted with randomly selected participants from the experimental group and they were recorded using the digital voice recorder. The interview was conducted with the students individually and face to face. It lasted between fifteen to twenty minutes. Each interview was recorded and transcribed. The participants’ names are not real; the researcher used pseudo names for the participants.

Procedures
In order to accomplish its goals, this study used two groups each consisting of fifty participants. Before the application, participants met with the researcher. They were given a brief introduction to the program, its objectives, and its methods. The researcher explained the instruction of the program to participants how to move from one section to another and how to use 504 Software in their smart phones. All these procedures were also conducted in the control group with the only absence of mobile application outside and inside the classroom.

Before the start of the experiment and in order to assess participant’s vocabulary knowledge, they were administered by pretest and then next stage of the study started. During the experiment which lasted for four weeks, the participants in the experimental group were expected to use 504 Software installed on their mobile phone to do all vocabulary learning activities. Meanwhile, the control group worked with the 504 Book and they were expected to use the traditional vocabulary learning techniques. Moreover, the researcher made sure that the control group participants did not have access to this application in their smart phones during the treatment phase. At the end of treatment post-test was given to both groups to see the effects of mobile application on their
vocabulary learning and then attitudes’ questionnaire was given to the experimental group. After the quantitative part of the study, qualitative data were collected using semi-structured interview questions. The interview took place in the Paiam-Noor University. The interview lasted between fifteen to twenty minutes and all audio-taped and then transcribed. It was semi-structured with the following open-ended questions:

What are the advantages of use of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?
What are disadvantages of use of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?

Data analysis
The mean and standard deviation were used to analysis of the questionnaires’ study, SPSS (version 19.0) was used to calculate the required statistical analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Two instruments that were used in this study, Vocabulary Test and Attitude Questionnaire, were piloted to estimate their reliability. The piloting results as appeared in Table 1 indicated that these two tests were piloted with 30 intermediate EFL learners who had almost the same characteristics with the final sample of this study. The reliability of attitude questionnaire, containing 30 items, was estimated .82 through Cronbach Alpha, and the reliability of vocabulary test, consisting of 20 items, was estimated .85, and which are good indicators of internal consistency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>No. of Students</th>
<th>No. of Items</th>
<th>Reliability Index</th>
<th>Reliability Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude Questionnaire</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>Cronbach Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>Cronbach Alpha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Investigation of the First Research Question
The results of One Sample Test that was performed to examine the attitudes of Iranian EFL university students towards the mobile application for vocabulary learning are set forth in Table 2 below. As can be seen in the table, the One Sample Test was significant, \( t = 4.94 \), \( p = .000 \), \( p < .05 \), in fact the \( t \) observed, 4.94 was above the \( t \) critical, 2.00, and also the \( p \) value was below the selected significant level for this study, .05, with 95% Confidence Interval ranging from .349 to .828; accordingly it was concluded that the EFL university students in the target group showed positive attitude towards the mobile application for vocabulary learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Value = 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.946</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Investigation of the second Research Question

Table 3: Independent Samples Test to Compare Male and Female Students' Attitude Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>1.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Diff.</td>
<td>.250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>1.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>43.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Diff.</td>
<td>.250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Independent Samples Test results as shown in Table 3 showed that there was no statistically significant difference in attitude scores between the two female and male groups, $t_{(43.72)} = 1.053$, $p = .29$, $p > .05$, in which the $t$ value, 1.053 was below the $t$ critical, 2.02, and the $p$ value, .29 was more than the selected significant level for this study, .05; in consequence, the second null hypothesis as “Attitudes of the male and female students towards the mobile learning do not differ significantly” was retained.

Investigation of the third Research Question

The third research question of this study inquired if mobile application affects the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL university students. Independent Sample Test was carried out to answer this research question. The table indicates that the mean and standard deviation of the two target ($M = 7.54, SD = 3.54$) and control ($M = 7.36, SD = 3.86$) groups are not far from each other on pre-test of vocabulary. But the results revealed that the students in the target group ($M = 14.84, SD = 3.19$) surpassed those in the control group ($M = 13.02, SD = 3.06$) on post-test of vocabulary.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of Two Group's Scores on the Pre-test and Post-test of Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Target</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Target</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14.84</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>13.02</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Independent Samples Test to Compare Two Groups’ Scores on the Pre-test of Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>.242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Diff.</td>
<td>.180</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Independent Samples Test results as appeared in Table 5 showed that there was no statistically significant difference in means between the two groups on the pre-test of vocabulary, $t_{(98)} = .24$, .137
Additionally, the researcher performed another analysis of Independent Samples Test to compare two groups’ vocabulary scores on the post-test of vocabulary, and the related results are laid out in Table 6. The table shows that the Sig., .64 in Levene's Test was larger than .05 and therefore the assumption of equal variances was met.

Table 6: Independent Samples Test to Compare Two Groups’ Scores on the Post-test of Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>2.911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Diff.</td>
<td>1.820</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 manifests that Independent Samples Test detected a statistically significant difference in vocabulary scores between the two target and control groups, \( t_{(58)} = 2.91, p = .004, p < .05 \), in which the \( t \)-value, 2.91 exceeded the \( t \)-critical, 2.00, and the \( p \)-value, .004 was lower than the selected significant level for this study, .05; as a result, the second null hypothesis as “Mobile application does not affect the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL university students” was rejected. So it can be claimed that application of mobile influences.

Data from the interview
The data was gathered from fifteen participants then reported and interpreted in the following way:

The first question: what are the advantages of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?
The results of interview showed that the majority of participants believed that learning vocabulary through mobile applications is convenient and efficient. It encourages them to make full use of fragmented time. Also, they can learn at anytime and anywhere. It seemed that the convenience of mobile phones was provided to be one major affordances of the use of mobile applications for vocabulary learning.

Marjan
Sometimes, when travelling in the bus or subway, I can read the vocabulary in my phone and to remember them. In a word, it can help me to make use of leisure time to learn vocabulary.”

The results also showed that some of interviewees thought that portability is another advantage of mobile applications for vocabulary learning. They referred to the fact that mobile phones are light and small and they require little space to be kept and easy to be carried that increased their access to their applications.
Negar

“Mobile phones are small and can be carried very easily just unlike heavy books and dictionaries. So, I can benefit from this advantage of mobile phones to vocabulary learning.”

In addition, the results showed that the majority of the participants believed that the possibility of connectivity to the Internet is one of affordance of the use of mobile phones. In fact the Internet can facilitate the process of language learning. The use of Internet will improve interaction, communication and problem solving.

Mahbobe

“When EFL learners use mobile phones for vocabulary learning, they have access to thousands of online EFL resources and this Internet is facilitative and very useful for learners’ learning.”

The second question: what are the disadvantages of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?

The findings showed that the majority of the participants believed that physical aspects of mobile phones may prevent an optimal learning and experience and some limitations. These limitations include: small screen size, limited battery life and limited memory size. For instance:

Danial

“Mobile devices have limited storage capabilities so, if you have large or many files your device may not be able to storage everything

Discussion

Regarding to the first research question, the results showed that experimental group showed positive attitudes toward Vocabulary learning using mobile applications. The findings might suggest that Iranian EFL students are aware of possible benefits and affordance of mobile implementation for vocabulary learning. Also, it seemed that participants found learning English vocabulary on mobile phones effective and entertaining. As Chang and Hsu (2011) argued students’ attitude toward the use of mobile phones would play a pivotal role in determining the efficacy of this technology for education purposes.

The findings of this study are in line with Song and Fox (2008) who found out students produced positive attitudes toward the use of mobile devices in learning. Regarding to the second research question, based on the results of the questionnaire there was no significant differences in students’ attitudes between male and female students. Therefore, it can be concluded that gender was not a fundamental factor which influenced attitudes toward mobile learning. The results are compatible with the Shih-hsien Yang (2012) who demonstrated that there were no major differences in students’ attitudes between male and female students. Regarding to the third research question, the results showed that students of experimental group out-performed control group in terms of vocabulary acquisition and there was a difference between the two groups. It appeared that this may be due to the students’ easy access to the mobile devices which results in their repeated exposure to and frequent practice of the vocabulary. The findings are supported by
the study conducted by Zare and Amirian (2013) which revealed that the experimental group students significantly outperformed their control group counterparts in EFL vocabulary learning. Regarding to the fourth research question, the findings revealed that learning vocabulary through mobile applications is convenient and efficient. Also, they can be easily accessed everywhere and anytime. It appeared that due to the convenience facilitated by the portability and accessibility of the mobile phones, students use them as an English Vocabulary learning device in their leisure time. Therefore, in line with the points suggested at the literature section by Klopfer et al (2002) like portability, accessibility and ubiquity. The findings are supported by the study conducted by Steel (2012) which showed that Students appreciated the flexibility and convenience of using their apps to meet their personal learning needs at times and in places that suited their lifestyles.

CONCLUSION
This paper was generally an attempt to assess the students’ attitudes toward using mobile phones for promoting students’ vocabulary learning. It can be concluded that using mobile applications has affected the students’ performance in experimental group. Therefore, the method used in this study can be more effective in English vocabulary learning. As the findings of this study demonstrated, mobile applications could be an effective pedagogical tool for self- learning English vocabulary. Thus, these results highlight the importance of MALL and its features as an attractive path through which success of learning process can be enhanced. Besides, in this study students have shown their desire to use mobile applications for language learning due to convenience facilitated by the portability and accessibility of the mobile phones.

Their positive attitudes toward mobile applications showed that more technology based activities will contribute to better language learning. Therefore, the success of mobile learning depends largely on whether mobile technologies are accepted by students. Also, according to the interview, all participants expressed that they liked the experiences of using their own mobile phones to learn vocabulary and enjoyed very much the convenience and flexibility that mobile phones bring to them for vocabulary building.

The findings can be useful for language teachers, administrators and language institutes. It informs them in making decision about a readily available tool to help improving students’ vocabulary knowledge. Teachers can change their methods and move toward learner oriented methods. Students also have more opportunity to improve their vocabulary rather than only using mobile devices for ever -day life.

Although being successful in confirming the effect of mobile applications on vocabulary learning, this study faced a number of limitations that could not be avoided. First of all, the study lasted for four weeks, which was not an enough time to measure all aspects of students’ knowledge of language vocabulary.

Second, the population of the research was small. It was not appropriate to generalize the researches’ results to other groups. Only 100 students might not sufficiently represent the majority of students at this level. Also, a more comprehensive questionnaire could be designed to
assess more precisely the learners’ attitudes toward the mobile applications for vocabulary learning.

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Kukulska-Hulme, A., & Shield, L. (2008). An overview of mobile assisted language learning: From content delivery to supported collaboration and interaction. ReCALL, 20(03), 271–289.


ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to compare frequency, forms and functions of hedging devices in news stories selected from native English, non-native English and Persian newspapers. The news stories were selected from four sections: arts & culture, business & economy, politics, and sports. The analysis was based on corpora of 300 news stories; 100 from native English newspapers (The New York Times and Washington post), 100 from non-native English newspapers (Tehran Times and Iran daily), and 100 from Persian newspapers (Jaamejaam and Iran). After identifying and categorizing the frequency and forms of hedges based on Yuryevna’s (2012) taxonomy and also determining the functions of identified hedges based on an adapted taxonomy of Yu’s (2009) classification of hedging strategies and Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model, chi-square tests were utilized to clarify the probable differences. As the results of this study showed, regardless of epistemic nouns, implicit pragmatic markers, and reader-oriented hedges that were not employed in the news stories, there is a statistically significant difference between the native, non-native English and Persian news stories in terms of the frequency, forms (except epistemic adverbs) and functions of identified hedging devices. The findings have implications for ESP students and instructors, material developers, and also Persian and nonnative English journalists. In other words, this study may to some degree familiarize ESP students and also Persian and nonnative English journalists attempting to publish their news articles in international journals and English newspapers with the selection of acceptable language to have their voice. The findings of the present are also expected to be beneficial for ESP instructors in instructing their learners and increasing their understanding regarding the importance of the hedging phenomenon in news stories. Furthermore, the findings have also implications for material developers to design some authentic materials which reflect the natural frequency, forms and functions of hedges.

KEYWORDS: News Stories; Form; Function; Hedging
INTRODUCTION
The ability to write English texts correctly and professionally has a significant role in all fields because it helps one to communicate more effectively and be fully accepted as a member and participant in his/her particular or international community. Hedging can be considered as an important characteristic of professional writing (Noorian & Biria, 2010, 72). The growing interest in hedges is apparent in the majority of articles and researches mainly dealt with hedging in academic/scientific discourse. According to Hyland (1998), hedging is “an inherent aspect of language use” (p. 261). Although the literature gives special attention to the significance of hedging, we know little about its use, distribution, frequency of forms and functions in different genres. Despite its noticeable role in news genre, there have not been many studies that attempted to shed light on hedging in the news stories. It is commonly acknowledged that the language used in the news reports is required to be accurate, brief, and objective. However, these requirements do not deny the existence of hedges in news reports (Yuryeva, 2012, p. 3). Furthermore, mistakes in the employment of hedges can make indeterminacy, ambiguity, misunderstanding and uncertainty. Lack of awareness of the hedge structures and forms can cause serious problems for those who attempt to write, translate and read English journalistic texts. Thus, comparative analyses of hedging devices in news genre present better understanding and realization regarding hedging devices. The purpose of this study was to shed more light on comparing the frequency, forms and functions of linguistic devices which act as hedges in the news stories selected from four sections (arts & culture, business & economy, politics, and sports) of native English newspapers written by American news story journalists as native speakers of English, non-native English newspapers written by Iranian news story journalists who write in English as nonnative speakers of English, and Persian newspapers written by Iranian news story journalists who write in Persian as native speakers of Persian (that is, between two languages - English and Persian).

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE
Definition of Hedges
Although the terms hedge and hedging have been part of the linguistic vocabulary for some thirty years now, no unified description of the concepts is to be found in literature (varttala, 2001, p.4). As Hyland (1998) mentions straightforward definitions of the hedging and hedge concepts are rather scarce and the available characterizations soon show that the terms are applied in various directions by authors. In spite of efforts to bring order into the large number of definitions (e.g. Crompton 1997), it seems that investigators follow to approach the notions of hedge and hedging in a diversity of ways. As a result, there is still little agreement and clearness as to what regards as a hedge and no usual explanation exists about hedge and hedging in the literature. In various researchers hedges are determined differently, that shows the difficulty of specifying what precisely the hedge is. The notion of hedge dates back to the work of Lakoff. Lakoff (1972) employed the term hedge as “words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy” (p. 471). According to Poveda Cabanes (2007), “This definition became the starting point for several studies on this phenomenon, which was demonstrated to have multiple facets and therefore has been approached in many different ways by each author” (p. 140). Zuck and Zuck (1986) defined hedges as "the process whereby the author reduces the strength of what he is writing" in case the reported news turn out not to be true (p. 172). Falahaty (2004) denoted that “they try to extend
the scope of hedging in a way that it draws on pragmatic uses of the term in language” (p. 12). Brown and Levinson (1987), suggested hedges as “a particle, word or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or a noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is partial or true only in certain respects, or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected” (p. 145). Skelton (1997) defined that “the term “hedge” is best used, when narrowly, only for mitigations of responsibility and/or certainty to the truth value of a proposition” (p. 45). According to other definition, that was suggested by Crompton (1997) hedges can be defined as “items of language which a speaker uses to explicitly qualify his/her lack of commitment to the truth of a proposition he/she utters” (p. 281). According to Carter and McCarthy(1997), hedges are defined as means that “allow speakers to personalize or otherwise soften the force of what they say, all in different ways, either because they have no wish to sound definite and authoritative, or because they believe the speaker not to be fully acquainted with their propositions or, very simply, because they do not know or are searching for the right word or expression” (p. 16). Hyland (1998) defined hedges as “linguistic means used to indicate either a) lack of complete commitment to the truth of the proposition, and b) a desire not to express the commitment categorically” (p. 1). This definition is the basis of our study, because according to Yuryevna (2012), “the overview of the related literature showed that the most commonly adopted definition of hedge is that proposed by Hyland” (p. 15). Hyland (1998) defines hedges as "the means by which writers can present a proposition as an opinion rather than a fact: items are only hedges in their epistemic sense, and only when they mark uncertainty" (p. 5).

Types of Hedges
Markkanen and Schroder (1997) have noted that “there is no limit to the linguistic expressions that can be considered as hedges” and “almost any linguistic item or expression can be interpreted as hedge” (p. 6). Due to the fact that hedging is primarily viewed as a pragmatic phenomenon, there is also little agreement among linguists about what linguistic devices should and should not be considered as hedges (Martin-Martin, 2008, p.136). Clemen (1997) asserted that “taking into account that hedging typically depends on context and situation and is not determined by individual lexical units and phrases, it does not seem possible to establish “list of hedges” (p. 236). Therefore, this can be regarded as the reason of lacking a complete explanation of hedging devices in reference works. Although establishing hedging devices taxonomy is difficult and there is a little certainty on the notion of hedge, a number of investigators attempted to propose more or less general list of linguistic devices which are more likely to act as hedges.

Crompton (1997) regarding Skelton (1988), Myers (1989), Salager-Meyer (1994) and Hyland’s works (1994) attempted to prepare an overview of the forms commonly took into account to be hedges, that contain copulas other than be, lexical verbs, modal verbs, probability adverbs and probability adjectives. The extent of what is regarded to be a hedge differs significantly. Moreover, as Yuryevna (2012) mentioned in her study, hedging has also been supposed to appear in, for example, lexis stating personal involvement, emotionally charged intensifiers, approximators (Salager-Meyer, 1994), agentless constructions, parenthetical expressions (Namsaraev, 1997), personal attribution, hypotheticals, direct questions (Hyland, 1998), pragmatic markers (Yu, 2009), concessive conjuncts, conditional subordinators, metalinguistic comments (Fraser, 2010). Yu
(2009) described hedges and their linguistic realization clearly. As concerns the complex analysis of semantic, grammatical and pragmatic characteristics of hedges, he asserted that “it can be predicted that certain linguistic areas are more likely to be the source of hedges than others” (p. 77). He presented hedges in six categories and they are modal auxiliaries, approximators, epistemic verbs, epistemic adverbs, adjectives and nouns as categories that are more presumably to be hedge candidates, “because all of them possess a meaning of ‘modifiability’” (Yu, 2009, p. 77).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The major issues that were addressed in the present study included the following research questions:
1. Is there any significant difference between native, nonnative English and Persian news stories in terms of the frequency of identified hedging devices?
2. Is there any significant difference between native, nonnative English and Persian news stories in terms of the forms of identified hedging devices?
3. Is there any significant difference between native, nonnative English and Persian news stories in terms of the functions of identified hedging devices?

METHODOLOGY
Corpora of the Study
The corpora of this study were based on a set of English and Persian data composed of 300 news stories; 100 native English news stories (comprising a total of 44,277) written by American news story journalists, 100 nonnative English news stories (containing 39,861) written by Iranian news story journalists who write in English, and 100 Persian news stories (comprising 39,856) written by Iranian news story journalists who write in Persian. 11 native English news stories were excluded in order to balance the total number of words for all three corpora. Therefore, the total numbers of words in the native English news stories decreased from 44,277 to 39,855 words. The news stories were chosen from six elite newspapers in Iran (Tehran Times, Iran daily, Jaamejaam and Iran) and United States of America (The New York Times and Washington post). These newspapers have major readers and include different sections. The news stories were selected randomly from each newspaper and found in the following four sections dealing with: arts & culture, business & economy, politics and sports. The researchers did their best to select the news stories from the four different sections to increase the external validity of the results. The corpora of the study were restricted to a short period of time because writers’ styles may change through longer period of time. Table 1 presented below show general information about the corpora.
Table 1: General Information about the Corpora

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section Corpus</th>
<th>Arts &amp; Culture</th>
<th>Business &amp; Economy</th>
<th>Politics</th>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>No. of NS</th>
<th>No. of words</th>
<th>Publication Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NENS</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>39855</td>
<td>August, September &amp; October 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NNENS</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>39861</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNS</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>39856</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Native English News Stories (NENS), Non-Native English News Stories (NNENS), Persian News Stories (PNS)

**Instrumnetion**

Although establishing a comprehensive taxonomy of hedging devices is difficult, different classifications of hedges that are more or less exhaustive have been introduced in the literature.

Based on these different classifications, Yuryevna’s (2012) compiled taxonomy of hedging devices was applied in the research paper in order to compare and analyze probable differences between the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories regarding the frequency and forms of hedging devices (see appendix A). As for analyzing hedging functions, it was decided to employ the adapted classification which is based on the combination of Yu’s (2009) classification of hedging strategies and Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model (see appendix B). The researchers who are familiar with hedge analysis suggested Persian equivalents for the taxonomy and theoretical model in order to examine hedges in the Persian news stories.

**Procedure**

After selecting the news stories from the leading newspapers, they were read word by word and carefully to determine the frequency and forms of hedging devices based on the Yuryevna’s (2012) taxonomy. All hedges were written down and counted. All the forms of hedges were located in their proper categories based on the taxonomy. Afterwards, the frequency of each category of hedging forms and also overall frequency were recorded in the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories separately.

In order to become certain regarding the reliability of the results, the corpora were double-checked by the researchers who are familiar with hedge analysis and all cases were considered in text to become sure they are hedging devices. According to Tahririan and Shahzamani (2009) “needless to say that due to the tentative, indeterminate and complex nature of the hedging phenomenon, no study can claims to be absolutely valid and reliable and provide objective interpretations with respect to the analysis of hedging” (p. 204). After determining the frequency and forms of hedging devices, chi-square tests were employed to show whether there is a statistically significant difference between all three corpora in terms of the frequency and also forms of identified hedges. Then, functions of all identified hedging forms were also determined in the native, non-native English and Persian news stories separately based on the adapted classification that combined two models, namely Yu’s (2009) classification of hedging strategies and Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model. Finally, chi-square tests were used to indicate whether
or not there is a statistically significant difference between all three corpora in terms of the functions of identified hedging devices.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Comparison of Frequency of Hedging Devices in Native, Nonnative English and Persian News Stories

The frequency of hedges was counted separately for all three corpora (Table 2). As can be seen in Table 2, the hedging devices were classified into ten categories.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>F¹</th>
<th>F²</th>
<th>F³</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal verbs</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adverbs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adjectives</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic nouns</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic lexical verbs</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximators</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impersonal passives</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive constructions</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution to the source</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit pragmatic markers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. F¹ - Raw Frequency in the Native English News Stories, F² - Raw Frequency in the Nonnative English News Stories, F³ - Raw Frequency in the Persian News Stories

According to the Table, the native English news stories with total of 416 items employed a higher number of hedges than the nonnative English and Persian ones which had 234 and 139 hedging items in total, respectively. To examine the differences between all three corpora in the frequency of utilized hedging devices, chi-square test was used. Table 3 presents the summary of the results of this chi-square.

Chi-square Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>X²</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150.66</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Level of Significance at 0.01**  *Level of Significance at 0.05*
As shown in the Table, the value of observed chi-square ($x^2=150.66$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.001$) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) indicating that there is a significant difference between all three corpora in the frequency of employed hedges. Therefore, the native English news stories present a higher number of hedging devices than the nonnative English and Persian ones, respectively. It shows that the native English news story journalists tend to show their lack of complete commitment, tentativeness, uncertainty and doubt towards the proposition more than the nonnative English, followed by the Persian news story journalists. Results were examined in more details for each category of hedging forms in the following section.

**Comparison of Hedging Forms in Native, Nonnative English and Persian News Stories**

The findings of the present study for each category of hedging forms were supported by the chi-square tests in Table 4 in order to see whether or not native, nonnative English and Persian news stories are different in the distribution of each category.

**Table 4: Results of Chi-square Tests for the Frequency of each Category of Hedging Forms in the Native, Nonnative English and Persian News Stories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal verbs</td>
<td>39.72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adverbs</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adjectives</td>
<td>20.82</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic nouns</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic lexical verbs</td>
<td>16.89</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximators</td>
<td>36.03</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impersonal passives</td>
<td>11.69</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.003**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive constructions</td>
<td>37.30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution to the source</td>
<td>10.64</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.005**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit pragmatic markers</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Level of Significance at 0.01  **Level of Significance at 0.05

It can be noticed that according to the Table 4 presented above, the results showed that the value of observed chi-square ($x^2=39.72$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.001$) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) indicating that there is a significant difference between all three corpora in the use of modal auxiliary verbs. Therefore, the native English news stories favor more number of this category of hedging forms than the nonnative English, followed by the Persian ones. It implies that the native English news story journalists tend to express prediction, possibility and tentative assumption by employing modal auxiliary verbs to a greater extent than the nonnative English and Persian news story journalists, respectively.
As seen in Table 4, the chi-square results revealed that there is no significant difference between all three corpora in the use of epistemic adverbs. It means that the news stories are not different from each other in the use of this kind of hedging forms. It shows that the native, nonnative English and Persian news story journalists show a certain degree of ambiguity to the information they convey and also indicate a not clearly understood representation of reality almost equally.

As shown in Table 4, the results revealed that the value of observed chi square ($x^2=20.82$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.001$) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) showing that there is a significant difference between all three corpora in the use of epistemic adjectives. Therefore, epistemic adjectives are more frequent in the native English news stories than the nonnative English, followed by the Persian ones. It implies that the native English news story journalists show uncertainty, lack of exactness to the information and also present tentative statements more frequently than the nonnative English and Persian news story journalists, respectively.

As the findings of the present study showed, epistemic nouns weren’t present and available in the news stories. It shows that the journalists don’t employ this category of hedging forms that convey uncertain and indefinite meaning in their news stories. The reason for the absence of epistemic nouns in this study can be related to the functions of news stories. The main function of news stories is to objectively inform the readers, to provide them with hard facts (Buitkiene, 2008, p. 12). According to Table 4, the value of observed chi-square ($x^2=16.89$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.001$) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) showing that there is a significant difference between the news stories of native, nonnative English and Persian newspapers in the use of lexical verbs with epistemic meaning. Therefore, the native English news stories favor more number of this kind of hedges than the nonnative English, followed by the Persian ones. Based on this, it shows that the native English news story journalists tend to hedge their commitments, and code the subjectivity of the epistemic source and also establish non-factual status of a proposition by means of various types of epistemic lexical verbs more than the nonnative English and Persian news story journalists, respectively.

To summarize the results regarding approximators of quantity, frequency and degree, it can be said that as Table 4 presented, the value of observed chi-square ($x^2=36.03$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.001$) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) demonstrating that there is a significant difference between all three corpora in the use of approximators as one category of hedging forms. On a general level, the native English news stories employ a higher number of approximators than the non-native English news stories, followed by the Persian ones. It implies that the native English news story journalists work locally on the meaning of a phrase or a word within the proposition in order to seem inaccurate, uncertain, unclear and fuzzy by using this category of hedging forms to a greater extent than the nonnative English and Persian ones, respectively.

As seen earlier in Table 4, the results showed that the value of observed chi-square ($x^2=11.69$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.003$) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) indicating that there is a difference between the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories in the use of impersonal passive constructions. Therefore, it indicates that impersonal passive constructions are more frequent in the nonnative English news stories than the native English, followed by the Persian ones. As
shown in the Table 4, the results indicated that the value of observed chi-square ($\chi^2=37.30$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.001$) with degrees of freedom of 2 ($df=2$) showing that there is a significant difference between all three corpora in the use of agentless passive constructions. The native English news stories present a higher number of agentless passive constructions than the Persian and nonnative English ones, respectively. It shows that the native English news story journalists tend to prevent accepting responsibility for what they are asserting about in order to exhibit the news stories as objectively as possible by means of employing passive constructions to a greater extent than the Persian and nonnative English news story journalists, respectively.

It can be noticed that according to the Table 4, the results showed that the value of observed chi-square ($\chi^2=10.64$) is significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.005$) with degrees of freedom of 2 ($df=2$) indicating that there is a significant difference between the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories in the use of attribution to the source. Therefore, the native English news stories favor more number of this category of hedging forms than the nonnative English, followed by the Persian ones. It implies that the native English news story journalists tend to prevent misunderstanding of the issues, facts or realities and support themselves from the probability being negatively judged by the readers more frequently than the nonnative English and Persian news story journalists, respectively. The implicit pragmatic markers include some devices such as hypothetical conditionals, direct questions, parenthetical constructions, etc. As the findings of this study indicated, implicit pragmatic markers weren’t employed in the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories. According to Yu (2009), “pragmatic markers with interpersonal and interactive functions may bring a sense of cooperation, sharing, intimacy or solidarity between the interlocutors, expressed by humble and modest attitude, in a reduced or weakened tone” (p. 98). Therefore, the reason for the absence of implicit pragmatic markers with epistemic meaning as hedging devices in the present study can also be related to the nature of news stories. News stories are used in news genre to inform the readers as objectively as possible and provide them with hard information, facts and evidences.

Comparison of Hedging Functions in Native, Nonnative English and Persian News Stories
The frequency of hedging functions was counted separately for the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories (Table 5). As can be seen in Table 5, the hedging functions were divided into three main categories.

Table 5: Frequency of each Category of Hedging Functions in the Native, Nonnative English and Persian News Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Hedge</th>
<th>NENS $F^1$</th>
<th>NNENS $F^2$</th>
<th>PNS $F^3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writer-oriented</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy-oriented</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reader-oriented</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key to Table: Native English News Stories (NENS), Non-Native English News Stories (NNENS), Persian News Stories (PNS), $F^1$ - Raw Frequency in NENS, $F^2$ - Raw Frequency in NNENS, $F^3$ - Raw Frequency in PNS
To examine the differences between all three corpora in the frequency of each category of hedging functions, chi-square tests were run. The results of the analyses for each category were described in turn in Table 6 presented below.

### Table 6: Results of Chi-square Tests for the Frequency of each Category of Hedging Functions in the Native, Nonnative English and Persian News Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>(X^2)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writer-oriented hedges</td>
<td>114.78</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy-oriented hedges</td>
<td>36.03</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Level of Significance at 0.01  **Level of Significance at 0.05

As shown in the Table 6, the results indicated that the value of observed chi-square (\(x^2=114.78\)) is significant at \(\alpha\) level (\(\alpha=0.001\)) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) indicating that there is a significant difference between the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories in the use of writer-oriented hedges. Therefore, the native English news stories present a higher number of this category of hedging functions than the nonnative English and Persian ones, respectively. It implies that the native English news story journalists tend to keep some distance from statements in order to decrease the possibility of refutation and support themselves against any possible results of error by reducing their personal commitment to a greater extent than the nonnative English, followed by the Persian ones.

To summarize the results regarding accuracy-oriented hedges, it can be said that as Table 6 showed, the value of observed chi-square (\(x^2=36.03\)) is significant at \(\alpha\) level (\(\alpha=0.001\)) with degrees of freedom of 2 (df=2) demonstrating that there is a significant difference between all three corpora in the use of this category. On a general level, the native English news stories favor more number of this category of hedging functions than the nonnative English, followed by the Persian ones. Based on this, it shows that the native English news story journalists tend to present information with greater objectivity, accuracy and exactness according to realities than the nonnative English and Persian news story journalists, respectively.

According to the findings, reader-oriented hedges weren’t present in all three corpora. As Falahaty (2004) mentioned, this category of hedging functions “makes the readers involved in a dialog and addresses them as a thoughtful individual to respond and judge the truth value of the proposition” (p. 38). The reason for the absence of reader-oriented hedges in the present study can be related to the function of news stories. Journalists use news stories in order to present information, realities and truths to the readers as objectively as possible.

**Discussion**

As the findings of the present study showed, regardless of epistemic nouns and implicit pragmatic markers as two categories of the hedging forms and also reader-oriented hedges as one category of the hedging functions that were not present in the news stories, there is a statistically
significant difference between all three corpora in terms of the frequency, forms (except epistemic adverbs) and functions of identified hedging devices. As the results showed, there is not any significant difference between the native, nonnative English and Persian news stories in the use of epistemic adverbs as one category of the hedging forms. The findings of the present study seemed to confirm Yuryevna’s (2012) findings that showed epistemic nouns, implicit pragmatic markers and reader-oriented hedges aren’t present in the news stories. In addition, the findings also supported the results of Buitkiene’s (2008) research which showed that news articles utilize different types of passive constructions in order to present information as objectively as possible and “to avoid taking responsibility for what they are claiming about” (p.14).

The findings of this study indicated that there are differences in the understandings of members of different cultures about applying appropriate discourses for stating their purposes. Differences in cultural background can give an explanation for the variation of such linguistic features. Culturally defined frameworks and paradigms may affect journalists’ choices. Furthermore, Dahl (2004) claims that national culture is the main reason for variations in texts across languages and can influence the written discourse conventions. Therefore, in the present study, culture can be regarded as a reason for differences between all three corpora in terms of the frequency, forms and functions of identified hedging devices. Moreover, content of the sections and their argumentations can lead to some differences. According to this view, some sections favor more hedging devices and employ different forms and functions of hedges in comparison to other sections. This means that some sections like political section in the Persian newspapers may include some materials that are not the norms and convention of other sections. Therefore, content of the sections and their argumentations can be regarded as other reasons for the observed differences.

CONCLUSION
The purpose of this study was to compare the frequency, forms and functions of hedging devices in the news stories selected from the native, non-native English and Persian newspapers. The news stories were selected from four sections: arts & culture, business & economy, politics, and sports. As the results of this study showed, regardless of epistemic nouns, implicit pragmatic markers, and reader-oriented hedges that were not employed in the news stories, there is a statistically significant difference between all three corpora in terms of the frequency, forms (except epistemic adverbs) and functions of identified hedging devices. This study includes some limitations. First, there is still little agreement and clearness as to what regards as a hedge. In other words, no usual explanation exists about hedge and hedging in the literature. Second, Yuryevna’s(2012) taxonomy of hedging devices and adapted classification which is based on the combination of Yu’s (2009) classification of hedging strategies and Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model were used in this research paper. Although these are by no means comprehensive, the main reason for selecting them is due to their most common examples found across the literature. There are a number of delimitations in the present study that should be taken into consideration. First, the size of given corpora is small (300 news stories). This can cause a problem for extending the research results to other contexts. Second, access to the printed form of the New York Times and Washington post was really difficult in Iran, so online editions of the
news stories were used in this study. Future researches are needed to employ different theoretical models of hedging in order to investigate their applicability to this special discourse. By conducting such researches, we would probably get wider insights on the presence of hedging phenomenon in news genre. It is also suggested that future researches concentrate on other genres of news. The findings have implications for ESP students and instructors, material developers, and also Persian and nonnative English journalists. In other words, this study may to some degree familiarize ESP students and also Persian and nonnative English journalists attempting to publish their news articles in international journals and English newspapers with the selection of acceptable language to have their voice and convey the latest news and events in order to inform English readers in all around the world as precisely, clearly and fully expressed as possible. Moreover, the findings of the present are expected to be beneficial for ESP instructors in instructing their learners and increasing and enriching their understanding and comprehension regarding the importance and usage of the hedging phenomenon in one specific genre of news writing, namely news stories. Furthermore, the findings have also implications for material developers to design some authentic materials which reflect the natural frequency, forms and functions of hedges.

REFERENCES


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Appendix A
Taxonomy of Hedging Devices (Yuryevna, 2012, p. 97)

Common Lexical Items Expressing Hedging
1. Modal Verbs
Can, could, may, might, should, would

2. Epistemic Lexical Verbs
Seem, appear, believe, think, guess, suggest, suppose, propose, predict, assume, speculate, suspect, attempt, seek

3. Epistemic Adverbs
Probably, perhaps, maybe, possibly, apparently

4. Epistemic Adjectives
Likely, unlikely, possible, probable

5. Epistemic Nouns
Possibility, probability, chance

6. Approximators
Some, about, nearly, almost, quite, somewhat, kind of, sort of, somehow, to some extent, approximately, around

Syntactic Items Expressing Hedging
1. Impersonal Passive Constructions
It is believed/assumed/said that...; X is believed/though/supposed to...

2. Agentless Passive Constructions (Passive Construction without By-Agent)

3. Attribution to the Source
According to X,...; As x stated,...

4. Parenthetical Constructions Expressing Personal Reference and Attribution
I believe, I think, as far as I know, in my/our opinion

5. Direct Questions

6. Hypothetical Conditionals
Appendix B

Hedging Functions

Accuracy-oriented  Writer-oriented  Reader-oriented

- **Modal Auxiliary Verbs** (E.g. Would, can, could, may, might, should)
- **Epistemic Adverbs** (E.g. Probably, perhaps, maybe, possibly, apparently)
- **Epistemic Adjectives** (E.g. Likely, unlikely, possible, probable)
- **Epistemic Nouns** (E.g. Possibility, probability, chance)
- **Epistemic Lexical Verbs**
  (E.g. Seem, appear, believe, think, guess, suggest, suppose, propose, predict, assume, speculate, suspect, attempt, seek)
- **Impersonal Passive Constructions** (E.g. It is said / believed / assumed that ....; X is believed / though / supposed to ....)
- **Agentless Passive Constructions (Without By-Agent)**
- **Attribution to the Source**

- **Approximators of Quantity, Frequency, and Degree:**
  E.g. some, about, nearly, approximately, almost, quite, somewhat, kind of, sort of, to some extent, somehow, etc.

- **Implicit Pragmatic Markers (Personal Reference and Attribution)**
  I believe, I think, in our opinion, as far as I know, generally speaking

- **Direct Questions**
- **Hypothetical Conditionals**
ACTION RESEARCH TO HONE ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS OF ENGINEERING STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Given to the context of globalization, and the importance of learning English for academic and professional lineage, the Technical English syllabus of Dr. M.G.R. Educational and Research Institute University has the objective of developing the oral communication skills of students in English. So an action research was designed to hone the oral communication skills of first year engineering students. As part of the program, a pilot study was conducted on the first year engineering students. It was a small scale survey study; it made use of a customized questionnaire to investigate the participants’ personal factors such as age, mother tongue, nativity, and parental support that usually influence second language learning at the early stages and academic details like, medium of instruction and method of English learning in schools, the level of learners’ English proficiency and the reason for the lack of it, in the learners’ own view. Then the details were inferred to find the influence of socio environmental and socio political factors on English as second language learning in the Indian context. The descriptive survey method was adopted to scrutinize the responses and explain them. Lack of parental and societal support and probably the conventional methods of teaching English in schools might be the reasons for the students’ lack of English fluency; reflecting on the observations, it was decided that the next action was to administer a diagnostic test to decide upon the learners’ language skills to cope with the present venture and remedial measures for the deficiencies. The study was not final and conclusive; it has shown only the tip of the iceberg.

KEYWORDS: Globalization, action research, oral communication, pilot study, small scale survey study, questionnaire, descriptive survey method
INTRODUCTION

It is known that language is primarily speech. Spoken English enables us to express our views, ideas and our needs with others for obtaining information and for solving many problems. Today we live in a world that is highly developed technically and scientifically, that we need to keep pace with new innovations and developments happening around the world. The world communities are tied up with each other in one way or the other for the purpose of education, employment and business. The matrix of interdependence is so strong and fascinating that communication in English is the dire need of the hour. It is evident that all those pass the engineering courses cannot be employed within India because of the mismatch between the industries and the number of engineering candidates seeking for employment. Hence, obvious choice could be employment in the developed countries which look for skilled professionals who could manage the multilingual employees in different industries. Without adequate English proficiency they cannot hope to comprehend the subjects which are taught in English and aspire for a global career. A recent survey suggests at least 50% of the engineering graduates fail to fit into the category of employable candidates because of their inability to communicate fluently in English. The interviewers expect the candidates to be fluent if not accurate.

Globalization has transformed English into a language of opportunity. Given to the context of globalization, and the importance of learning English for academic and professional lineage, the Technical English syllabus of Dr. M.G.R. Educational and Research Institute University has the objective of developing the oral communication skills of students in English. To realise this objective, an action research was planned. Any teaching learning process must include, “planning (including needs analysis, goal and objective setting), implementation (including methods and materials development) and evaluation” (Nunan, D.1991, p.3). As part of the program, a small scale pilot study was conducted to find the factors, which could have influenced first year engineering students’ learning of English in schools. The course of the action research and the findings of the study are deliberated in this paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the field of education, action research is about teachers identifying and posing problems as well as addressing issues and concerns related to the problem. It is about working toward understanding and possibly resolving these problems by setting goals and creating and initiating a plan of action as well as reflecting on the degree to which the plan works. It is a small scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such intervention (Cohen & Manion1985p.174)

Many researchers have framed their action researches to explore the academic performance of university students, particularly focusing on individual factors and their psychological implications in second language acquisition. The relationship between age and second language acquisition has often been discussed in language forums. Johnson & Newport, 1989; Lenneberg, 1967; Schachter, 1989 have recorded their investigation results as generalised sweeping comments. For them, in general, younger learners seem to be better at language learning in the long term than older learners are.
The sociocultural contexts in second language learning are also considered equally important because language learning is psychological at the individual level and sociological at the broader societal context. It is the present researcher’s wish that the need for contextualised, detailed research designs and the significance of sociocultural and socio political approaches in understanding the university students’ ability to speak and write in English have to be defined in the Indian context, at least, for the research reported here in.

The theoretical perspective of language socialization (Ochs, 1988; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986) and its link between English as second language learning and sociocultural contexts (Duff, 1995; Willet, 1995) cannot be ignored in the present research. The present research perceives our students as striving to achieve their goal of communicative competence through the sociocultural and socio political interactive factors (Clement, 1980) which are found in various contexts. Skehan (1986) found a strong relationship between second language learning in a school situation and a set of measures relating to family background, parental education and parental literacy. Thus in addition to native ability in processing language, family influences inculcate in a child the ability to deal with language in a formal and decontextualized context. Barry McLaughlin (1990) believes that family variables influence the child’s ability to use the kinds of language learning strategies that Oxford (1986) lists: asking questions to gather information, and initiating and sustaining conversations to say a few.

Naoka Morita (2000) says language socialization is a much desired phenomenon in an academic life because the less competent directly learn from the more knowledgeable peers while the competent members also learn from novices; this kind of learning process is known as guided participation whereas Lave and Wenger (1991) described it ‘legitimate peripheral participation’. In her hypothesis Morita finds parents as experts and children as novices. This perception is on line with Skehan’s family influence on children’s L2 acquisition. As parents modify their children’s oral communication, language socialization is usually applied to first language acquisition of children. In the L2 acquisition context, educated parents interact with their children in English and modify their output in order that they acquire the language. Thus parental influence also decides children’s second language proficiency.

The purpose of the present study was to understand the English language proficiency of the first year engineering students in the theoretical perspectives deliberated earlier. The implications of socio political and cultural aversions have by and large been an impact on the social and political milieu of the sub-continent. The investigation should also help to ascertain the pattern of weaknesses in learning English in the tertiary level, and to ear mark the specific area for improvisation in the ESL performance of the students to cope up with the demands of university education. The individual revelations observed should give scope for reflections and remedial teaching there on.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**
The research questions addressed were as follows:
1. What are the individual variables that interacted in the overall proficiency of the participants in the research?
2. What is their present proficiency in English as second language?
3. How can the students be facilitated to hone the required oral communication skills to seek global opportunity?

METHODOLOGY
The first step in a teaching process, is the collection of information about learners in order to diagnose the objective needs of the students (Richterich, 1972); and it is more so with the action research. Action research is not exploratory in nature rather it is the process of posing the problem and identifying a solution which will give scope for exploring our teaching beliefs. “It is a cyclical process that follows a series of repeated steps like setting a goal, planning an action, to reach this goal, acting on this plan, observing the action, reflecting on the observation and setting the next goal”( Gebhard, 1999 p.63). As such the research methodology has included a questionnaire to investigate the interrelationship between the various components of L1 and L2 language proficiency. The pilot study made use of a customised questionnaire to investigate the participants’ personal factors such as age, and parental factors that usually influence language learning at the early stages and which act as affective filters in SLA. The next step was to investigate the pattern of learning in the schools (medium of instruction and method of English learning), and then infer the socio political and cultural factors that might have influenced the students. The importance of English in the learner’s perspective was to be ascertained. The entire process was carried as survey; it was a survey research because it was conducted by using questionnaires to collect the data, thoughts and feelings of participants. The descriptive survey method was adopted to scrutinise the responses and explain them. The appropriate objective inferences and findings make the entire action research process reliable and valid.

Participants
The research was conducted in the undergraduate engineering programme of Dr. M.G.R. Educational and Research Institute University in Chennai. The participants were sixty five in number. They were from the different states of India and hence heterogeneous by virtue of their mother tongue, culture and tradition. They got admitted to the university after passing public examinations in science, mathematics, and English as second language on completion of the plus2 course.

Research instrument 1 – questionnaire
Printed copies of the questionnaire were distributed to all the participants. The questionnaire focused on their age, family background such as literate and educated family, mother tongue and medium of instruction, length of exposure to English language learning (LOE), language proficiency and their interest in language learning programme.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Age factor
The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship between their age and their second language acquisition. The study found that the students were in the age group of 17 - 20 years. They were young adults by virtue of their age.

Mother tongue
The study showed that twenty seven students had Tamil as their mother tongue; twenty five were Telugu students; nine were speaking Hindi and three students were speaking Urdu, while only one had Malayalam as mother tongue.

Medium of Instruction
Fifty six students had studied through the medium of English in schools invariably from LKG or first standard to plus2 (12/14 years). Nine students studied in regional medium schools, but they had also learnt English from third standard as second language – for not less than a period of nine years.

Location of Schools
Thirteen students had studied in rural schools; forty two students had studied in urban schools; only ten students had studied in semi urban schools.
Parental influence
The study showed that fifteen Tamil parents were graduates; the remaining twelve parents were non-graduates. Sixteen Telugu parents were graduates; nine parents had not even done school education. The sole Malayalam participant’s parents were graduates. Only three of the Hindi speaking parents were graduates and the rest were just tenth standard passed. Regarding Urdu speaking parents, all the three of them were graduates.

English language proficiency
The questionnaire also inquired into the students’ proficiency level in ESL. It was revealed that only three of the nine Hindi speaking students could speak in English; none of the Urdu speaking students could speak in English; only nine Tamil speaking students could speak in English; only seven Telugu speaking students could speak in English and the only one Malayalam student also could not speak in English. To sum up, nineteen students from different linguistic background could speak in English. Forty six students could not speak in English.

Teaching methodology at schools
The participants’ response to the question on the way they had been taught English at schools showed it was mostly, teacher centred language pedagogy- (grammar-translation method, comprehension exercises, reading poems and prose aloud) and there were little opportunities for group discussions, role play, games and puzzles in the English classes. The students had learnt English as any other subject. Only the students who studied in central schools knew oral language activities like role plays, quizzes and puzzles.
Reason for their inability to speak in English

The students were honest in expressing their inability to speak in English. Forty nine students said they felt shy and were afraid of speaking in English amidst their teachers and peers because they were not sure of their vocabulary and the structure for the purpose. Despite having been educated in English medium, even those who said they could speak in English agreed that they experienced shyness and fear to speak in public. Six of the nineteen students, who said they could speak in English, felt sad that they are not competent enough to interact in English because of shyness and fear. The analysis showed fifty two students could not speak in English because of shyness, fear, lack of vocabulary and weak in grammar while only thirteen out of sixty five participants of the action research, could speak in English.

Socio environmental factor

Native speaker environment is obviously absent and so as children, the learners were not exposed to what it was to speak with native speakers of English. However, the information regarding their linguistic identity finds correlation in the people’s socio-political milieu of the states to which they belong.

Discussion

The students were young adults in the age group of 17-20. The age factor was not a disadvantage for the students to interact among themselves. The age could not be considered to be detrimental to learn English, in fact, they were better poised for learning English as second language. Ehrman and Oxford (1995) state that older learners have an advantage in understanding the grammatical system and in bringing greater 'world knowledge' to the target language learning context (p. 69). To conclude we may accept, David Singleton (2008) is correct when he says age effects are exclusively neurologically based and associating them with language learning is not credit worthy. The investigation has a positive note that the participants of this research are young adults and hence “they bring a great deal of life experience and cognitive maturity to the classroom” (Hills & Sutton, 2001: p.386).

The data obtained by the questionnaire proved that the students came from different states and their mother tongues were also varied. So the participants were heterogeneous. The researcher’s observation showed they were good in speaking in their mother tongues. The Telugu and Malayalam students could pick up words in Tamil and could converse with Tamil students with
certain difficulty. At those times they tried to use English vocabulary and gestures to avoid conversation break ups. Students from North India, who spoke either Hindi or Urdu were hesitant to get into conversation because their languages could not be understood by the south Indians and they were not proficient in English to converse with the other classmates. Hence they were reticent most of the time.

The behaviourists believe that language is environmentally determined, controlled from the outside of the stimuli learners are exposed to and the reinforcement they receive. However, an early start and length of exposure to English language did not necessarily lead the participants to higher linguistic proficiency. Their percentage of marks in English in plus2 examination did not assure their oral fluency because in India, the language exams are written with no oral components assessment.

As per the students’ declaration, it was found that English was taught in schools by direct method and they had little opportunity to speak in English for basic interpersonal communications, leave alone for academic purposes. Their lack of language proficiency in English can be attributed to the school teachers’ indifference or ignorance towards the demands of the students as ESL learners. Practically speaking, there was no difference between the English medium students and regional medium students in speaking English; there was no difference in the students’ oral performance in terms of their having studied in rural, urban and semi urban schools. However one significant fact evolved by this survey was that the students who had studied in central schools could speak better in English because of their exposure to oral activities. To sum up, the study observed that the students had not sharpened their listening and speaking skills at the tertiary level.

This research found further, the following observation: apart from not finding the expert-novice relationship between the parents and the children for language acquisition, which is considered primary strategy, the family support, which is considered support strategy in language acquisition was lacking for the present participants during their critical period of learning. Support strategies are recognised as instrumental to enhance or support learning indirectly by creating a good attitude in the learner, establishing learner goals and reducing learner frustration, tension and anxiety. The learners as young children under the control of their parents did not know the necessity to speak English anywhere; the teachers also did not throw the required opportunities to interact in English. In the absence of zone of proximal development, and so away from native speakers of English, there was no need for English in everyday communication outside the home and schools. So, the participants lacked the practice of speaking in English. Moreover, they were taught the language but were not taught to use the language for communication.

The linguistic divisions which were instrumental in the formation of linguistic states in India were also one of the reasons for the regional political parties to thrive in India. Their divide and function attitude has in fact, made language a pawn to achieve their selfish desires. In such a context, the status of English is purely a constitutional assurance but the people do not experience the crunch to speak the language in different interpersonal and official situations inside and outside their homes. Furthermore, the regional language fanatics in the southern states even today do not allow the state governments to take stringent policy decisions on English language
teaching and their insistence on government’s responsibility to make the university education in the mother tongue medium and the jobs for sons of the soil deter the language learners’ and more particularly the society’s attitude to accept the importance of English as an empowerment tool in the changed global context. This kind of societal and parental attitude has been detrimental in developing the language attitude of the students and finally has left them least motivated to learn the language (Skehan, 1986; Clement, 1980). The study takes an interesting new direction towards the L2 proficiency as Cummins (1984) points out that with appropriate help the students will learn to use L2 language in their oral communication. The simple fact that they have come from different states of India, to join a professional course assures one that they are focused on enhancing their career prospects. The engineering students are extrinsically motivated to learn the language which is the language of opportunity for global placement. Although there is ample evidence to show the lack of social and parental motivation have been a demotivating factor in the participants’ language learning, from a practicing teacher’s point of view the pressing question now is how the students can be motivated to realise their goal of oral communication.

CONCLUSION
The pilot study – the questionnaire has only helped to make an overall assessment of participants as individuals and members of a language group and learners. Having arrived at this point, the researcher needs to be focused to customise a test that could tell the students’ past learning and its bearing on their present proficiency in terms of their strength and weakness and also give directions for further proceedings. The test, we are talking about, is the diagnostic test, to decide upon the learners’ language skills and their ability to cope with the present venture and also the material and methodology to support the researcher’s objective of honing the engineering students’ oral communication skills, by showing them proper language learning strategies and engaging them in activities appropriate to their age.

Scope and limitations of the study
In view of the findings and their usefulness in planning and designing further course of action, the researcher feels such studies may be conducted for the benefit of student community. However, it is true that the pilot study was limited to a limited number of I B.Tech. students of Dr. M.G.R. Educational and Research Institute University, Chennai – 95.

REFERENCES


**QUESTIONNAIRE - 1**
**PERSONAL PROFILE (SECTION – I)**

1. Name : ____________________________________________
2. Course : __________________________ Year : __________

Dr. M.G.R. Educational and Research Institute University, Chennai - 95
3. Date of Birth ____________________ Age: _______ yr.
4. Mother Tongue ______________ State ________
5. Parents’ education: (Put a tick mark in the relevant box)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARENTS</th>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FATHER</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOTHER</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Do your parents speak English at home? Tick: YES / NO

ACADEMIC PROFILE  (SECTION – II)
7. Name of the school last studied:
(Put a tick mark in the relevant box)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>BOARD</th>
<th>LOCATION</th>
<th>Medium of Instruction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SB</td>
<td>rural</td>
<td>R.M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CBSC</td>
<td>urban</td>
<td>Eng.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Matric</td>
<td>semi-urban</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LENGTH OF EXPOSURE TO ENGLISH (years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marks obtained in English in 12th std. public exam: %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SB: State Board / CBSC: Central Board of Secondary Education / Matric: Matriculation
R.M.: Regional medium/ Eng. Medium: English medium

ENGLISH PROFICIENCY  SECTION – III
8. Tick the activities through which you were taught English in schools:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>comprehension</th>
<th>Grammar exercises</th>
<th>reading poems &amp; prose</th>
<th>Group Discussion</th>
<th>role play</th>
<th>games</th>
<th>puzzles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

9. Tick your proficiency level in English:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Understand only</th>
<th>write only</th>
<th>Speak and write</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

10. If you cannot speak, give reason:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shyness</th>
<th>Fear</th>
<th>lack of vocabulary</th>
<th>weak in grammar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
THE EFFECT OF CONCEPT MAPPING AND INFORMATION GAP TASK ON IRANIAN POSTGRADUATE EFL LEARNERS’ WRITING

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ABSTRACT
This study was conducted to investigate the effect of concept mapping and information gap task on Iranian Postgraduates English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ writing. The participants were forty-two Iranian postgraduate students majoring in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) at Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch, Tehran, Iran. They were assigned into two twenty one experimental groups of concept mapping and information gap task. Then, both groups sat for the pre-test, which was a TOFEL writing test. The purpose of this test was to measure the learners’ initial writing ability. Afterwards, participants in one experimental group received concept mapping instruction and used it in their writings; while, participants in another experimental group were asked to complete writing information gap tasks. The treatment period took six weeks. Finally, both groups sat for the post-test which was another TOFEL writing test parallel to the pretest. After keying in the data into SPSS, the Mixed Within-Between Groups ANOVA statistical test was used to compare mean scores of both groups. It can be concluded that although both groups’ performance improved significantly on their writing post-tests in comparison to their pretests, the comparison of post-tests of two groups showed that the concept mapping group outperformed the information gap task group. The results revealed that the application of concept mapping and information gap task improved learners’ writing. The findings of this study could have a number of important implications for teaching writing to EFL learners effectively.

KEYWORDS: Concept Mapping, Information Gap Task, Writing

INTRODUCTION
The major purpose of all languages is communication. People all around the world with different native languages use English as their means of communication. English language consists of four skills. According to Chastain (1988), “writing is a basic communication skill and a unique asset
in the process of learning a second language” (p.244). Richard and Renandya (2002) states that comparing to other skills, writing is considered the major one and the most difficult skill for learners to master. Richards (1990) asserts that “The nature and significant of writing have traditionally been underestimated in language Teaching” (p.106). But in the recent decades, writing pedagogy has undergone remarkable changes. In the past, product approach was the most popular teaching methodology. Based on Brown (2001), writing teachers were only concerned with the final product of writing. In the mid 1960s, a number of changes happened which led to the emergence of process-centered approach. According to Keh (1990), process-centered approach assists learners in understanding their own composition process and building their body of strategies for pre-writing (gathering, exploring, and organizing raw materials), drafting (structuring ideas into a piece of linear discourse), and re-writing (revising, editing, and proofreading).

Concept mapping is a kind of pre-writing task which makes ideas visual. Concept maps help learners in generating and organizing their ideas, ordering, and establishing the relationship between them. According to Buzan (1995),“using mapping technique, students were able to complete essays in one third of the previous time, while receiving higher marks” (p.102).

Information-gap tasks make students actively participate in the process of learning (Ur, 1996). They encourage students to increase their target language practice.

Regardless of all the recent improvements in writing instruction, traditional methods of teaching are still used in most of Iranian academic settings and most EFL learners with good command of language have difficulty with learning writing. This study aims to examine the effect of concept mapping and information gap task on Iranian postgraduate EFL learners’ writing.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)**

During the recent decades Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) became one of the most leading teaching methodologies. Tasks play crucial role in Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). Nunan (2004, p.1) asserts that “task is an important element in syllabus design, classroom teaching, and learners assessment”. Richards and Rodgers argue that “task-based language teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core units of planning and instruction in language teaching” (2001, p.223). Based on Prabhu (1987) task is an activity which requires students to reach an outcome by the use of given information. Using task as a kind of class activity makes classes more student-centered. In addition, it encourages students to interact in target language and focus their attention on meaning instead of form.

**Information Gap Task**

In recent years there has been an interest in using Information gap task. In such kind of activity learners are required to use the language in order to exchange information while their attention is on meaning rather than structure of the language. Ellis (2004) defines information gap task as “A task where one participant holds information that the other participant(s) do(es) not have and that
must be exchanged in order to complete the task” (p. 213). According to (Prabhu, 1987), information gap task is a kind of task in which there is a missing piece of information that students need to complete. Also, Ur (1996) asserts that information gap task is “A particularly interesting type of task which is based on the need to understand or transmit information finding out what is in a partner’s picture, for example” (p.54).

Concept Mapping
In 1970s, concept mapping was first developed by Novak in a research program where he sought to follow and understand changes in children’s knowledge of science (Novak & Canas, 2006). Concept mapping is based on the David Ausubel’s learning psychology, which believes that learning takes place by assimilation of new concepts and propositions into existing concept propositional frameworks held by the learner (Novak, 2001). Based on Ausubel 1963, there are two kinds of learning; one of them is rote learning and the other one is meaningful learning. He defines meaningful learning as a kind of learning in which the learner consciously tries to make a connection between new knowledge and the knowledge already knows. According to (Novak and Canas, 2006), concept is “a perceived regularity in events or objects, or records of events or objects, designated by a label”. Nesbit and Adescope (2006) defines concept map as “a visual representation of individual’s knowledge structure on a particular topic as constructed by the learner” (p.414). Concept maps are a kind of brain storming tools which help us in generating and organizing ideas. They are composed of concepts, enclosed in circles and boxes, and connecting lines indicating the relationships between concepts and propositions. Concepts usually arrange hierarchically, from the most inclusive and general at the top to the least inclusive and the most specific at the bottom.

Writing
It is an undeniable fact that writing is the most challenging language skill for most of ESL/EFL learners and mastering it requires a considerable amount of time and effort. Writing is an extremely complex cognitive ability in which the writer is required to control a number of variables simultaneously. At micro level, these include control of content, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, punctuation, and spelling. At macro level, the writer needs to integrate information into cohesive and coherent text (Bell & Burnaby, 1984). To become a skillful writer is the main goal of many language learners, especially those who want to continue their education in academic settings. White and Arndt (1991) states that “through writing, we are able to share ideas, arouse feeling, persuade and convince other people, we are able to discover and articulate ideas in a way that only writing makes them possible” (p.1).

Empirical Studies on Concept Mapping and Information Gap Task
In a study Fahim and Karimi (2011) investigated the effect of concept mapping strategy on the writing performance of EFL learners. Learners in experimental group received instruction about how to use concept mapping as pre-writing strategy. The findings of the study showed that writing performance of students in experimental group significantly improved in comparison to students of control group. In another study, Nobahar, Nemat Tabrizi, and Shaghaghi (2013) examined the impact of concept mapping on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' self-efficacy and expository writing accuracy. Experimental group received concept mapping instruction as their
treatment while control group received no treatment. Results revealed that concept mapping instruction had positive effect on learners’ self-efficacy and expository writing accuracy. Also, Soleimani, Zare, and Abbasi (2014) investigated the effect of pre-task planning through information gap on speaking skill of foreign language learners. The result of the study indicated that pre-task planning through split information activities significantly improved students speaking skill.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES
Based on the objectives of this study, the following research questions are formulated:

RQ1: Does concept mapping have any significant effect on Iranian postgraduate EFL learners’ writing?
RQ2: Does information gap task have any significant effect on Iranian postgraduate EFL learners’ writing?

Based on the above research questions and in order to investigate them empirically, the following null hypotheses are formulated:

HO1: Concept mapping does not have any significant effect on Iranian postgraduate EFL learners’ writing.
HO2: Information gap task does not have any significant effect on Iranian postgraduate EFL learners’ writing.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The present study was conducted among 42 Iranian postgraduate TEFL students, 36 females (81%), and 8 males (19%) at Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch, Tehran, Iran. The participants had enrolled Essay Writing classes. Participants ranged in age mostly from 23 to 30 years old and with a few exceptions over the age of 30. They were assigned into two intact groups. It should be mentioned that all participants in two groups were informed that they were part of a research project. In each class, the researcher explained that their writings would be used in her research anonymously. In addition to the student participants, there were also two raters who were experienced English teachers with an MA degree in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language).

Instruments
To fulfill the objectives of this study, the researcher administered the following instruments:

Pre-test
In the first stage, as a pre-test a TOFEL writing exam was administered. The participants were given 30 minutes to write a five-paragraph essay containing minimum of 300 words. This test was used before starting the treatment. The writing test was chosen from the book “185 TOEFL
Writing (TWE) Topics and Model Essays”. The topic of the writing test was “People attend to college or universities for many different reasons (for example, new experiences, career preparation, and increased knowledge), why do you think people attend college or university?”

**Materials**

The treatment of this study was conducted for eight weeks. The researcher developed some concept mapping instructional materials which contained definition and examples of concept mapping, and also some writing information gap tasks. During treatment period, participants in one experimental group completed their writing tasks based on concept mapping instruction. On the other hand, participants in another experimental group were asked to complete writing information gap tasks.

**Post-test**

At the end of the study, another TOFEL writing exam parallel to genre and topic of pre-test was given to recognize any changes in the participants’ writing ability in different groups. The participants were given 30 minutes to write a five-paragraph essay containing minimum of 300 words. Writing test was chosen from the book “185 TOEFL Writing (TWE) Topics and Model Essays”. The topic of the final writing test was “Some participants like classes where teachers lecture (do all of the talking) in class. Other participants prefer classes where participants do some of the talking. Which type of class do you prefer”?

**Writing Rating scale**

Jacaob, et al., (1981, cited in Weigle, 2002) analytic scale was used in rating essays. It is a weighted analytic scoring scale developed for rating second language learners’ writing tasks. Scripts were rated on five aspects of writing including: content, language use, organization, vocabulary, and mechanics.

**Procedure**

The present study was conducted for eight weeks among 42 Iranian postgraduate TEFL students at Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch, Tehran, Iran. Two TOEFL writing exams were used in the pre-test and post-test. The first test was taken as the pre-test before starting the treatment. The participants were given 30 minutes to write a five-paragraph essay containing minimum of 300 words. They were divided into two experimental groups. Based on the schedule, the participants of one experimental group received concept mapping instruction and used it before writing their compositions. In contrast, participants in another experimental group were asked to complete writing information gap tasks. At the end of the study, both groups took part in another test that was the post-test. They were given 30 minutes to write a five-paragraph essay containing minimum of 300 words. Finally, two raters who were experienced English teachers rated the papers on the basis of the analytical method of scoring. Inter-rater reliability was calculated. Next, the average of the scores given by the two raters was determined.
The design of the present study was quasi-experimental pre-test post-test design. The participants were non-randomly assigned into two experimental groups. The independent variables of this study were concept mapping and information gap task, while the dependent variable was writing.

**Data Analysis**

In order to test the null hypotheses of this study, the following statistical analyses were carried out: First, the Spearman rho value was used to estimate the inter-rater reliability between the two raters for the writing sections. Second, descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation were computed for both experimental groups. Third, Mixed Within-Between Group Analysis of Variance ANOVA was used in order to compare mean scores of both experimental groups in both pre-test and post-test. These data were calculated by using 21st version of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

*Learners’ Performance on the Pre-test*

First of all, the participants of the study were divided into two experimental groups. Half of them were in the Concept mapping group and the others were in the information gap task group. The participants of both groups took part in TOFEL Writing exam as a pre-test in order to show their initial writing ability. The pre-tests were scored by two raters. In order to demonstrate the inter-rater reliability between the raters, the Spearman’s rho value was calculated. The results are shown in the following tables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Inter-rater Reliability of Raters in Pretest of Concept Mapping Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-test CM-R2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test CM-R1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Inter-rater Reliability of Raters in Pretest of Information Gap Task Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Inter-rater Reliability of Raters in Pretest of Information Gap Task Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pre-test IG-R2</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test IG-R1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 reveals that Spearman’s rho value is equal .536 and sig level is equal .004 which is less than 0.01, so there is an inter-rater reliability between the raters in this test. In addition, as the
Learners’ Performance on the Post-test

After the treatment, participants took part in another test which is called post-test. In order to estimate learners’ writing ability after the treatment, participants of both groups took part in another TOFEL Writing exam as a post-test. The same as the pre-test, this post-test was scored by two raters. In order to indicate the inter-rater reliability between the raters, the Spearman’s rho value was calculated. The results are shown in the following tables.

Table 2 presents, Spearman’s rho value is equal .690 and sig level is equal .001 that is less than 0.01, thus there is an inter-rater reliability between the raters in this test.

Null Hypotheses

HO1: Concept mapping does not have any significant effect on Iranian postgraduate EFL learners’ writing.

HO2: Information gap task does not have any significant effect on Iranian postgraduate EFL learners’ writing.

In order to show whether there is any significant difference between the writing ability of participants in both concept mapping and information gap task groups, Mixed Between-Within Groups ANOVA was employed as the data analysis technique. Therefore, pre-test and post-test results for both groups were compared by this test. The results are shown in the following tables.
Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Pre-test and Post-test of writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>pre-test</td>
<td>74.64</td>
<td>6.172</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>86.14</td>
<td>4.108</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IG</td>
<td>pre-test</td>
<td>74.02</td>
<td>5.090</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>78.04</td>
<td>4.795</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Multivariate Tests of Pre-test and Post-test of Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CM</td>
<td>Wilks’ Lambda</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>11.511b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>40.000</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IG</td>
<td>Wilks’ Lambda</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>8.472b</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>40.000</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 indicates that the concept mapping group averaged 74.64 on the pre-test and 86.14 on the post-test. The mean difference of concept mapping group is 11.5. The result shows that this group’s improvement is statistically significant. In addition, the value for Wilks’ Lambda for time is .002 which is less than .05. Thus, the conclusion is that there is a statistically significant effect for time. Table 6 also shows that information gap task group averaged 74.02 on the pre-test and 78.04 on the post-test. The mean difference of this group is 4.02 which is not as significant as the difference of the concept mapping group. Moreover, the values for Wilks’ Lambda for time is .006 which is less than .05. Therefore, the conclusion is that there is a statistically significant difference for time. Figure 1 presents the post-test differences in both groups.

Figure 1: The Post-tests’ Differences in the Concept Mapping and Information Gap Task groups
According to the above figure, although both groups’ performance improved in the post-test, the concept mapping group outperformed the information gap task group. Therefore, both null hypotheses can be rejected, and it can be said that both concept mapping and information gap task positively affected the writing ability of Iranian Postgraduate EFL learners. Great amount of studies have been done on the impact of concept mapping on EFL learners’ writing ability. The results of the present study are in line with the results of other studies (Fahim & Karimi, 2011; Nobahar, Nemati Tabriz, & Shaghaghi, 2013; Ojima, 2006; Pishghadam & Ghanizadeh, 2006; Roa, 2007; Talebinezhad, & Negari, 2009). All above mentioned studies approved the fact that, concept mapping instruction significantly improves learners’ writing ability. Also, the findings of current study are consistent with previous studies that showed the positive effect of information gap task on second or foreign language learning (Defrioka, 2009; Jondeya, 2011; Soleimani, Zare, & Abbasi 2014).

CONCLUSION
This research was designed to investigate whether the application of concept mapping and information gap task have any significant effect on improving learners’ writing performance or not. Therefore, the following research questions were developed. The first question was, “does concept mapping have any significant effect on Iranian Postgraduate EFL learners’ writing?” And the second question was, “does information gap task have any significant effect on Iranian Postgraduate EFL learners’ writing?” In order to answer the above mentioned questions, the following statistical analyses were carried out. Descriptive statistics including mean and standard deviation were computed for both experimental groups. Also, Mixed Within-Between Group Analysis of Variance ANOVA was used in order to compare mean scores of two experimental groups in both pre-test and post-test. Based on the findings of this research, since there were significant differences between the pre-tests and the post-tests of two groups, both null-hypotheses were rejected and it could be concluded that application of concept mapping and information gap task improved learners’ writing. The findings of the present study can be beneficial for both students and instructors. Concept maps can be used by students as a brainstorming tool which could help them in generating and organizing their thoughts and ideas. It also can be used by instructors as a tool in assessing learners’ understanding of the materials. Instructors can use information gap tasks as small group class activities to encourage students to increase their target language practice.

Limitations of the Study
The current study was limited in several ways. The first limitation was related to the inability of the researcher in controlling the gender variable, participants were both males and females. Another limitation was about the participants of the study who were not randomly selected. They were selected based on convenience sampling. Finally, due to the time restriction on university courses, the researcher was allowed to use only 30 minutes of every session for writing treatments.
REFERENCES


Soleimani, H., Zare, H., & Abbasi, A. (2014). The Effect of Pre-task Planning on Speaking Skill of Second Language Learner. *International Journal of Language Learning and


THE COMPARATIVE IMPACT OF LEXICAL INFERENCING AND CONCEPT MAPPING ON EFL LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS LEARNING

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ABSTRACT
This study was an attempt to investigate the comparative impact of lexical inferencing and concept mapping on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ lexical collocation learning. Accordingly, 60 female EFL learners were selected from a group of 90 learners based on their performance on a sample piloted PET in Zabansara Institute, Tehran. They were randomly assigned into two experimental groups. They were given a teacher made lexical collocation test to ensure that the participants had no knowledge of the target lexical collocations prior to the treatment. The ten session treatment which followed included teaching lexical collocations using lexical inferencing in one experimental group and concept mapping in the other. Everything in both groups such as materials, the amount of instruction was the same except the treatment. At the end of the instructional period, a piloted teacher-made lexical collocation test was administered to both groups to see if there is any significance difference between two groups in terms of their performance on the posttest. The analysis of the test scores using an independent samples t-test indicated that Concept mapping techniques was as effective as lexical inferencing in learning lexical collocations. As a result of the study, the lexical collocation knowledge of EFL students may be developed by familiarizing them with the perception underlying the lexical inferencing and concept mapping techniques.

KEYWORDS: Concept mapping- Lexical inferencing - Intermediate Learners- Lexical collocations

INTRODUCTION
The importance of vocabulary in learning a language as a key element in language classes can hardly be denied. Wilkins (1972) said, “Without grammar little can be conveyed; but without vocabulary nothing can be transferred” (p. 111). Vocabulary knowledge is important as a result learning vocabulary is considered as a key factor in achieving a high level of proficiency in the target language (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2008). That is to say, even an adequate knowledge of vocabulary alone could be enough to go on a communication (Wallace, 1982). Furthermore, Celce-Murcia and Rosensweig (1989) approve that vocabulary should be considered as a central element in language teaching from the beginning stages. According to Sinclair (1987), using
language is selecting more than one word at a time, and blending them together. McCarten (2007) states, “the way in which some words are usually used is generally called collocation” (p. 5). In addition, Stubbs (2002) defines collocation as “the habitual co-occurrence of two unordered content words or a content word and a lexical set” (p. 215). Since much of natural language consists of prefabricated chunks, learning words in isolation does not help L2 learners to be successful in communications. Learners also have to obtain a large number of fixed sequences in order to be able to produce and comprehend ideas accurately and fluently (Wray, 2002). In addition, collocations especially the lexical collocations are the most important part of second language acquisition and they are also essential to non-native speakers in order to speak or write fluently and accurately (Jaén, 2007). Lewis (2000) also believes that “lexical collocations are combinations of two equal lexical components” (p. 133). Teaching vocabulary and collocation to students is a complex process, so Genç (2004) states that in order to stimulate interest and awareness in students about vocabulary improvement and make the vocabulary learning process more meaningful, there is a plenty of vocabulary teaching techniques. Vocabulary learning strategies include concept mapping, organizing, note taking, identifying important information, lexical inferencing and summarizing (Pressley, 1982; Weinstein, 1988). Moreover, Spencer and Guillaume (2006) said “words must be presented to students through several different contexts and situations in order to develop their knowledge (p. 208). Also, Quain (1996) states, “most researchers believe vocabulary is best taught in context rather than isolated lists” (p.120). As a result guessing from context is certainly the most significant vocabulary learning strategy that is called Lexical inferencing, and has been defined as the connections that people begin when they try to understand texts. Lexical inferencing allows the learners to learn vocabulary without the teacher’s help and they can understand their reading without stopping to check each word in the dictionary. Nation (2001) mentions that, “Incidental learning via guessing and inferencing from context is the most important of all sources of vocabulary learning” (p.232). Also, Beers (2003) states that “An inference is the ability to connect what is in the text with what is in the mind to create an educated guess” (p. 62). Its aim for learners is being able to make a well-formed guess of the meaning of an unknown word in a context without interrupting the reading too much.

Another useful strategy is concept mapping which has been described as “metacognitive strategies” (Mintzes, Wandersee & Novak, 1997) that encourage students to think reflectively, and used as a learning technique in different fields and they are suitable for presenting and organizing knowledge. The researcher as a teacher noticed that it is very fundamental to find a suitable way to overcome the learners’ problems with collocations because collocation is very important for a person who is learning a second language, also understanding collocations is crucial for both language production and comprehension (McIntosh et al., 2009). Finally, according to Hill (1999), most learners with good vocabulary knowledge have problems with fluency and the researcher as a teacher has witnessed the lack of learners’collocational competence as a source of error, which hinders their fluency. Therefore, the researcher decided to look for the useful strategies in teaching collocation in order to help students develop collocational competence, but in the present study, she decided to focus just on lexical collocations. According to Williams and Burden (1997), one of the areas that can shed light on the issue of collocational knowledge is a study of language learning strategies. It would be useful to present the techniques and activities that affect the ways of teaching collocation, and help
learners develop collocational capability. Hence, the researcher tried to focus on some classroom strategies, which remind the importance of collocations to learners. Among the strategies graphic organizers are recommended (Chularut & De Backer, 2003) because they provide visual scaffolds that encourage students to extract and represent the meaning of words from texts. Concept mapping is a metacognitive strategy, which may be helpful for students to develop their vocabulary competence (Chularut & De Backer, 2003). On the other hand, the context is one of the most significant factors in learning vocabulary, and according to Nagy (1997), L2 learners may have a greater need to use context in vocabulary development. In addition, L2 learners learn new words considerably as they encounter them in context through reading and listening activities, similar to the way native speakers of a language expand their vocabulary knowledge (Read, 2000). Although these learning strategies have been studied in Iran, few studies have considered the use of strategies for learning collocations among Iranian EFL learners. Among these strategies, lexical inferencing as a cognitive strategy and concept mapping as one of the metacognitive strategies were chosen because based on what Chularut and De Backer (2003) argues these strategies help students to develop the vocabulary knowledge.

The present study is considered to be significant for some reasons. First, the results can help teachers have a better view on using the lexical inferencing and concept mapping technique in teaching lexical collocation. In addition, the use of these two strategies seems to be helpful for the teacher in constructing and using them to improve lexical collocations. Secondly, the results can help students have a better view on using vocabulary-learning techniques. Third, gaining a better understanding of these kinds of strategies help educators develop more effective interventions to enhance lexical collocation, too. However, collocations are important and Howarth (1998) believes that learning collocations helps ESL/EFL learners to become more native-like because English native speakers tell EFL learners that a sentence is good in English, but as the native speakers, they never use it. Thus, if EFL learners apply chunks of language they will be able to become more native-like.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND NULL HYPOTHESIS
To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following research question was formulated:
Is there any statistically significant difference between the impact of using lexical inferencing and concept mapping on EFL learners’ lexical collocations learning?

H₀: There is no significant difference between the impact of using lexical inferencing and concept mapping on EFL learners' lexical collocations learning.

METHODOLOGY
A thorough description of the participants, procedure, and instrumentation carried out for this study are presented in this section.

Participants
The participants, compromising the population of the present study, were 60 female intermediate EFL students. They were females whose age ranged from 15 to 22. Their language proficiency
was intermediate level according to the criteria set by the language school. The participants were selected from among 90 students via the administration of a PET (Preliminary English Test), (2004). In addition, 30 participants with almost similar characteristics to that of the target sample took part in the piloting of the present study’s instruments.

Instrumentation
In order to come up with a homogeneous sample, a proficiency test was administered in this study. To minimize the individual differences among the participants and to ensure homogeneity of them, a version of the PET (Preliminary English Test) proficiency test was employed as a reliable and standard criterion to help the researcher choose the sample. The second instrument was a researcher made lexical collocation test (a pretest and a post-test) each containing 50 multiple-choice items on the lexical collocation and it took 60 minutes. These two parallel 50-item multiple choice tests were made based on their course book (Top Notch intermediate) one for pretest and one for post-test.

Procedure
To complete the course of study, four stages were followed: First the PET was piloted on 30 participants demonstrating almost similar characteristics as the target sample before the actual administration in order to make sure that the test had appropriate reliability (0.93) and item characteristics (no items were modified or removed) and thus suitable for the target sample. The administration of the whole test took 1 hour and 20 minutes. The second stage consisted of administering the piloted PET to help the researcher make sure about the homogeneity of the participants regarding their language proficiency. Having administered the test used for homogenization, out of 90 students the eligible ones -those 60 whose scores ranged from one standard deviation above and below the mean on the test were selected as the participants of the study. The participants were then randomly assigned to two experimental groups. Two experimental groups were administered the researcher- made lexical collocation pretest at the beginning of the instruction session. Before the test was administered, participants were provided with an explanation of the study being conducted and were assured that the results would have no influence on the course outcomes. The pretest was conducted to assess the lexical collocation knowledge of the two groups before the course of instruction and to check their homogeneity in not knowing the lexical collocations prior to the treatment. In the lexical inferencing group, lexical inferencing instruction was introduced in a way that the students got some contextual cues to use while they were trying to infer the meaning of unknown lexical items. The other experimental group was instructed through concept mapping strategy. In this group, the students first read the passage of their book and then the teacher presented the new vocabulary items. She presented suitable multiple collocates for each word. In this way, students learned a new word through its collocations. Then, the teacher drew a circle in the center of the board and wrote the verb on it such as “make”. Then, the students should say different words that could be collocated with that verb, such as “choice”. “A mistake”. “An excuse”. The teacher drew lines from the circle for each of the words involved. After that, she drew a circle at the end of each of the lines, and wrote each word in one circle. After that, the teacher chose one of the words associated with that verb (such as make a mistake), explained the meaning of it, and wrote it in the other circle in the same line. After coming up with the correct meaning of lexical items through contexts and the
provision of the necessary feedback, the researcher asked the students to make new sentences with the taught lexical collocations. The teachers gave feedback on the sentences made by the students. Then, the students were asked to make more sentences with them as their homework. After the end of the instruction, a piloted researcher-made post-test consisted of 50 multiple-choice items based on those lexical collocations covered during the instruction was administered to compare the participants’ learning of lexical collocations in both groups.

Design
The participants of this study were selected based on nonrandom sampling method but randomly were assigned into two experimental groups to receive two different kinds of treatment; therefore, this study is a quasi-experimental. The study enjoyed a posttest only design with two concept mapping and lexical inferencing strategies as the two values of the independent variable and lexical collocations learning as the dependent variable. Furthermore, all participants were female intermediate EFL learners, so language proficiency and gender were considered as the control variables of the study.

Statistical Analysis
Several statistical analyses were conducted to answer the research question in this study. After scoring PET, pretest, and posttest, the researcher calculated mean, standard deviation of the scores (descriptive statistic). The inter rater reliability of the two raters in the writing section of PET was calculated by the use of Cronbach alpha. The means of two groups’ scores at posttest were compared using an independent samples t-test to test the null hypothesis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Descriptive Statistics of the PET Piloting
Prior to the actual administration, the PET was piloted to ensure that it could be used confidently for participant selection. The section below describes the details of the piloting administration of PET. The data collected from piloting PET were examined with regard to the normality of their distribution. All items of the PET went through an item analysis procedure and no items were discarded thanks to their non-malfunctioning characteristics. Furthermore, the mean and standard deviation of the scores and the reliability were calculated. The mean of the test was 53.26 and the standard deviation of the test was found to be 10.185. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the PET Piloting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35.50</td>
<td>71.00</td>
<td>53.2667</td>
<td>10.18513</td>
<td>-.261</td>
<td>.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The reliability of PET was calculated through the Cronbach alpha formula. The reliability of .826 was achieved which was satisfactory. Table 2 shows the reliability of the piloting PET.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Reliability of the PET in the Pilot Phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach's Alpha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.826</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The writing section of the test was rated by two raters, the researcher and one of her colleagues using the predetermined PET rating scale. The rating was done based on the Cambridge General Mark Schemes including the range of scores from zero to five. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used in order to calculate the inter-rater reliability between the raters. The inter-rater reliability of the two raters scoring the writing papers proved significant (r = 0.89, p < 0.01). The reliability showed that there was a significant correlation between the two raters. Therefore, this ensured the researcher that the same raters could be used for the actual administration of the test (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Inter-rater Reliability of the Two Raters in writing section of the Piloting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rater1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spearman's rho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rater1 Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rater2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Descriptive Statistics of the PET Main Administration

After piloting the PET, the researcher used it as an instrument to homogenize the students in this study. Generally, 90 students participated in the test and after the administration of the test; the researcher selected 60 students whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean. Similar to the piloting phase, descriptive statistics were conducted after the administration of the test. Table 4 shows these statistics with the mean of 56.08 and the standard deviation of 7.11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of the PET Main Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Out of the 90 participants, 60 whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen. In addition, the reliability of the PET for the homogenization of the participants was calculated (Table 5). An index of .701 reassured the researcher of the reliability of this test.
The lexical collocation posttest was piloted with a group of 30 participants in Zabansara institute with almost the same characteristics (the same language proficiency level and age) as the group of the main study. The results of the piloting revealed that there were not any malfunctioning items to be discarded. (Table 6). It has to be indicated also that the posttest was parallel to the pre-treatment test of lexical collocations. And as for the content, those items that were not known to the learners, hence taught to them during the instructions, were included in the posttest.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of Piloting Lexical Collocations posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lexical collocation posttest</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>17.300</td>
<td>1.8411</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reliability of each of the test was calculated using K-R 21 formula. The reliability of the lexical collocation posttest came out to be 0.75 which was satisfactory.

Table 7: Reliability of the Lexical Collocation posttest Piloting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>K-R 21 formula</th>
<th>No. of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lexical collocation Posttest pilot</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive Statistics of Lexical Collocation Pretest and Posttest Main Administration

Before the treatment, a Lexical collocation pre-test was administered in order to make sure the participants in both groups had no background knowledge of the Lexical collocations, which were taught during treatment sessions. As displayed in Table 8 the mean scores for lexical inferencing and concept-mapping groups on the pretest of Lexical collocation are 15.87 and 16.20. However, only those items which were not known by any of the participants were selected to be taught and included in the posttest. At the end of the treatment, in order to test the achievement of the Lexical collocation, a posttest was run to both groups. As displayed in Tables 4.8 the mean scores of lexical inferencing and concept mapping groups on posttest of lexical collocation turned out to be 34.51 and 35.17 respectively.
As shown in table 8 all the skewness ratios fell within the normality range of ±1.96.

In order to examine the comparative effect of lexical inferencing and concept mapping as teaching techniques in improving the knowledge of students in learning lexical collocations, the scores on the lexical collocation posttest of the lexical inferencing group, and the scores obtained from the concept mapping group lexical collocation posttest were compared through applying an independent samples $t$-test. The results were to show whether or not there was any significant difference in the performance of the two groups in the post-test of lexical collocation. The following table shows the result:

| Table 10: Independent Samples $t$-test of the Posttest Scores |
|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
|                  | Levene's Test for Equalities of Variances | t-test for Equality of Means |                     |                     |                     |
|                  | F      | Sig.   | t     | Df    | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference |
| posttest         |        |        |       |       |                |                  |                          |                           |
| Equal variances  | 3.329  | .073   | .659  | 57    | .513            | .662             | 1.00551                   | -1.351                   | 2.675                   |
| assumed          |        |        |       |       |                |                  |                          |                           |
| Equal variances  |        |        | .647  | 47.5  | .521            | .662             | 1.02387                   | -1.396                   | 2.721                   |
| not assumed      |        |        |       |       |                |                  |                          |                           |

With the equality of variances assumed ($F=3.32, p=.07>.05$), the first row was used for the result of the $t$-test. As displayed there, the difference between the posttest mean scores turned out to be non-significant ($t=.659, p=.513>.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis fails to be rejected. This study compared the impact of lexical inferencing and concept mapping as teaching techniques in improving the ability of students in learning lexical collocations. The scores on the lexical collocations post-test of the lexical inferencing group, and the scores obtained from the concept mapping group were compared through applying an independent samples $t$-test. The results showed that there was not any significant difference between the two groups in terms of their post treatment learning of the collocations. The null hypothesis of the study fails to be rejected according to the results of the data analysis. In fact, the results of the lexical collocation post-tests strongly indicated that learning lexical collocation through the lexical inferencing strategy was as effective as the concept mapping strategy. In other words, the participants who were exposed to these two strategies demonstrated enhanced learning of the lexical collocation as they did not know them before the intervention. Furthermore, based on the statistical analysis which has been done, there was no significant difference between the impacts of these two strategies on learning lexical collocations. This outcome is in line with the findings of Nosratinia (2012). She studied the effects of the "concept mapping" and the "Lexical Inferencing" strategies on EFL learners’
retention of phrasal verbs. Similarly, regarding the results of statistical analysis, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between two groups on retention of the phrasal verbs. This result also supports the findings of Cooper (1999) in which he found out the learners are successful in using lexical inferencing strategies to learn idioms. Theoretically, perhaps there is a claim that there is a stronger relationship between learning vocabulary through inferencing and higher levels of achievements than learning the words through memorizing. One probable explanation is that inferencing techniques involve deeper mental processing. In addition, students who used more inferencing strategies considered guessing as a problem solving strategy and it made them enjoy their reading and comprehend the text better. The construction of concept maps may have helped students to build more complex structures in regard to information in the texts than they were able to construct on the basis of individual study and in-class discussions. By the use of concept mapping, students may have been ready to understand not only the ideas in the text, but also the relationships among the concepts and notions, which lead to a better understanding of the texts. It appears that the act of concept mapping helps ESL students to tie information from the text at hand to prior knowledge, to organize and summarize their thoughts during reading, and to organize recall of specific text details and difficult vocabulary which are likewise involved in inferencing process. This may explain why the two techniques were similarly effective on the learning of the collocations. The students in concept mapping group talked about the concept and their relations among these concepts and it is exactly in line with Stice and Alvarez’s findings (1987) that drawing concept maps helped students understand relationships between concepts such as compare, contrast, cause and effect.

CONCLUSION
The purpose of this study was to investigate the comparative impact of using lexical inferencing and concept mapping on EFL learners’ lexical collocations learning. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between the effect of these two instructions in learning lexical collocations. Before starting the instruction, a prepiloted sample PET was administered to 90 female students through which 60 of them whose scores fell within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. Ultimately, 60 students selected as the main sample of this study were randomly divided into two experimental groups referred to concept mapping and lexical inferencing groups. To make further sure that the two groups manifested no significant difference in terms of the dependent variable of the study, independent samples t-tests were run separately at the outset on the mean scores of both groups on a lexical collocation test at the outset. Following the instruction, both groups took a post test of lexical collocation with the mean and standard deviation in the concept-mapping group being 35.17 and 4.52, respectively. In the lexical inferencing, the mean was 34.51 while the standard deviation came out to be 3.13. Comparison of the means of two groups through an independent samples t-test was calculated to test the null hypothesis of the study which showed that there was no significant difference between the performances of the two groups on the posttest. In other words the two teaching techniques were equally effective.
Suggestion for Further Research

Drawing on the theoretical concepts and practical procedures followed throughout this study, some other related studies can be carried out:

Only female students participated in this research; it would be interesting to see whether gender is also a factor or not. Moreover, the focus of the present study was exclusively on the effect of concept mapping and lexical inferencing strategies on lexical collocation learning. Therefore, further research can be conducted with the result of teaching other skills or sub skills through these two strategies. This research was carried out among teenagers; the same experiment could be implemented among other age groups to see whether age is a factor in comparing the impact of concept mapping and lexical inferencing strategies on lexical collocation learning. While this study focused on lexical collocations as one of its outcomes, other studies within the same design could seek other types of collocations including learning of grammatical collocations, technical and academic collocations, weak and strong collocations, and open and restricted collocations. Other kinds of learning strategies could be investigated to find out if there is a better learning strategy suited for teaching and learning collocations.

Limitations

The limitations imposed to the present study were as follows:
1. The researcher could not control the students’ age as there were in a class based on their proficiency level not their age; therefore the result of this study may not be generalizable to other age groups.
2. This research was conducted only in two classes in a language school; consequently, generalizability of the results was limited by the small sample of the study.

REFERENCES


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THE EFFECT OF TITLE FAMILIARITY ON IMPROVING IRANIAN YOUNG EFL LEARNERS’ PERFORMANCE ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
The process of oral communication involves two integral parts: listening and speaking. It is not possible to develop listening skill just through hearing what is spoken. Active listening yields in understanding of what is spoken. Listening is not a single process; series of processes are included in it. In most of the cases we are not fully aware of the processes through which we perceive our first languages, but when it comes to second or foreign language learning we notice this complexity of the processes (Lynch & Mendelsohn, 1995, as cited in Schmidt, 1990). Consequently this study aimed at investigating the role of title familiarity on improving listening comprehension. For this reason the researcher worked on 60 language learners from one of the institutes of Ghazvin. For the purposes of this study, 60 young EFL learners were divided into two groups. At the beginning of the program the researcher conducted a language proficiency test (Cambridge Mover Tests) in order to assure the comparability of both groups. Before the treatment, both groups were administered a listening pretest. The experimental group (n=30) were taught the listening materials through some information about the materials while control group learnt the same ones through traditional instruction, that is they just listened to the materials then they were to answer the relevant questions. After the program, the post-test and delayed post-test were administered to the groups. The data analyzed through t-test. Results indicated that providing learners with additional information on listening tasks had a significantly positive effect on listening comprehension of young EFL learners. So teachers may be able to consider the results actively in relation to improve the learners’ listening comprehension on a daily basis.

KEYWORDS: Listening comprehension, Title Familiarity, Traditional Listening Instruction
INTRODUCTION

In spite of the fact that the role of listening in English as Foreign Language and English as Second Language environments has been clarified, neither learners nor teachers are of an exact knowledge of how to develop this important skill (Wolrin and coakley, 1996). It can be said that listening received less attention in comparison with other skills in research area. It can be said that less attention has been given to listening while comparing with other skills in research area, based on recent research on listening comprehension the significant role of the non-linguistic knowledge on listening comprehension has been emphasized. It was reported that learners perceive the meaning of a text through making use of background information or “schema”. According to different types of knowledge of which is used in comprehension (linguistic/non-linguistic) there would be top-down or bottom-up processing during listening comprehension (Buck, 2001). Generally speaking listening skills are important parts of literacy. As children get older, they learn through listening. Vocabulary is of great role in listening comprehension. Oral language skills develop as children listen to those around them and these skills are the basis of reading and other literacy skills. Most part of a child’s vocabulary develops while children listen to adults and other children around them. Children learn as many as 13,000 words by the time they are six, long before they are competent readers just through listening (Bonk, 2000). Research indicates that we spend 80% of our daily workings communicating, and based on research 45% of that time is spent listening. Although, listening is the most important and primary skill in all areas of language use, most of people are poor listeners. It is found that immediately after listening to ten-minute material the average understand half of what was said, and within 48 hours that drops off another 50% to a final 25% level of effectiveness. It can be said that people comprehend only one-quarter of what was said. It should be found that why we are such inefficient listeners? Firstly, actually we have never been taught how to listen. In schools people are taught speaking, reading and writing skills. Secondly most of us are busy talking and thinking about what to say next that actually we miss out on many important points to learn about new ideas, points..., It is evident that the major part of listening process is asking questions and really listening to answers (Lawson, 2007).

There are supports that can be provided by parents to enhance listening comprehension as follows:

- “Talk with children. Conversation is a great teacher. To converse, it’s necessary to listen to what the other person says. Conversation also teaches the pleasure of being social, which supports successful learning later.
- Read to children. When children listen to stories they practice listening carefully. Adults can ask questions about the book like, “Where did they plant the seed?” or “What happened first?” to evaluate children’s listening skills.
- Play listening games. Games like “Grandma’s Trunk” and “Simon Says” are great for boosting listening skills.
- Listen. When you listen to children you teach them that listening is important and that helps them want to learn to listen well.
Encourage children to ask questions when they don’t understand something that’s said or read to them. Listen carefully to their questions and try to make the information clearer” (Higgins, 1995, p.41).

Listening strategies are those procedures, techniques or activities that are directly act on the comprehension and recall of listening material. Listening strategies can be recognized by how the listener processes the input. Top-down strategies are listener oriented. The listener makes use of background knowledge of the topic, the situation or context, the type of text, and the language. This background knowledge activates a set of imaginations that help the listener to inference what is heard and guess what will come next. Top-down strategies include

- listening for the main idea
- predicting
- drawing inferences
- summarizing

Bottom-up strategies are text oriented the listener relies on the language in the message, that is, the combination of sounds, words, and grammar that creates meaning. Bottom-up strategies include

- listening for specific details
- recognizing cognates
- recognizing word-order patterns

Strategic listeners also use meta-cognitive strategies to plan, monitor, and evaluate their listening. They make planning by deciding which listening strategies would serve best results in a particular situation. They monitor the process of listening comprehension and the effectiveness of the selected strategies. They evaluate through determining whether they gain their listening comprehension goals and that whether the combination of listening strategies selected was an effective one (Hayati, 2009).

**Listening for Meaning**

To extract meaning from a listening material, students must go through four basic steps:

1. Firstly understand the aim of listening. Activate background information of the topic in order to predict or anticipate content and identify appropriate listening strategies.
2. Paying attention to the points of listening input that are more relevant to the identified aim and ignore the rest. This selectivity helps students to focus on specific items in the input and reduces the amount of information they have to hold in short-term memory in order to recognize it.
3. Select top-down and bottom-up strategies that are appropriate to the listening task and use them flexibly and interactively. Students' comprehension improves and their confidence increases when they use top-down and bottom-up strategies simultaneously to construct meaning.
4. Checking comprehension during listening and when the listening task is over. Monitoring comprehension aids students detect inconsistencies and comprehension failures, directing them to use alternate strategies (Tsui & Fullilove, 1998: 432).

What is included in listening?
“Speech perception” (e.g., sound discrimination, recognize stress patterns, intonation, pauses, etc.)

Word recognition (e.g., recognizes the sound pattern as a word, locate the word in the lexicon, retrieve lexical, grammatical and semantic information about the word, etc.)

Sentence processing (e.g., detect sentence constituents, building a structure frame, etc.)

construct the literal meaning of the sentence (select the relevant meaning in case of ambiguous word)

hold the information in short-term memory

recognize cohesive devices in discourse

infer the implied meaning and intention (speech act)

predict what is to be said

Decide how to respond” (Morley, 1991, p.82).

Undoubtedly there are factors of which affect the process of learning as follows:

A: Listener Factors

General

1 Experience/practice in listening to the target language: use of the media (cinema, TV, radio, etc.)

2 General intelligence

3 General background knowledge of the world

More specific

4 Physical and educational

4.1 age/sex

4.2 home background, size of family

4.3 educational background and type of school

4.4 physical health and alertness

5 Intellectual

5.1 knowledge of the target language in its various aspects: phonology, lexis, syntax, and cohesion

5.2 powers of analysis and selection: ability to distinguish between main and supporting points

5.3 knowledge of the specific topic or subject

5.4 memories (short term and long term)

6 Psychological

6.1 motivation and sense of purpose while listening

6.2 attitude of the listener to the speaker

6.3 attitude of the listener to the message: level of interest

6.4 listener’s powers of attention and concentration
B: Speaker Factors
1. Language ability of the speaker: native speaker - beginner-level non-native Speaker
2. Speaker’s production: pronunciation, accent, variation, voice, etc.
3. Speed of delivery
4. Prestige and personality of the speaker

C: Factors in the Material and Medium
1. The language used to convey the message: phonological features, including Stress, intonation, weak forms (especially in conversation), lexis, syntax, Cohesion, etc.
2. Difficulty of content and concepts, especially if the material is abstract, abstruse, highly specialized or technical, esoteric, lengthy, or poorly organized.
3. Acoustic environments: noise and interference.
4. Amount of support provided by gestures, visuals, etc.

Teachers’ Selection Factor
Practice/exposure/experience/opportunity Speaker’s clarity, pronunciation, accent, etc. Acoustic environment: noise, interference Motivation to understand Knowledge of target language further specified as: phonology, stress, intonation vocabulary syntax (especially when complex) ability to interpret cues Familiarity with topic/subject matter Interference from mother tongue Speed of delivery Interest in the subject Attitude to the speaker Classroom conditions/alertness Knowledge of speaker and intentions.

Students’ Selection Factor
Practice opportunities Educational level and background General ability in English/difficulty of the English used Vocabulary/idiom Ability to attend and concentrate Speaker’s production: voice, clarity, etc. Speed of delivery Motivation and attitude Content of text/familiarity TV viewing habits Environment, noise, etc. Family background Radio listening habits Interest Reading habits Note-taking ability Sex of the listener Memory General intelligence (Boyle, 1984).

LITERATURE REVIEW
Among the factors affecting listening comprehension there are various factors within which there is also dialect familiarity as reported by Major et al. (2005), English as a second language (ESL) listeners scored lower on listening comprehension tests when hearing ethnic and international dialects of English than when hearing standard American English. According to Eisenstein & Berkowitz (1981) Standard English was more intelligible for advanced beginners and high intermediate-level learners than working-class New Yorkese or foreign-accented English. According to Tauroza and Luk (1997), some learners perform more successfully in comprehending standard varieties while others achieve greater comprehension of L1-accented varieties is explained by the influence of dialect familiarity. Learners understand the language of which they are exposed as fully as possible are of standard varieties. Recently so much attention
has been given to foreign language listening comprehension, although (Celce-Murcia, 2001, Rost, 2002). Tsou (2005) studied the effects of cultural familiarity on foreign language learning. Tsou administered an anthropology process together with task-oriented approach to administer the cultural lesson. It was proved that when culture-familiar lessons were used in EFL instruction, language proficiency enhanced significantly. During listening or reading people focus on the most essential words that is they skim the unrelated and unimportant ones. Ervin (1992) also has administered a study to see that whether or not listeners would understand the materials of which are culturally familiar to them better than those are not. There were two classes, one of which was Scottish and the other one was Texan, all have listened to a same culture passage and answered to a set of questions. This was repeated twice based on their cultures. As it was reported through T-test, there was no significant difference between same and other culture for the Texan group, while the Scottish group scored significantly high in same culture than the other culture. Genc and Bada (2005) also conducted a study on the effect of culture in language learning and teaching. Students of Cukurava University in Turkey were participants of this study. The results of this study have indicated that cultural awareness is very important and when can be raised; the listening comprehension also would increase significantly. Tehrani & Dastjerdi (2012) also studied the relationship between prior knowledge and EFL learners’ listening comprehension. They found that it will be useful to help learners to build a mental framework to facilitate their comprehension, and that pre-listening supports including cultural information would be an essential part of listening comprehension. They also have found that since listening is a multidirectional process, there are many factors which affect it. Thus students would understand that for comprehending successfully, they must consider the text as a whole and as a result they are to activate their background information, rather than focusing on every single word in discourse. Basavand and Sadeghi (2014) studied on the effect of cultural knowledge on listening comprehension. Generally the results proved that having cultural information is of significant role in comprehending listening materials. All of these findings are supported by Ausubel’s (1968) statement: learning would be effective when it is gained with meaningful materials of which connect the new comings to what learners already know. This must be in a manner of which the new knowledge is fixed into the prior ones. The new information is to be matched with its cognitive structure. Undoubtedly in listening and reading background knowledge is of an important role in comprehending a spoken or written text.

According to Stevens (1982), mental background is one of the widely accepted parameters in listening comprehension. Listening like reading not only involves decoding the materials but also constructing them. It means that we will able to understand what we hear and what we listen only if the relevant information was activated. Most of the language learners don’t perceive what they listen, because of not having the shared knowledge (not being able to activate relevant information) and sometimes and sometimes because of not being able to notice the words correctly. Hensen and Jensen (1995) also worked on the effect of prior study of lecture topics on listening comprehension. They found that the role of background knowledge is more evident in technical lectures than in non-technical ones. Keshavarz and Babaei (2001), also studied the role of background information in listening comprehension and have found no significant difference on the effect of giving information and activating the schema on listening comprehension of the participants. Mueller (1980) conducted a study on the role of prior knowledge in listening
comprehension. This study was performed at different levels of German students. It was found that the participants who received information before listening scored higher than those didn’t receive any information. Long (1990) also studied the effect of background knowledge on L2 listening comprehension of ESL students of Spanish. Participants were given two passages—one familiar and other one unfamiliar. Although the English summaries had more correct idea units for the familiar topics, no significant differences have been reported between the familiar and unfamiliar passages for the recognition measure. Othman and Vanatha (2010), also conducted a study on the role of topic familiarity in listening comprehension. They worked on 34 intermediate students who were majors was business studies at a private institution. Based on the findings of their studies topics familiarity has an influence in listening comprehension. The scores of post-test were significantly higher than that of pre-test. Gabhard (2000) states there is close relationship between the background knowledge and real world experiences and the kind of the expectations we have. This knowledge is of great importance when we consider the language processing problems of learners. So listening doesn’t mean just identifying the linguistic features of the text but also pairing speech to what the listener already knows about the subject. He then adds that the process of listening comprehension would occur only if the listener can place what she/he listens in a context. When the listener knows something about the listening material thus comprehension is more likely to occur. Sadighi and Zare (2006), investigated the impact of background knowledge on listening comprehension. They reported meaningful difference in participants’ post-test scores. Their post-test scores were very higher than pre-test. Salahshuri (2011), also worked on the role of background knowledge in foreign language listening comprehension. He reported that the participants regardless of their levels scored higher on the familiar passages. Cultural schema when involves familiarity, helps readers to reform the reading materials. This resulted from the fact that there is encoding decoding process during reading. The readers based on their background reconstruct the readying materials (Erten and Razz, 2009).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES
1- Does Title familiarity have any effect on Iranian EFL learners listening comprehension?
2- Does Title familiarity result in improving the listening comprehension?

Null hypothesis1: There are no significant differences in the effect of Title familiarity on Iranian EFL learners listening comprehension.
Alternative hypothesis1: There are significant differences in the effect of Title familiarity on Iranian EFL learners’ listening comprehension.
Null hypothesis2: There are no significant differences in the effect of Title familiarity on Iranian EFL learners’ listening comprehension.
Alternative hypothesis2: There are significant differences in the effect of Title familiarity on Iranian EFL learners’ listening comprehension.
METHODOLOGY

Design of the study
The design of the study is quasi-experimental, that is there was not random assignment. The independent variable of the study was providing title relevant information and the dependent variable was EFL listening comprehension.

Participants
A total of 60 language learners with an age range of 15-18 participated in this program of which lasted for one academic semester. All the participants were from Persian background. They were selected from 7 classes. The participants were students of the one of the high institutes of Ghazvin Iran.

Instruments
In this study the researcher made use of following materials:
Pre-test of which was administered on participants listening skill was listening test which its material was Jack C, Richards’ book called Tactics for Listening which were chosen from the source book of the institute. The test consisted of 4 listening passages that included 5 short listening comprehension texts followed by 5 multiple-choice questions for each of them in order to evaluate the participants’ performance.

The post test of which was conducted at the end of the program was 20 multiple-choice test which were followed 4 new listening passage included 5 short listening comprehension texts from the same source book and delayed posttest was given after one month after the first posttest.

Procedures
Before starting the program one language proficiency test was conducted on learners’ skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing, for assuring their proficiency level. After that one pre-test was administered for proving the comparability of both groups. Then the researcher started the program. The researcher taught listening materials in Experimental group through providing them with information about title and for instance about the jobs of the speakers and their names as generally as possible, the researcher tried to made use of standard dialects of English in order to control the possible effect of variation of dialects on comprehension. Since the researcher herself is not a native speaker of English she provided learners with culturally related information when it was possible, but because the researcher didn’t experience the target culture it can be said that cultural information can be considered as more general information. But in control group learners just listened to the same materials by themselves and then answered the relevant questions. After 18 sessions, one post-test was administered to both groups. The collected data was analyzed via Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In this study there was just one research question, because the first one was that of loading but the answer is: Yes familiarity affects the process of listening comprehension. As a result the
researcher aimed at finding answer to the second question, as it evident in the following figure:

both groups were approximately at same level at the beginning of the study:

After administering the program the researcher conducted a post-test of which there were meaningful changes in experimental group as given in the following figure:

The mean of control group in pre-test was 12.9 while in post-test was 13.2 as it is evident there was no meaningful improvement, it is also given in the following figure:
In experimental group mean of pre-test was 12.13 while in post-test was 17.93, thus there was meaningful changes in post-test scores in this group. The gathered data was analyzed by SPSS as is given in the following table:

### Independent Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test of Equality of Variances</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pretest</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>0.608</td>
<td>.439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>-1.35</td>
<td>-1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Posttest</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>1.116</td>
<td>.296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances</td>
<td>-7.613</td>
<td>-7.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on Leven test for equality of variances in this table, Sig. (2-tailed) for both groups is 0.891. It means, there is no significant difference in means of both groups in pretests and confidence interval of the difference proved the results. According to the Leven test, there is a significant difference in means of both groups in the posttests since the \( p \) value is (\( P>0.05 \) ) (means of experimental group improved so much and the difference of post tests is meaningful) consequently the positive effect of familiarity on listening comprehension has been proved. Also the group statistics are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.9999</td>
<td>1.94446</td>
<td>.38867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experi.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.1333</td>
<td>2.23677</td>
<td>.44721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.2400</td>
<td>1.74877</td>
<td>.34775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experi.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.9333</td>
<td>2.57808</td>
<td>.51962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings of this study have indicated that providing learners with relevant and important information is of key role in listening comprehension. Anderson & Lynch (2000), has reported that when learners are given essential information, the process of learning would be facilitated. The results of this study are in agreement with those of which found positive supports for the effects of providing information in listening comprehension, for example that of Anderson & Lynch (2000), Markham and Latham (1987), Ockey (2007) Schmidt-Rinehart, (1995), Jonsen and Hasen (1995), Sadighi and Zare (2006) and Salahshuri (2011) Babaei (2001) and Aidinlou et al., (2012).

CONCLUSION
The aim of this study was to investigate the role of the title familiarity on improving listening comprehension in order to develop listening skill through hearing what is spoken and listening activities by providing additional information on listening tasks. The results of this study indicated that listening comprehension can be enhanced by preparing appropriate instructions. So when learners are given information on listening activities there is no such a burden on memory in the process of understanding what is spoken ,that is ,it might be concluded that cognitive load was lowered significantly. Teachers have to re-check their methods and techniques. The educators are to know that they must put emphasis on the listening processes rather than the listening test results. The other point that should be taken in to account is that background information that students bring with them to classrooms helps them to perform the listening task more successfully, thus when is not in active form, educators are to activate it, & when there is no enough information ,should be provided by teachers. Teachers’ responsibilities are more than just providing learners with linguistic knowledge. Learners will be able to use target language as effectively as possible in required situations. Title familiarity is an essential factor in the comprehension of unfamiliar texts.

Implication and Limitation of Study
The most important implication of the current study for the language classes specifically foreign language classes in schools has to do with the type of activities which are related to participants'...
knowledge about what they heard to support learners' performance in listening comprehension. The key point is that the learner's knowledge and information toward key units and words in texts should be enhanced. Another point pertains to the type of listening texts and instructions used in classrooms. The other factor contributing to the cycle of study is selection of materials according to the learners' proficiency level, their background, activities and instructions during session's processes that should be related to the aim of study. In addition to all these, language teachers and syllabus writers are supposed to incorporate a range of information related activities and change the weight of listening lessons from testing listening into teaching listening so that they could support language learners to enhance their listening performance and listening comprehension. To put the same point in a different way, the data and results clarify fundamental concepts specifically for the teachers who may be able to consider the results actively in relation to what they do in the classroom on a daily basis. Like all studies, the present study suffered from some shortcomings. To start with, the time span in this study was not sufficient for learners to concentrate well enough on the listening comprehension instruction by regarding title familiarity to help them transfer processed information responding the questions. Additionally, the study didn't take the various ages of learners into account, and learners with a limited age range took part in this study.

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A BRIDGE IS NOT A HOME: GENDER-BASED INSTITUTIONAL DISCRIMINATION IN SUZAN-LORI PARKS'S IN THE BLOOD

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ABSTRACT
In spite of the big strides in the field of granting black people in the United States of America their rights since the abolition of slavery, race-and gender-based discriminatory practices are still prevalent. The paper aims at exploring the gender-based discrimination against a homeless black mother who is oppressed and exploited by the very institutions that are originally established to help her. It is divided into three sections. Section one deals with the questions of race and gender in contemporary America. Section two deals with the various forms of gender-based discrimination in Suzan-Lori Parks's In the Blood while section three states the main conclusions of the study. It is concluded that unlike black men, black women are oppressed not only because of their race and class, but also because of their gender. Also, Parks wants to emphasize that unlike in the past, forms of discrimination in contemporary America are less clear and direct.

KEYWORDS: Parks, racial discrimination, gender, In the Blood.

SUZAN-LORI PARKS: THE QUESTION OF RACE AND GENDER IN CONTEMPORARY AMERICA
'I dont think the world likes women much' (Suzan-Lori Parks,4-68)

Suzan-Lori Parks (1963-) was twenty one years old when she began writing for the theater. Her first two attempts of writing, The Sinner Place (1984) and Betting on the Dust Commander (1987) failed, but the third play she wrote, Imperceptible Mutabilities in the Third Kingdom (1989), won the Obie Award for best new off-Broadway play, followed by another Obie Award for Venus in 1996. This means that Parks "comes to the [American] stage when the discourse on race appears most vulnerable to change"(Goto,2007.p.107). Historically speaking, Civil Rights Movement in the United States of America has made big strides from its inception in the late 1950s until the mid-1980s in its fight for equality. However, "Does that mean racism no longer exists?" asks Goto in his thought provoking article "Digging Out of the Pigeonhole: African-American Representation in the Plays of Suzan-Lori Parks." The answer to this question, Parks
seems to concur with Goto, is 'absolutely not.' For both of them, this only means that Black people
must look harder and longer into [their] language, history, and movements to extract that mold of racism harming [America's] democratic potential. The extraction requires new tools – new ways of seeing, acting, and speaking that may seem unconventional, if not outright strange.(Ibid)

This is what Parks is bent on doing in her plays. Using the stage as her medium, Parks creates new ways for African-Americans to express and represent an identity that goes beyond the idea of essential blackness and oppression. This new kind of representation challenges the oversimplified discourse on difference, which critics and audiences seem to expect and demand from African-American playwrights. In fact, Parks often disagrees with the critics who repeatedly read her African-American characters as unilaterally oppressed. This kind of reading, in Parks's viewpoint, is outrageously simplified and conventional. Meticulously surveying the representation of the black people on the American stage, Parks thoughtfully wonders: "Can a Black person be onstage and be other than oppressed? For the Black writer, are there Dramas other than race dramas? Does Black life consist of issues other than race issues?"(Parks, 1995, p.21). In the light of these questions, it is crystal clear that race and racial oppression constitute the common denominator in the historical as well as the daily experience of the black people. In other words, race is inescapable and inevitable factor in the formation of the black experience.

This experience acquires new dimensions when race joins forces with gender in the case of black women. In her seminal essay, "Elements of Style" (2008,p.8), Parks explains "I am an African American Woman–this is the form I take, my content predicates this form, and this form is inseparable from my content. No way could I be me otherwise." This sheds light on the centrality of these two elements, i.e., being black and woman to Parks's theatrical enterprise. These two elements, Parks contends, contribute to doubly 'otherized', 'inferiorized' and 'marginalized' the black women not only within the white-dominated society, but also within black communities. This makes the use of a black feminist approach that "embodies the realization that the politics of sex as well as the politics of race and class are crucially interlocking factors in the works" of Parks an "absolute necessity" if a full understanding of her plays is to be achieved (Lewis, 2012, p.119).

Parks's plays, in fact, reveal a deep interest in discussing the roles gender and race play in a black woman's life. In relation to this, Dixon(2001, p.219) points out Parks's tendency to "treat her characters' racegender, like other characteristics, as emblematic." Her main concern is not the discussion of racegender-based ideas per se. Rather; she is more interested in showing the role these elements play in deepening the already existing gap(s) between the Afro-American women and the representatives of the dominant white society.

At the center of this racegender discourse in relation to the representation of black women is the question of the status of the female body which occupies a central place in "so many [contemporary] social and political controversies" (Sanchez-Palencia & Cuder, 2012, 142-143). Sanchez-Palencia and Cuder remark the complexities involved in the representation of women’s
bodies on stage mainly because they constitute a "part of a complicated system of patriarchal referents"(Ibid) that tend to either objectify or mystify them.

Parks usually criticizes the stereotypical representations of the female body in her plays. However, in none this criticism is as clear and strong as in *Venus* (1996) which "can be regarded as the master narrative through which black women continue to be constructed"(Lewis, Looking Forward, 2012, p.161). Parks dramatizes the sensational story of Saartjie Baartman, *The Venus Hottentot*, a 19th century South African woman whose aberrant anatomy (the abnormal protuberance of her buttocks and genitalia scientifically termed as *steatopygia*) made her the object of sexualized glory, ethnographic documentation, imperialist practices and market commodification as she was exhibited naked in the freak shows of London and Paris inspiring both horror and fascination(Sanchez-Palencia & Cuder, 2012,p.143).

Parks, however, is not interested in digging into the history of Baartman's journey from the colonized and exoticized Africa to the colonizing Europe. Rather, she tends in *Venus* to focus on her own contemporary culture "evidencing that the former modes of physical and psychic colonization persist under different forms"(Ibid, 144). Keizer illustrates this phenomenon with instances of the hyper-exploitation of black female bodies in American consumer culture, like the proliferation of buttock-enhancing jeans, pants and surgery, or the fascination with the backsides of Beyoncé, J.Lo, Rihanna and other black divas, which bespeak a utilization of black body stereotypes to signify a hot, wild, appealing female sexuality. This means that the image of the black woman is equated to her sexual parts and is exploited within popular culture(Qtd in Ibid, pp.143-144). This image, more often than not, conforms to "a racialized and gendered system of representation and signification"(Martin, 2014, p.54).

In another essay entitled "An Equation for Black People Onstage,"(1995) Parks discusses the nature of the Black-White relationship on the American stage. She laments that "The bulk of relationships Black people are engaged in onstage is the relationship between the black and the White Other." Since the "use of the White in the dramatic equation is …too often seen as the only way of exploring … Blackness," this equation reduces Blackness, Parks contends, "to merely a state of 'non-whiteness'." This means that the lives of black people consist of nothing save "a series of reactions and responses to the White ruling class"(p.19) Parks firmly rejects these widely spread negative attitudes and misconceptions about the black and suggestively talks about the existence of “many ways of defining Blackness and …of presenting Blackness onstage"(Ibid).

In her plays, Parks makes serious attempts at "construct[ing] a new African-American identity in which individuals are no longer solely defined as victims of oppression and racism, instead they are portrayed as real humans with their own virtues and vices"(Vanmarsnille,2009,pp.7-8). To construct this new African-American identity, Parks employs a number of dramatic strategies. The first strategy is to probe beneath the apparently glittering crust of the history of the United States of America. In his article, "Digging the Fo'-fathers: Suzan- Lori Parks's Histories," Thompson (2007,167) confirms that the phrase "Digging the Fo'- fathers "gets "at the primary activity of Parks’s plays." He further adds that "the resurrection and remembering of histories…are both the form and content of Parks’s operating theatre"(Ibid.). The aim of writing
these 'histories' is not to present the life of stately or heroic figures, but to “locate the ancestral burial ground, dig for bones, find the bones, hear the bones sing, write it down” (Parks qtd in Geis, 2008, 19). This process of digging and excavating the past aims at filling the empty 'spaces,' 'holes' and 'absences' of history as Parks calls them (Qtd in Thompson, 2007, p.167) In looking for these 'absences', Parks is intent on discussing some of the contemporary gendered and racial discourses relevant to the treatment of Afro-American women.

The second strategy Parks uses is related to the language. In fact, Parks distinguishes herself from her contemporaries when she invents her own approach to using language and pauses, which becomes a signature quality to her work. She becomes well known for her formula of 'rep and rev' repetition and revision. Do it again; do it differently. This term is first coined by Gates, he calls it "repetition and revision, or repetition with a signal difference" which Parks then further paces down to 'rep and rev'(1988, p.xiv).

In her play In the Blood, Parks uses language with different denotations and connotations for most characters. Characters that are poorly educated use less complex words and syntax. While the more educated characters use a more formal language. In his article In the Blood, Krasner (2000, pp.565-566) reports that Hester uses "language symbolizing her life beneath, below, and beyond the gaze of society." In the same vein, Berkman comments on the special use of language in the play. He points out that

Throughout In the Blood, four-letter ‘S’ words, each with sharp emotional impact, proliferate like babies: Soda and slut fast link to slow, to sack, soup, shoe, soap, sell and – most devastating of all, yet with Hester able to spot only the ‘A’ in it – spay. (2007, p.63)

Parks also uses a certain type of punctuation such as altering the ordinary punctuation with using intervals of silence which she refers to as "dramatic pause" by repeating the characters' names for emphasis. She is not telling her tales through words only but with sounds. As a result of using such technique of doubling characters, naming her characters with words that bear meanings of their traits, and uses a series of soliloquy–like "confessions", the play has reaped tremendous success. Parks's writings are always imbued with posing and answering questions regarding race and gender problems.

As the following section will reveal, In The Blood tackles many themes relevant to the status of Afro-American women in contemporary America like gender discrimination, society's oppression, violence, and sexual harassment. In a satirical style, Parks explains how society blames and punishes those who are mainly created by the neglect of its own institutions and organizations.

**Gender-based Institutional Discrimination in Parks's In The Blood**

In 1999, the year in which In the Blood premiered at the Joseph Papp Public Theatre’s New York Shakespeare Festival, the United States Census Bureau reported that 39% of single black mothers (nearly 1.5 million families) were living below the federally established poverty line. The Bureau also reported that while the poverty rate for African Americans as a group dropped to a record low that year, “the poverty rate for Blacks in 1999 [23.6%] was still about three times
the poverty rate for White non-Hispanics (7.7 percent)”(Qtd in Larson, 2008, p.91). Besides being poverty-stricken, Hester la Negritta, the protagonist of the play, is a homeless mother of five fatherless children. In a 1987 national study, Martha Burt found that 9 percent of the homeless people were single women, and another 9 percent were women accompanied by their children. The single black women form 47 percent of the total number of homeless women (Glasser & Bridgman,1999,p.20). Glasser believes that the number of homeless single black women might be greater because unlike homeless men "a characteristic survival strategy of homeless women [in general] is to keep hidden from view"(Qtd in Ibid) So, black women suffer invisibility not only in the theatre, but also in many public spheres. No doubt, living on the streets or under the bridges, as in the case of Hester, involves great dangers for the homeless women for "once on the streets they are... at great risk of violence"(Ibid., p.57) Those women might seek help and protection from individuals, institutions and governmental bodies whose duty is to help them and alleviate their suffering. Unfortunately, these same institutions sometimes become an essential factor in exploiting, harassing, and aggravating the already critical living conditions of those women. Hester is an example of a homeless black woman who is abused, brow beaten and oppressed by the very persons who are supposed to redress her problems.

To explore the impact of poverty and homelessness and their implications for the various systems at work in contemporary America, Parks blends the bleak story of Hester with Nathaniel Hawthorne’s dark romance The Scarlet Letter (1850), in her first “Red Letter Play,” In the Blood(For more information about Parks's other Red Letter Play, Fucking A, see Jefferson, 1999).

In the Blood tells the story of Hester and her five children—all of whom are doubled with an adult character in the play. Each of these adult characters, male and female, confesses to a sexual fascination for Hester as well as to sexually exploiting her in some ways. The Doctor (the middle son, Trouble) and the welfare lady (aka “Welfare” and the oldest daughter Bully) are also trying to sterilize Hester, while her white “friend” Amiga Gringa (the youngest daughter, Beauty) steals from her. Reverend D (the youngest son, Baby), her most recent lover, refuses to acknowledge her out of fear that it will damage his ministry and his status in the community, and her first lover Chili (doubled with the oldest son Jabber) finally returns after years of absence only to reject Hester when he discovers the children she conceived with others during their separation. Throughout the play, Hester’s health deteriorates, and she eventually has visions of Armageddon. Her circumstances, coupled with the trauma of hearing Jabber call her a “slut,” drive her to beat Jabber to death, and she uses the blood of her murdered son to write an “A”—scarlet by nature—on the ground next to his body (Larson,2008, p.91).

As she did in Venus (1996), Parks presents us with a woman “who has been famously romanticized and mystified” and asks us to “consider her again through the lens of our cruel and continuing histories of oppression”(Geis, 2004, p.140).Yet, Parks’s substantial revision of Hester Prynne and The Scarlet Letter also shows that time, and thus history, have only become more malignant for America’s present-day Hesters, especially if they are black and poor. Indeed, time and history have only complicated Hester’s plight. New oppressions compound the old and
ultimately leave Hester without hope or escape and make her like Hawthorne's Hester a social outcast (Ibid).

In addition to that, Hester La Negrita is marked by the letter 'A'. It is the only letter she knows of the English alphabet. However, the mark is also symbolic; it speaks to Hester's social and possibly political illiteracy, her lack of critical knowledge which helps to keep her in her position at the periphery of society. This can be seen in the ways in which the various people and institutions in her life exploit and oppress her. In this way Parks's play considers the social and cultural, and economic environment and the various influences which shape Hester's lived experiences (Keene, 2012, p.10).

Similar to Greek classic tragedy, Parks begins her play with prologue and ends it with epilogue; the actors become a kind of chorus that circles Hester like vultures. In the prologue, Parks sets the tone for the play that is to follow, a severe assault on the political, medical, capitalistic, and religious systems that define the American ideal. Besides all the action of the play occurs out-of-doors, because Hester is never allowed inside literally or symbolically, and that indicates the unity of place. Parks designates the place for the play as "Here" and the time as "Now", which refers to the poverty of the whole atmosphere of Hester's life. Significantly Hester's home is under a bridge, a place that alienates her from civilized society.

Hester is victimized by her race, gender, her naiveté, intense longing to be a good mother, and economic status. Her allegedly best friend, Amiga Gringa, is friendly only as long as Hester has something for her to take. The medical profession wants only to stop her from procreating, even as it takes advantage of her and her dire conditions. The government, through the Welfare Lady, has little time for Hester and offers her work for which she is unprepared. Formalized religion represents for her only another form of oppression and subjugation. Her true love and the father of her eldest son, Jabber, cannot abide the burden that loving her brings (Williams, 2009, 799).

As a result, Hester falls outside the realm of the accepted social parameters. The guidelines which police and protect the lives of those who fit into the dictates of the social order, do not apply to her. Consequently, women, similar to Hester, whose livelihood is dependent upon assistance from the government, often, are monitored around issues which most people would consider personal, and thus not subject to public ridicule. These women are scrutinized harshly around practices deemed as overly sexual or irresponsible; practices, which according to society, are a burden to their pockets and a detriment to the social morale (Keene, 2012, p.52). In the Prologue to the play, this message is conveyed by words spewed from the collective voices of the people who represent society at large and are named by Parks as ALL: "SHE KNOWS SHERS A NO COUNT/SHIFTLESS/HOPELESS/BAD NEWS/BURDEN TO SOCIETY…WOMAN GOT 5 BASTARDS/AND NOT A PENNY TO HER NAME/SOMETHINGS GOTTU BE DONE TO STOP THIS SORT OF THING" (Parks, 2000, p.31) These informative statements said by All explain, in clear-cut terms to what extent Hester is cornered and oppressed by people around her.
Society not only alienates Hester, but also rudely invades and intrudes in whatever small personal spaces she owns. On her "practice place" the word "SLUT" is scribbled by some bad boys; an action that makes the seed of anger against society gradually grows inside Hester, although she doesn't exactly know the meaning of the word but she prefers her "place clean". Jabber, her eldest son, tries to remove this word. Although he teaches his mother how to read and write, she is very slow. She asks him about the meaning of the word because the letters of the word 'Slut' are "mysterious" to her. The only letter she knows is "A". Jabber refuses to read the insulting word in order not to hurt his mother's feelings. Hester with bitterness predicts the bad meaning of this word but she knows that she is obliged to live with it:

HESTER: We know who writ it up there. It was them bad boys writing on my home. And in my practice place. Do they write on they own homes? I dont think so. They come under the bridge and write things they dont write nowhere else. A mean ugly word, I'll bet. A word to hurt our feelings. And because we aint lucky we gotta live with it.(1, 35)

Thus in this cruel society that only perceives Hester as "SLUT," "HUSSY", and a "BURDEN TO SOCIETY", and shows no mercy or sympathy for her, Hester struggles to find help for herself and for her five children by any means available. She is a model for motherhood. She starves herself so her children can eat, she goes without sleep in her attempt to provide them with their needs. She calls them "treasures" and "joys" that give meaning to her life. She helps her Children to enjoy their meals by telling them that the soup has everything they love in it. Also she helps them to sleep by telling them stories. This is the 'black mother figure' who is always presented historically in literature as someone who, "at all costs, nurtures, protects, self-sacrifices" and cares for her children. In contrast to the mainstream culture that stigmatizes Afro-American woman as mindless, crude and expendable (Kolin, 2010, p.11).

Since the contents of In the Blood hinge upon matters that affect the social realities of women, specifically, Afro-American women: reproductive rights, hyper-sexuality, gender roles, and single motherhood which are shaped by race, class and gender among other things (Keene,2012, p.56), Parks chooses to discuss these issues through a series of dramatic confrontations between Hester and the representatives of the American society. Each of those representatives makes a confession that exposes the hypocrisy and duplicity of his declared claims and declarations.

Hester's first confrontation with the System that oppresses her takes place in her meeting with Amiga Gringa who is supposed to be her 'white' friend. Amiga claims to share in Hester's oppression, but actually she participates in it. She always steals from Hester every chance she gets. She steals food and money from poor Hester. When Hester gives her a watch and asks her to sell it, she cheats her and never gives her all the money back. Amiga wants Hester to make use of her reproductive ability. She dishonestly wants to make Hester sell her own babies in return for money. In this way, she contributes to commodifying and dehumanizing the motherhood experience. The 'womb' as the most essential part in the woman's reproductive system is thus turned into a factory machine subject to the economic principle of supply and demand.
Larson (2008, p.97) argues that Parks introduces Amiga to "reinforce the growing modern separation between black and white women." Amiga’s whiteness, Larson adds, allows her the privilege to reject unjust labor demands. Having sold her white children, Amiga does not have the stigma of being a begging unwed mother like Hester, who admits: “no one gonna give money to me with me carrying Baby around”(1-46) As such, Amiga will either find legitimate work with a living wage or will make more money from her illegal/illicit activities than Hester, allowing for at least the possibility that Amiga’s poverty is not permanent or systematic (Ibid).

In her confession, Gringa states that she is better than Hester, thanks to her "white womb" that makes her more valuable. People desire her white children, she can sell them without feeling guilty. On the contrary, Hester's black womb lacks value and proves itself a threat to society. Gringa's main concern is to get the cash by selling "the fruit of [her]white womb"(5, 77). Moreover, she criticizes Hester for accepting the sewing job offered by the Welfare lady, which she considers beneath her. She calls it "chump work" that leads to nothing and enslaves the worker. Instead of helping Hester, Gringa makes things harder and dimmer for her.

As a result of poor nutrition, poverty, and the weight of societal ridicule, Hester feels ill. She has a stomach ache and she ought to see a doctor. The doctor who is supposed to hold a human job, should take care of his patients, and looks after them, plays a very different role with Hester. He joins forces with Gringa in treating Hester in an inhuman manner by examining her in the street, like a mechanic, and looking up into "her privates'. The Doctor claims that the "Higher Up" – the federal Medicare system- is pressuring him to 'spay' her to end her fertility. The Doctor wants to remove her womanly parts in order to prevent her from begetting more children. He exploits Hester sexually and manipulates her body to satisfy his desires. In so doing, he contributes to subverting her womanhood, motherhood, and humanism just to keep his own position high.

This scenario mimics the historical truth of the sterilization of Afro- American women. Jennifer Nelson notes that while white middle class feminists were fighting for the right to abortion, Afro-American women and women of color were fighting for reproductive freedom, "the freedom to have as well as not to have children"(Qtd in Keene, 2012,p.58). Feminist organizations such as the Committee for Abortion Rights and Against Sterilization Abuse (CARASA) argue "that a woman's income and economic assets determined [her] ability to control [her] reproduction in a capitalist society"(Ibid). Consequently, because women of color are disproportionately low income or working class and because women are the bearers of children, the intersections of race, class and gender are elements which work together to repress them.

Through The Doctor's confession, Parks manages to criticize the stereotypical images of black female "bodies as possessions, as objects of desire, and as bloody biological battlefields"(Thompson,2007,p.181). In his confession, the Doctor narrates his sexual encounter with Hester. However, he blames not himself but Hester who, he claims, tries to seduce him and not the other way around. He perceives himself a victim to her seduction because "She gave herself to me in a way that I had never experienced, even with women I've paid,…What could I do? I couldn't help it" (2, 58-59) .Combined with Reverend D's description of illegitimate babies who are born out of wedlock as "The ultimate disaster of modern times,"(3-60) these lines
In a gender-stratified society, in which sex, sexuality and the body are socially constructed, J. Lowman notes: "prostitution represents the pole of a system of sexual stratification and must be resisted as the quintessential form of men's exploitation of women… Prostitution is the raw end [sic] of patriarchy" (Qtd in Hatty, 2014, p.71). According to V. Jenness, prostitutes are often viewed as "social misfits, sexual slaves, victims of pimps and drug addiction, and tools of organized crime". Moreover, harassment, abuse and violence are integral to prostitution. In fact, the evidence indicates that prostitute women are subjected to frequent acts of verbal abuse and physical violence, including sexual assault, and are stigmatised as 'whores' or 'hookers' (See ibid, 72-75).

In accordance with this, N. J. Davis holds the view that prostitution is a type of gender victimisation or a paradigmatic case of sexism according to Hatty. Carole Pateman maintains that prostitution is inherent in the 'sexual contract' that exists in patriarchal society. In prostitution, men buy the sexual body of the woman, a far more significant purchase than that which occurs between employer and employee in capitalist society (Ibid., p.73).

Research conducted on women who work as prostitutes indicates that poverty plays a major role in drawing women into prostitution. The structural inequalities associated with a highly stratified labor market, in which women earn only a fraction of men's wages, render prostitution an attractive alternative to impoverishment. However, it is possible to argue that women who are disadvantaged through their membership of marginal groups or disadvantaged backgrounds are candidates for prostitution (See Ibid).

Unquestionably, the various points raised in the above argument concerning prostitution are very well reflected in the case of Hester. Because of the vicious cycles of poverty, ignorance, and discrimination, Hester is compelled to offer sexual services to male partners who exploit her. She is stigmatized as a 'slut' and 'hussy' and is subject to various forms of verbal abuse and sexual harassment. Like many other poor and disempowered black women, Hester prostitutes herself to earn living. Hester’s sexuality, indeed, seems to be her only significant source of earning income, but unfortunately, theater critic Sarah Wilkinson explains, her “sexual acts are paradoxically both Hester’s saving grace and her downfall, her only way to acquire money and the reason why she has none” (Qtd in Larson, 2008, p.105). Moreover, Hester sexual activities, Keene (2012, p.63) observes, help only to reinforce the stereotypical image of Afro-American women as hype-sexualized and sensual.

Hester’s next confrontation comes through the political system in the form of the Welfare Lady, who, like all others before her, views Hester as a resource, taking advantage of her dire situation to find profit. Welfare does, however, offer Hester a way to secure financial assistance asking her to name the deadbeat fathers of her treasures, giving the government an opportunity to access their salaries and gain income for both herself and her children. Hester is unwilling to take this
step, mainly because she does not wish to bring harm to Chilli, her soul mate, her first and only love, who is the father of her eldest child, Jabber.

Like the Doctor who represents the medical system that takes much and gives less to Hester, the Welfare Lady, who represents the Welfare system in society does the same. Although the Welfare Lady maintains that "I walk the line between us and them between our kind and their kind," (4,69) she and her husband exploit Hester and use her as "little puppet" for their pleasure. As a matter of fact, the Welfare Lady cares for Hester just because it is her job to care: "I care because it is my job to care. I am paid to stretch out these hands, Hester. Stretch out these hands. To you"(4,65).

The problem with the Welfare Lady is that she is only interested in showing off, even when she offers Hester the sewing job; she gives her the fabric without teaching her how to sew it. She does it not for the sake of offering a real honest help, but to do her job only. She never lets Hester speak; she just obliges her to do the work:

WELFARE: Needles, thread and the pattern, in this bag. Take the cloth. Sew it. If you do a good job therell be more work. Have it sewn by tomorrow morning, yll get a bonus.(4, 68)

Moreover the Welfare Lady blames Hester for running from the shelter she argues:

We at Welfare are at the end of our rope with you, Hester. We put you in a job and you quit. We put you in a shelter and you walk. We put you in school and you drop out …We build bridges you burn them. We sew safety nets, harder, good strong safety nets and you slip through the weave.(4,64)

But Hester claims that she has been harassed by all people there. Instead of helping her and her children the social helping agenesis are interfering in her life through their representative who systematically exploits her. She reports "The shelter hassles me. Always prying in my business. Stealing my shit. Touching my kids"(4,65).

As a result , Hester loses trust in such deceptive system that claims deep concern for those who are in need, but in fact it does not. In fact, instead of encouraging Hester and her children to be good members of society, the Welfare Lady blames them for being poor people and she scorns them , in her confession, she criticizes Hester and claims such type of woman inferior to her because of the sins she commits.

The Welfare Lady's confession utilizes language that invokes historical discourses around race and racism. When she states' I walk the line,' W.E.B. Du Bois's claim of the problem of the color line for the twentieth century emerges (Qtd in Keene, 2012, p.63). The reference to 'our kind' and 'their kind' mimics the dialogue of racial divisions. This difference in kind, in spite of The Welfare Lady herself being a black woman is sufficient in expressing racial ideas of separation. It also speaks to the divisions which can exist within racial groups, as influenced by social
ideologies and class distinctions. This can be seen in the dissimilarities that The Welfare Lady notes, between herself and Hester:

It was my first threesome
And it wont happen again.
I should emphasize that
She is a low-class person.
What I mean by that is that we have absolutely nothing in common.
As her caseworker I realize that maintenance of the system depends on a well-drawn boundary line
and all parties respecting that boundary.
And I am, after all,
I am a married woman. (4-71)

The Welfare Lady's treatment of Hester, the welfare mother, translates the public attitudes towards these mothers and helps to perpetuate the stereotypical images of women on welfare "lazy, hyper-sexual, irresponsible and social leeches." Consequently, it is quite natural, David Zucchino argues in "Myth of the Welfare Queen: A Pulitzer Prize Winning Journalist's Portrait of Women on the Line", that women on welfare (particularly black women) become "a class of women ... despised by mainstream America"(Ibid,p.48).

The religious institution that is represented by Reverend D. also participates in Hester's oppression. He makes adultery with her and is a father to her newly-born Baby, but he displaces his shame onto her and expresses his hatred for what she has done. In turn, Hester prepares a strategy to secure him; she never gives his name to the Welfare Lady who insists on knowing the baby's father's name although she has already given names of her other four children's fathers.

Hester takes Amiga's advice to take Baby's picture and go to his father to ask help. Hester goes to Reverend D. who is "On his soap-box preaching to no one in particular "(3,59), she covers her face by the baby's photo, he sees her but doesn't recognize her:

REVEREND D.: Do you know the father?
HESTER: Yes.
REVEREND D.: You must go to him and say "Mister, here is your child!"
HESTER: Mister here is your child!
REVEREND D.: "You are wrong to deny what God has made!"
HESTER: You are wrong to deny what God has, made!
REVEREND D.: "He has nothing but love for you and reaches our his hands every day crying wheres daddy?"
HESTER: Wheres daddy?
REVEREND D.: "Wont you answer those cries?"
HESTER: Wont you answer those cries? (3,60)
Reverend D. seems to make his own trap. As he speaks, Hester repeats all his words back to him. Hester who owns all his tapes and armed by his immediate words "Go, to him. Plead with him. Show him this sweet face and yours. He cannot deny you "lowers the picture of her baby to show him her face, only to have all words flee. When the words resume, the Reverend denies Hester and claims that he has never seen her before: "Me, someone you've never even met", he rushes to call a taxi for her, he stays explosive with hollow promises of help:

HESTER: He's talking now. Not much but some. He's a good boy.
REVEREND D.: I am going to send one of my people over to your home tomorrow. Theyre marvelous, the people who work with me. Theyll put you in touch with all sorts of agencies that can help you. Get some food in that stomach of yours. Get you some sleep. (3,61-62)

By using such confrontational dialogue between Hester and Reverend D., Parks clearly presents a poignant satire directed at the doubled-faced representatives of religion as an institution. She satirizes their hypocrisy and meanness. Reverend D. says something but does another. In his preaching he gives a powerful speech about how to help those who are in need. But in reality, he does nothing to improve Hester's life. In his confession, he bares himself to the audience:

In all my days in the gutter I never hurt anyone.
I never held hate for anyone.
And now the hate I have for her
and her hunger
and the hate I have for her hunger.
God pulled me up.
Now God, though her, wants to drag me down
and sit me at the table
at the head of the table of her fatherless house.(6, 85)

Reverend D. joins forces with the other influential figures in Hester's life; i.e., the Doctor, Amiga Gringa, and the Welfare Lady, to marginalize, oppress and forsake Hester and her children. Thus, he is as liable as them in aggravating her plight that leads to her tragic fate. Reverend D's treatment of Hester does not only mark the systems of race, class or gender as inherent issues, his character functions more as an institution or a system, similar to Capitalism, which promises a reward, but often fails to deliver (Keene,2012,p.64).

Hester's long journey of suffering and desperation culminates in the fatal blow she receives from Chilli, Jabber's father. In a form of nostalgic feeling, he returns to Hester after 13 years of absence. He justifies his own irresponsibility towards Hester and his son in his confession "We was Young" by claiming:

We was young
and we didn't think
we didn't think that nothing we could do world hurt us
nothing we did would come back to haunt us

we were Death Defying
we were Hot Lunatics
careless as all get out (7-98)

This points at the dangers involved in the practice of unguarded sex. Chilli's irresponsible decision to leave Hester to pursue his life elsewhere sheds light on the inequality in man-woman sexual relation as she is to bear the consequences of rearing socially unacceptable fruit of this relation; i.e., illegitimate children and of being stigmatized as 'unmarried' and 'single welfare mother.'

Through Hester's contact with Chillie, the questions of gender roles and gendered stratification of society are vividly presented and intensely debated. Chilli maintains the same traditional and patriarchal position that views women as secondary and subordinate to men and confines them to the private sphere of housekeeping and child rearing. He is ready to return to her on condition that he

would still retain [his] rights to [his] manhood… I would rule the roost. I would call the shots. The whole roost and every single shot. I've proven myself as a success. You've not done that. It only makessense that I would be in charge. (7-95)

At this point in the play Chilli does not know that Hester has four other children. When he finds out, the circumstances of Hester's new engagement instantly switches. Chilli recoils from his marriage proposal and tells Hester that they cannot be together. He takes back his wedding gifts: the ring, veil, and dress and leaves. The image of a single mother with five children, four of which are not his own is a deterrent for Chilli and his dream of marriage; Hester herself understands how this could be a barrier, as exemplified by her reaction to Chilli's question of who are the other four children. Hester's response is "the neighbors kids"(Italics mine) (7-96). Though only a momentary denial of her children, it exemplifies the disparaging connotations associated with an unmarried woman with multiple children. The notion of having too many children has had a negative impact on Hester's life. However, not necessarily due to her condition, but more so, by what the people around her perceive that to mean. The men in Hester's life, past and present, are as culpable for the situation in which Hester finds herself as she is(Keene, 2012, p.57).

Hester’s desperation and hopelessness make her see a vision, which personifies a bad omen. The vision as she describes it is like an eclipse: "It was a big dark thing. Blocking the sun out. Like the hand of fate. The hand of fate with its five fingers coming down on me"(6,82). Toward the end of the play this vision becomes true.

In her last confrontation with the Reverend D., he calls Hester " slut" and threatens to crush her under foot. By doing so Reverend D. shows himself as a priest without any religious ethics. Jabber who wakes up, overhears Reverend D. and recalls that this label –slut- was written in his
mother's practice place. He asks his mother to define the appellation for him, but she refuses, he says that he has lied to her when he pretended that he could not know how to read that word at that time. But in fact he knows how to read it and knows what it means as well. Jabber repeats this word one time too many. Hester, in a desperate effort to refuse this identification, takes up the club Trouble brought earlier in the play and brutally beats her son to death:

HESTER /JABBER /HESTER/ JABBER
She quickly raises her club and hits him once. Brutally. He cries out and falls down dead. His cry wakes Bully, Trouble and Beauty. They look on. Hester beats Jabber's body again and again and again. Trouble and Bully back away. Beauty stands there watching. Jabber is dead and bloody. Hester looks up from her deed to see Beauty who runs off. Hester stands there alone. Wet with her sons blood. Grief stricken, she cradles his body. Her hands wet with blood, she writes an A on the ground.(8,103-104)

With her son's blood, Hester shaping her last 'A'. Her farewell to her son is a sorrowful boast: "Looks good, Jabber, don't it? Dont it, huh?" Schafer (2001, p.193)maintains "It is Hester final attempt to write her own story and claim her own identity rather than accept that offered by a society that will condemn her."

Hester can do nothing to stand against her fate represented symbolically by the hand that blocks out the sun with its five fingers. In the last confession, Hester focuses not on the killing but on what she has done. She calls her children "mistakes" rather than "treasures". She states that she should have had "a whole army full" of those "Bad mannered Bad mouthed Bad Bad Bastards! (8-106)

In the final scene of the play which Parks calls 'The Prison Door', the same title of the opening scene in Hawthorn's Scarlet Letter, the chorus appears. They frame Hester's tragic downfall. All her accusers close in on her, blaming her for her lack of education, for her sexuality, for her lack of husband, and her poverty. She is accused of failing to get further than the first letter of the alphabet, and forced sterilization awaits her to put an end to her mistakes. The choice of the scene's title is very suggestive and apt as Hester is trapped and imprisoned in various forms of psychological and emotional deprivation, social alienation, and financial insecurity.

Parks manages to present her protagonist as a victim of society that seeks to exploit the black female body. She explains through her protagonist how systemic racism, ongoing racial stereotypes, mapped across the black female body; and societal complicity create the unfortunate life of her protagonist. Harry J. Elam Jr. suggests that Hester La Negrita is a victim, but also tragically complicit in her own oppression. He argues: "Hester's tale offers a poignant, contradictory conjunction of suffering and survival, institutional neglect, and individual abuse"(Qtd in Larson,2008,p.105). Although the hypocritical society institutions are all responsible for what she is suffering from, she herself is to blame, in part for her own catastrophe and her social exclusion.
In an interview, Parks claims, "I just write tragedy and devastation. It's like bleeding, like when they used to bleed folks. The play creates a wound that is actually the first stage in the healing process" (Spring Theater, 2001). This wound is what Parks hopes to heal by reconfiguring the literary canon. In the apt words of Jefferson (1999, p.2), we will "Leave 'In The Blood' feeling pity and terror. And because it is a work of art, you will leave thrilled, even comforted by its mastery".

CONCLUSION

Parks addresses the audience at the end of the twentieth century. In In the Blood, she manages to present an image of a black woman who is brutally victimized by the social system in a society that has no sympathy for those who are socially outcast. Hester La Negrita, the protagonist, is oppressed by Reverend D. and the Welfare Lady, who are Afro-Americans, as well as by the Doctor and Amiga Gringa, who are whites. So the issue is not who is black and who is white, but it is who is responsible for what she suffers from. Till she reaches a convention that "I dont think the world likes women much" (4,68), she believes that all bad things happen to her because of her race and gender which force her to resort to violent acts of destroying herself and her own family. Parks focuses on the important role race and gender play in making large number of young black women illiterate and unemployed; a fact that leads to their marginalization and impoverishment.

This situation makes Hester more like Euripides's Medea (431 BCE), killing out of spite and vengeance against a world that has unfairly branded her a slut. They are neglected and maltreated by the same social institutions created to provide care and compassion to the poor.

In The Blood, Parks seems to suggest that whereas seventy years ago acts of discrimination were overt and widespread, persistent racial inequality in employment, housing, and a wide range of other social domains has renewed interest in the possible role of discrimination. In fact, unlike in the pre–Civil Rights era, when racial prejudice and discrimination were overt and widespread, today discrimination is less readily identifiable and clear.

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THE COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF TASK COMPLEXITY, RECASTS AND RECASTS PLUS TASK COMPLEXITY ON THE ORAL ACCURACY OF EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study aimed to comparatively investigate the effect of recast, task complexity and recast plus task complexity on the Iranian advanced English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' Oral accuracy. To that aim, three groups of learners, a total of 90 female EFL learners, were assigned to three experimental groups to receive the treatments each: task complexity, recasts, and task complexity plus recasts. The homogeneity of the three groups of learners in terms of general proficiency as well as their oral accuracy was checked at the outset, and finally the learners were interviewed to compare their oral accuracy with a posttest. The data obtained from TOEFL were analyzed and one way ANOVA was employed to assure homogeneity of learners regarding language proficiency and oral accuracy scores on the pre-test. The research came to the conclusion that both recast and task complexity led to the enhancement of learners' oral accuracy while the combination of recasts and task complexity seems to have contributed to less positive impact. Based on the findings of the present study, the following implications could be arrived at: 1. teachers may decide to employ recasts and task complexity in their classes more than before 2. Teachers may start reflecting and investigating different underlying constructs for the concept of recasts and task complexity in their classroom 3. Material developers may consider the inclusion of task types which foster the use of recasts in the classroom more than before.

KEYWORDS: task complexity, recast, oral accuracy

INTRODUCTION
Researchers (Long, 1985, Dulay, & Burt, 1973) in second language learning and teaching have been searching for the ways for dealing with errors. For example, when the focus is on meaning, the emphasis is placed on fluency rather than accuracy (Long, 1985). Thus, this results in a compromise on accuracy, which may be fossilized in the learner's interlanguage. In the same context, the language classrooms have used corrective feedbacks with the aim of focusing on form and meaning techniques. As Chastain (1998, cited in Gholizade, 2013) States:"Learning requires feedback. Otherwise, the learners have no means of judging the extent and
appropriateness of their learning. Consequently, many studies in second language acquisition have focused on the effect of corrective feedback on the quality of learning". (p. 418). Even today, in spite of the plethora of research that has been conducted on the subject, the question of what constitutes the most effective instructional approach remains controversial. One of the fundamental issues underlying the debate has been and continues to be what should serve as the starting point in determining the content of second language teaching. In line with the argument SLA researchers have shown an increased interest in exploring analytic approaches to syllabus design for the past decade and one type of analytic syllabus employing task as a unit of analysis has received particular attention (Long, 1985; Long & Crookers, 1992; Skehan, 1998; Skehan &Foster, 2001).Meanwhile research suggests that, in order to achieve native-like proficiency, output needs to be supplemented by consistent corrective feedback. According to Doughty (2001): "Implicit strategies of corrective feedback are receiving increasing attention from SLA researchers, and this is due to their possibility of directing learners’ peripheral attention to form without diverting their focal attention from meaning"(Doughty, 2001, cited in Leeman, 2003, p.19).

Of all the implicit corrective strategies, such as clarification requests, comprehension check, and repetition seek, recasts seem to hold special promise. Recasts are generally described as the teacher's or more advanced speaker's reformulation of all or part of a learner's utterance, thus providing relevant morph syntactic information that was obligatory but was either missing or wrongly supplied, in the learner's rendition, while retaining its central meaning"(Long, Inagaki, & Ortega,1998,p.358). Recasts involve the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of the student’s utterance, minus the error, as shown in example (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). To recast an error, an interlocutor will repeat the error back to the learner in a corrected form. Recasts are used both by teachers in formal educational settings and by interlocutors in naturalistic language acquisition.

Research to date suggests that recasts can facilitate L2 development, but their efficacy is a function of several internal and external variables one of them being task variables. For example, Robinson (2001) suggests that, "task complexity increases the cognitive demands of tasks"(p.287), and it may influence the efficacy of recasts. According to Robinson (2001, 2003), some tasks, depending on their attentional demands, may be more effective in inducing learners to notice recasts than others. Along the same lines, a study conducted by Lyster and Ranta (1997) is an important research project on corrective feedback, culminating in the identification of seven types of corrective feedback, one of which is recast. In the same context, the following study seeks to find out the effect of recasts, task complexity and task complexity plus recasts on the Iranian EFL learners oral accuracy.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

Is there any significant difference between the impact of recast and task complexity plus recast on EFL learners' oral accuracy?
Is there any significant difference between the impact of task complexity and task complexity plus recast on EFL learners' oral accuracy?

Is there any significant difference between the impact of task complexity and recast on EFL learners' oral accuracy?

**METHODOLOGY**

This study was conducted in Iran. A thorough description of the participants, procedure, and instrumentation carried out for this study are presented in this section.

**Participants**

The participants were 90 female EFL learners at upper-intermediate level who were assigned to three experimental groups. They were studying in Safir language institute. They were homogenized using a TOEFL. Initially 120 students took the test, students standing at one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants. After the administration of the test participants were selected and they were divided into three groups of 30 members.

**Instruments**

The following instruments were applied in this study:

**TOEFL Test**

The TOEFL test included reading, structure and speaking sections. It was taken from sources including Baron's TOEFL (10th edition, 2008). There were two sections (reading-50 items, and structure-40 items) on this test which took a total of about ninety minutes to complete. There was also a speaking section which comprised 6 tasks which involve expressing an opinion on a familiar topic. This test was piloted on a group of 10 students having the same level of proficiency as those who took part in the study. The test was applied in order to have a homogenized group at general level of English and also scores achieved at speaking section were analyzed in terms of the participant's oral accuracy prior to treatments.

**Course book**

The course book which was utilized for the purpose of instruction in this study was "Total English" (by Will Moreton, 2011) comprising 12 units, 3 of which is taught per-term (42 hours). This book consists of the following:

- Extensive speaking, pronunciation and vocabulary sections
- Thorough grammar sections with clear examples and practice
- Comprehensive listening activities with scripts
- Contemporary, engaging reading materials taken from authentic sources
- Writing Banks with the chance to practice different writing styles
- And finally, the Review and Practice pages after each unit bring all the learning activities together.
It was used the institute’s routine and was the main course of attention during the whole 21 sessions of the term. There was a focus on the speaking section of this book.

Procedure
In order to meet the criterion of the study the following procedure was followed:

Treatments
Initially, TOEFL was piloted on a 10-member group to make sure it was appropriate for the group in question. After the administration of TOEFL to the subjects of the study out of 120 ninety participants were chosen based on the normal histogram of the TOEFL. That is to say participants with scores lying between one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen for the purposes of the study. The participants were divided to three groups. Then an oral interview test was conducted to assure the homogeneity of the participants regarding oral accuracy. One way ANOVA was employed to probe any significant differences between the means of the groups with regard to oral accuracy. The participants in our three groups started to receive one of the three treatments each. In experimental group I, students received recasts with a special focus on certain lexicon and structures. That is, the participants in this group consistently received recasts from the researcher when they produced erroneous sentences. The recasts were typically of the simple isolated declarative type; that is, they targeted a single error and were provided with falling intonation, without added emphasis on the targeted feature (Kim & Han, 2007; Lyster, 1998). A small number of recasts were also provided, albeit randomly, in response to other ill-formed structure and lexicon. The two conditions namely "watch-and-tell" and "watch-then-tell" were used for classifying the complex tasks. The rational for these conditions was based on the research finding conducted by Skehean and Foster (1999). "Comparing the learners’ performance under these two conditions, Skehan and Foster observed that the watch-then-tell condition led to greater complexity than watch- and-tell" (skehan and Foster, 1999, cited in Révész, 2009, p.18).

The tasks in this group were of simple ones which had a watch-and-tell condition. That is, the learners had to watch the films and to simultaneously narrate what they saw in the film. They also could resort to note-taking to retrieve the information. The films included the following themes: a trip to Europe, history of Iran, whale in the sea. These topics were selected due to the structural elements these films covered. In addition, the language of the films was suitable for upper-intermediate level. Initially, the learners in all three groups were introduced to the task. To this end, they were given warm-up activities on the topics of the films. Subjects were encouraged to elaborate on what they knew about these topics and share them with their classmates. After each task, the learners reviewed the task and once again referred to the film to check how they had performed on the task. Experimental group 2 received no recasts and had to perform a complex task. This group was required to perform with a watch-and-then-tell and – contextual support conditions. That is, the learners watched some videos and then had to narrate the story shown in the video while having no access to the videos or notes. Experimental group 3 was exposed to both complex tasks and recasts which were the same as those used in groups 1 and group 2. Overall, 10 sessions were held and in each session forty five minutes was devoted to the administration of the treatment.
Oral Interview Tasks

Oral interview tasks were used both as the pretest of oral accuracy and also as the post test of oral accuracy. The pretest and posttest employed oral production tasks: the three experimental groups were asked to take part in an interview in which each student was asked the same set of questions. The topics included: motivation for learning English, the job they will select in the future, the favorite sport, and five advantages of internet. All interviews were tape-recorded and two raters rated the oral accuracy of the interviewees. Inter-rater measurement was applied in order to insure reliability of scores. Accuracy was measured in terms of error-free T-units as follows:

All the main clauses plus subordinate clauses attached to or embedded in them were counted as T-units. Only those T-units that contained no grammatical, syntactic, lexical, and errors were counted as error-free T-units (Arent, 2003; Storch, 2009). (E.g. in the following text there are two error-free T-units)

1-Since young children tend to connect short main clauses with 'and,' they tend to use relatively few words/T-unit. But as they mature, they begin to use a range of appositives, prepositional phrases, and dependent clauses that increase the number of words/T-unit.

2-I walked west and I come to a house. (An error-free T-unit and a T-unit with error).

To measure accuracy, the number of error free T-units is divided by the total number of t-units (Arent, 2003; Storch, 2009). The result is multiplied by 100 to obtain the percentage.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Testing the hypotheses

Three hypotheses were put forward for the following study as follows:

There is not any significant difference between the impact of recast and task complexity plus recast on EFL learners' oral accuracy.

There is not any significant difference between the impact of task complexity and task complexity plus recast on EFL learners' oral accuracy.

There is not any significant difference between the impact of task complexity and recast on EFL learners' oral accuracy.

A one-way analysis of variances was run to compare the three groups’ means on the posttest of oral accuracy in order to investigate our three research questions. Before discussing the results it should be mentioned that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene’s F (2, 87) = 2.28, P > .05) (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.288</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

225
As displayed in Table 2, the recast (M = 35.35, SD = 5.06) had the highest mean on the posttest of oral accuracy. This was followed by task complexity (M = 33.75, SD = 6.64) and recast plus task complexity (M = 27.15, SD = 4.25) groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recast</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35.35</td>
<td>5.060</td>
<td>1.132</td>
<td>32.98 – 37.72</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task complexity</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33.75</td>
<td>6.460</td>
<td>1.485</td>
<td>30.64 – 36.86</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recast plus task complexity</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27.15</td>
<td>4.258</td>
<td>.952</td>
<td>25.16 – 29.14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results displayed in Table 3 (F (2, 87) = 12.90, P < .05, \(\omega^2 = .28\) representing a large effect size) it can be concluded that there were significant differences between the means of the three groups on the posttest of oral accuracy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>755.733</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>377.867</td>
<td>12.906</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1668.850</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>29.278</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2424.583</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The F-value of 12.90 indicated significant difference between the three groups’ means on the posttest of oral accuracy; however, the post-hoc Scheffe’s tests should be run to compare the groups two by two in order to investigate the research questions. Based on the results displayed in Table 4, it can be concluded that;

**A:** The recast group (M = 33.75) significantly outperformed the recast plus task complexity (M = 27.15) group on the posttest of oral accuracy (MD = 6.60, p < .05). Thus the first null-hypothesis as there is not any significant difference between the impact of recast and task complexity plus recast on EFL learners’ oral accuracy was rejected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>(I) Group</th>
<th>(J) Group</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
<th>Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Oral accuracy</td>
<td>recast</td>
<td>Recast plus task complexity</td>
<td>8.200 *</td>
<td>1.711</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>3.90 – 12.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest Oral accuracy</td>
<td>Task complexity</td>
<td>Recast plus task complexity</td>
<td>6.600 *</td>
<td>1.711</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>2.30 – 10.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
B: The task complexity group (M = 35.35) significantly outperformed the recast plus task complexity (M = 27.15) group on the posttest of oral accuracy (MD = 8.20, p < .05). Thus the second null-hypothesis as there is not any significant difference between the impact of task complexity and task complexity plus recast on EFL learners’ oral accuracy was rejected.

C: There was not any significant difference between the task complexity (M = 33.75) and recast (M = 35.35) groups means on the posttest of oral accuracy (MD = 1.60, p > .05). Thus the third null-hypothesis as there is not any significant difference between the impact of task complexity and recast on EFL learners’ oral accuracy was supported.

Discussion
The aim of the current study was to investigate the comparative effect of recast, task complexity and recast plus task complexity on Iranian advanced EFL learners' oral accuracy. The results of one way ANOVA indicated that both the recast group and task complexity group outperformed the recast plus task complexity group on the post test of oral accuracy.

As pointed out earlier recasts according to Long et al. (1998) refer to a speaker's reformulations of "all or part of a learner's utterance, thus providing relevant morph syntactic information that was obligatory but was either missing or wrongly supplied, in a learner's rendition, while retaining its central meaning" and task complexity as Robinson (2001) maintains refers to the "attentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on the language learner" (b, p.29). On the other hand, the study revealed that there was not any significant difference between the effect of task complexity and recast on the learner's oral accuracy.

In a nutshell, the study came to the conclusion that both recast and task complexity led to the enhancement of learners' oral accuracy while the combination of recasts and task complexity seems to have caused less positive impact. The fact that recasts have contributed to the enhancement of oral accuracy in this study corroborates the results of many studies conducted in which recasts have been used (Egi, 2010; Ammar, 2008; Long, 2007; Robinson, 2005a, 2003a 2001a, Braidi, 2002; Havranek, 2002; Ayoun; 2001).

Regarding the finding that task complexity has also led to the betterment of oral accuracy in this study, this result confirms the findings and views of many scholars who are in favor of task complexity (Nelson, 2011; Michel, M. Kuiken, F. & Vedder, I. 2007; Larsen-Freeman, D. 1997; Fotos, S.S., 1994; Long, M. H. & Crookes, G. 1992).

Respecting the finding that recasts and task complexity have approximately led to an equal degree of improvement in terms of oral accuracy it could be concluded that both types of treatments have possibly activated the same constructs which underpin the cognitive ability of the learners with respect to oral accuracy. In other words both types of treatment although different on the surface may have not a striking disparity when it has come to the acquisition of grammar hence the improvements in both groups.
With respect to the fact that a combination of recasts and task complexity has led to a lesser degree of positive effect on learners' oral accuracy could probably have its roots in the amount of demand it has placed on the shoulders of the learners. That is to say both task complexity and recasts may have contributed to a sort of confusion on the parts of the learners.

CONCLUSION
In this study the researcher attempted to investigate the impact of recasts, task complexity and recast plus task complexity on the oral accuracy of Iranian advanced learners. The study came to the following conclusions: both recast and task complexity led to the enhancement of learners' oral accuracy while the combination of recasts and task complexity seems to have caused less positive impact.

Firstly the results of the study revealed that both the recast group and task complexity group outperformed the recast plus task complexity group on the post test of oral accuracy. Moreover it was found out that there was not any significant difference between the effect of task complexity and recast on the learner's oral accuracy. These findings remind us of the nature of recasts and task complexity. That is to say the results help shed more light on the impact of task complexity and recast. The fact recasts and task complexity have approximately led to an equal degree of improvement in terms of oral accuracy, it could be concluded that both types of treatment although different on the surface may have not been very different when it has come to the acquisition of grammar hence the improvements in both groups.

Pedagogical Implications
Based on the findings of the present study, the following implications regarding the impact of recasts, task complexity and recasts plus task complexity on learners’ oral accuracy could be arrived at:

• Overall, by employment of recasts and task complexity teachers can help enhance the oral accuracy of their learners. That is to say based on the results of the present study teachers may decide to employ recasts and task complexity in their classes more than before.

• Awareness of teachers might be developed regarding the question that why task complexity and recasts led to an enhancement regarding the oral accuracy but a combination of these two was not very fruitful. In this respect, as pointed out earlier, it could be concluded that both types of treatments may have possibly activated the same constructs which underpin the cognitive ability of the learners with respect to oral accuracy. As a consequence teachers may start reflecting and investigating different underlying constructs for the concept of recasts and task complexity in their classroom. This may, in turn, lead to the enhancement of and could be considered as one of the components of the reflective repertoire that teachers hold.

• Material developers may consider the inclusion of task types which foster the use of recasts in the classroom more than before especially when it comes to the requirements and objectives of the courses and may likewise decide to consider more factors while constructing the syllabus.
• Last but not least, teacher educators may draw upon the results of the study while discussing the impact of recasts and task complexity or a combination of these two on oral accuracy.

Limitations
• The subjects of this study were all female learners aging between 19 to 30.
• The present study focused on the skill of speaking, only.
• The participants of the study were advanced learners of English.

REFERENCES


STUDENTS’ ERRORS IN TRANSLATING TEXTS FROM PERSIAN TO ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT
In the present day, translation and translation studies have expanded in most countries and there are professional translators all around the world. However, some parts of languages and thoughts cannot be translated easily due to the diversity of parts of speech in different countries. (Na Pham, 2005; Yarmohammadi, 2010; Dodd, 1999). This study aims to shed light on the problems which students face in translating from Persian to English. An error analysis approach to identify linguistic translation errors was used to discover students’ main problems. Thirty English Language Translation students were selected through purposive sampling. A Persian - English translation task was administered to collect the corpus for analysis. All the students' translations were analyzed to identify linguistic problems. Three lecturers were interviewed for their understanding of the causes of students’ errors in translation. It was found that mainly syntactic errors occurred in their translations. Considering the students’ errors and categorizing errors devise appropriate translation teaching techniques. Moreover, being aware of students’ causes of errors is suitable for the translation teachers to improve their tasks.

KEYWORDS: Translation; errors in translation; error analysis; linguistic errors; syntactic errors
INTRODUCTION
The need for effective and efficient use of information and knowledge in developing countries such as Iran is obvious as access to the latest information is only possible with a good command of English or with good translations. English is the most important foreign language in Iran’s education system (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010). In recent years, the B.A programmes in Iranian universities have introduced English translation courses that teach translation strategies, theories of translation, interpretation, translation of simple prose texts and translation of different types of texts (literary, news, political). English Language Translation students must undergo 4 years of study in language proficiency, linguistics, and all the theories of translation and strategies of translation of texts in various fields such as literature, economics, politics and religion.

Translation training is often run by language departments and is spread over two and a half years, starting from the second semester of year 3 and ending in year 4. The problem is that very few of these graduates qualify as good translators. According to Rahimy (2003), many studies find that most of the graduates are just incapable of presenting a meaningful translation of different text types. Hence, much of the translated work in Iran, such as translation of Persian literary texts into English, is poor and quite unintelligible. Specifically, in some cases, the sense of the main message in the second language (SL) is actually omitted. Khanmohammad’s (2012) study suggests that most students have basic problems in comprehending the original text. She points out that if translation students have problems understanding the second language or target language (TL) culture, they would be unable to transfer the culture-specific items accurately. She also notes that students transfer pragmatic sense through literal translation, thus failing to convey an accurate translation. The main purpose of this study is to understand students’ errors in translation from Persian to English, and to seek explanations for these errors.

Many researchers all over the world have tried to understand translation errors through error analysis such as Stewart (2008); Na Pham (2005) from Vietnamese to English; Dodds (1999) from Italian to English (Coskun, 1997; Seguinot, 1990). However, none have focused only on syntactic errors in detail. Iranian researchers have also studied students’ errors in translation but not in detail (Golestany, 2010; Jamalimanesh, 2009; Khodabandeh, 2007; Riazi and Razmjoo, 2004). As Kiraly (1995) indicated: “Error analysis should help translation teachers understand the problems (linguistic, cultural, textual, production) that occur during the process of a translator’s training”. The findings of this study may contribute to research in translation studies on other language pairs or combinations, and may also help translators and TEFL students majoring in translation studies to improve in their translation.

PREVIOUS STUDIES
In the Iranian context, Riazi (2004) found that errors occurred when there are simple substitutions of one syntactically correct structure for another which is equally syntactically correct, even if semantically incorrect. Coskun (1997) explored another dimension of translation problems. The result of his study showed that students made errors both in comprehension and production due to miscomprehension of the source text. Besides that, the students only translated the surface structure.
In another study on error analysis in translation, Khodabandeh (2007) revealed that the students’ difficulties were mainly with grammar, as well as with discourse and vocabulary. Another study analysing linguistic errors showed that Iranian students attempting English translation sometimes find foreign journalistic text-types harder than domestic ones to translate (Rahimy, 2003). The study reported in this paper aims to explore the category of errors among Iranian English Language Translation students in order to discover the causes of their errors. It also aims to find out the most common errors found in these students’ translation.

Errors and Error Analysis in Translation
Errors occur when the learner’s knowledge of the rules of the target language is incomplete. Errors are considered to be systematic, governed by rules and also regarded as rule-governed when they follow the rules of the learner’s interlanguage (Keshavarz, 2011). According to Abbasi and Karimnia (2011) it is essential that teachers be able to adjust their teaching plan to work more effectively by identifying learners’ errors. Moreover, recognizing errors can provide valuable information for teachers about how much the learner has learned and what kinds of problems s/he has in the study of language.

According to Pym (2010), translation errors may be attributed to different causes and located at different levels (language, pragmatics, culture). He defines three kinds of errors in translation: slips, systematic errors and skill-related errors. Slips occur when the students can repair the errors when they are pointed out to them. Systematic errors are the surface sentence-grammar errors, and the third type involves the skill or ability to use the language, rather than the knowledge of language. The possible reason for making these errors is that the language learner has not mastered those aspects of grammar yet, or the use of idioms is not culturally appropriate.

According to Richards et al. (1993: 96), “EA may be carried out in order to: a) find out how well someone knows the language, b) find out how a person learns a language, and c) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning”. EA is used to analyse the actual errors produced by foreign language learners and an attempt is made to explain the causes of the errors. Various techniques are available for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting language learners’ errors (Khodabandeh, 2007). According to Seguinot (1990), errors indicate the quality of a translation and are also are windows into the translation process itself. Translation errors provide two kinds of information: an indication of how information about language might be organized in the brain and an insight into the developmental process that takes place in translator training (Na Pham, 2005).

Error analysis models for translation in previous studies focused on language competence, grammatical rules, spelling and phrases which are the subcategories of linguistics, and rarely focus on text meaning (Golestany, 2009; Jamalimanesh, 2009; Khodabandeh, 2007; Stewart, 2008; Na Pham, 2005; Riazi and Razmjoo, 2004; Dodds, 1999; Coskun, 1997 and Seguinot, 1990). This study adapted Na Pham’s (2005) Error Analysis Model (figure 1) to explore linguistic translation errors. Linguistic translation errors based on Na Pham’s framework are categorized as morphological errors, grammatical errors, syntactic errors, collocational errors and inappropriate word form errors. By analysing linguistic translation errors using Na Pham’s error model...
Analysis model, this study seeks to gain a better understanding of students’ linguistic errors in translation.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**
1) What are the most common types of error found in the students’ translation pieces from Persian to English?
2) What are the plausible explanations for students making these errors in their translation from Persian to English?

**METHODOLOGY**
A qualitative research design was employed to find out the English language translation students’ errors in translation. Using purposeful sampling, 30 final year English Language Translation students who had completed 3 years of academic instruction and had attended the entire translation studies programme from the Department of English Language Translation of Shiraz Islamic Azad University of Iran were selected. The criteria for selection were that the subjects: 1) should have a similar educational background and 2) must be easily accessible. In addition, three lecturers, two male and one female, each with more than 10 years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language as well as translation studies, were interviewed for their explanations of the causes of students’ errors.

**Translation Task**
Subjects were asked to translate one text from Persian to English. The source text was selected by the 3 professors of translation courses in Iran. The selected text of 167 words was extracted from “Translation Skills from Experts and Professional Points of View in Translation” by Janzadeh (2008:162) which was introduced by the professors of translation in Iran universities and which is also taught in universities. It contains several literary texts and short stories translated from Persian to English and vice versa. The text, translated by a translation expert with more than 20 years of experience, has been used for more than 5 years in English language translation courses in Iran universities. Thus the content of the book was deemed appropriate for the students who are familiar with it.

While asking the lecturers for help with selecting an appropriate text from the book, the author explained the purpose of the study, the statement of the problem and the framework of the study.
They had taught the book for more than five years and they were asked to make sure that the students had not worked on this text before. The text was a short story about a man who wants to sell his old horse.

A checklist was designed to ensure that the task would enable the elicitation of useful information to answer the research questions of this qualitative study. The checklist, adapted from Zailin Shah’s (2004) criteria for selection of literary texts for the literature classroom, consisted of criteria for ensuring the validity of the literary text. Zailin Shah (2004) advised taking into account some factors related to the text and the readers, such as: the difficulty level of the language, the complexity of vocabulary, the length of the text, the subject matter, the prior knowledge of learners, and their interest level. The checklist used a Likert scale from 1 to 4: 1 (poor), 2 (fair), 3 (average), 4 (good). Lecturers were asked to indicate their preference for the text by ticking any number from 1 to 4. An additional space was provided below the checklist for lecturers to offer other suggestions. The checklist was approved by the same three lecturers who were asked to assess the validity of the text.

Data Collection Procedure
Prior to the interview sessions with the teachers, the researcher arranged a meeting with each of the three lecturers to explain to them the topic, the statement of the problem and the aim of the research. The interview sessions with the lecturers were conducted in their respective rooms. They were asked to answer 3 core questions about the students’ most frequent errors and also students’ causes of errors in translation. One week after interviewing the lecturers, the translation task was administered to the students in the form of a class activity. All 30 students in the three translation classes (10 students from each class) performed the task in the regular class time. In order that the students took the task seriously, the researcher asked the lecturers to consider using the translation task score to count towards their final score. Subjects were free to use any dictionaries they liked. In a regular translation exam, the students would require 110 minutes to translate this text. In this study, participants were given 120 minutes to translate the text from Persian to English to ensure that they could complete the task and that the pressure of time would not cause them to make more errors. After they translated the text, the students were interviewed about the causes of their errors. Interviews with students were conducted to collect data about the insights or perspectives of research participants.

Data Analysis
The translations of the 30 students in the sample were collected and analysed. Errors were underlined and classified in terms of their sources, using Na Pham’s taxonomy. Based on Na Pham’s (2005) translation error analysis, a table was designed to count the number of errors identified in each category. Following Creswell’s (2008) suggestion, the frequency and percentage of errors were calculated manually. Students’ translations were compared to the published translation of the source text and analysed by the researcher. Errors were coded and classified. All the errors were categorized and noted down directly on the students’ translations. Students’ translations were compared with the original source text and the published translation of the ST. The researcher underlined and coded each student’s translation piece based on the
category and subcategory of errors. The codes were classified and the results presented in a table. The percentages of each category of errors were displayed in separate tables.

For the purpose of analysis, the researcher first transcribed and translated the lecturers’ and students’ interviews from Persian to English. To ensure the accuracy of the translation, a Persian-English bilingual colleague checked the transcribed texts. Secondly, the transcriptions of the lecturers’ and students’ interviews were carefully read for the purpose of coding the data which was done with the assistance of an expert with more than 5 years of experience in analysing qualitative research and data analysis in the English Department of Islamic Azad University of Shiraz, Iran. Thirdly, the researcher made a list of all the code words and also grouped together similar codes, removing redundant codes to reduce the list of codes. The themes were identified by examining the codes that the participants discussed more frequently. In other words, the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss 1967) formed the foundation for data analysis in this study. The researcher began the process with open coding, by examining the interview transcripts, looking for categories of errors and causes of errors, and highlighting the category of errors, followed by naming and coding the categories based on the conceptual framework of the study. In the next step the researcher compared the categories for similarities and differences. Similar categories were then combined into new categories. A category would be considered saturated when no new codes could be added. Eventually, some categories emerged as more significant than others. The codes were classified and categorized in a table and each category of errors was presented in a separate table. Finally, by quantifying the codes and displaying the results by percentage in separate tables for each category, the themes emerged more clearly.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS**

This study is concerned with examining the most common linguistic errors in students’ translation using Na Pham’s (2005) framework for analysing errors. The data was analysed during the interviews with the lecturers and students and with reference to the standard translation of the text in the book. As mentioned earlier, linguistic translation errors occur when the focus is on the language structure (Nord, 1997). Occasionally, the translator’s low proficiency in either the SL or TL could be the source of linguistic translation errors (Nord 1997). In text analysis, linguistic translation errors are divided into five subcategories: morphological errors, grammatical errors, syntactic errors, inappropriate word form errors and collocational errors. Table 1 shows the distribution of linguistic translation errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linguistic translation errors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morphological errors</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>23.89 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical errors</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>11.43 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syntactic errors</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>42.66 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocational errors</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>11.94 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inappropriate word form</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>12.45 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>586</strong></td>
<td><strong>100 %</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in table 1, syntactic errors accounted for 252 errors in students’ translation. Therefore, syntactic errors were the most frequent errors (42%) of all the linguistic translation errors. Morphological errors (140) were the next most frequent type of errors comprising 23% of the total number of linguistic translation errors identified. These were followed by inappropriate word form errors (12%), collocational errors (11.94 %), and finally grammatical errors (11.43%). This paper will focus on syntactic errors, the most common type of linguistic errors found in the students’ translations. The following sections will present the results and findings of each subcategory of syntactic errors.

**Syntactic Errors**

Syntactic errors are made at three levels: phrase, clause and sentence. In this study, the definitions of phrase, clause and sentence are taken from Merriam Webster’s Online Dictionary, http://www.m-w.com. Table 2 presents the frequencies and percentages of the subcategories of syntactic errors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of syntactic errors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Phrase structure</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>33.33 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause structure</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>48.41 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence structure</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>18.25 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As depicted in table 2, errors at clause structure level were the most frequent type of errors in students’ translations. Altogether, 122 errors were found at the level of clause structure, comprising 48% of all the syntactic errors. Errors at the level of Phrase structure were the next most frequent type of errors; 84 errors accounting for 33% of the syntactic errors. Students made far fewer errors in sentence structure, about 18%. The following sections discuss each of these subcategories of syntactic errors.

**Phrase Structure**

Some examples from the data are:

1. Addition of unnecessary words, or of an unnecessary phrase:

Example: *He gave the remainder price credit.*
Proposed translation of the source text: He promised to pay me in full when we met again.

Example: the word ‘price’ is not considered a wrong insertion. It is redundant and unnecessary, and may cause ambiguity.

2. Inappropriate noun phrase construction or inappropriate verb phrase construction

Example: *He paid the half of price in cash and he accepted to give old donkey for other half of price.*
Proposed translation of the source text: He paid me down one half of the money, and then offered me a half-starved ass in payment of the remainder

Example: *He said, it ( ) exhausted and fagged.*
Proposed translation of the source text: He said that it was old.

3. Inappropriate phrase construction.

Example: *I accepted the prices with no bargaining.*
Proposed translation of the source text: I threw him the bridle and saddle into the bargain.

Example: *I sold my horse with inclination.*
Proposed translation of the source text: I immediately exhibited my horse for sale at the market

4. Incomplete phrase. Students cannot complete the phrase or leave it unfinished.

Example: *In my opinion it has many faulty.*
Proposed translation of the source text: a horse dealer, to whom I showed it, made out so clearly that it was full of defects.

5. Non parallel combination refers to two phrases within a sentence not being parallel.

Example: *He was more confused than me.*
Proposed translation of the source text: and he seemed as surprised

Clause Structure
1. Addition of unnecessary word. This error occurs when the students add one extra word to the phrase. In the following example, the students wrote the extra word ‘account’,

Example: *He agreed that the other half would be paid on credit account.*
Proposed translation of the source text: he promised to pay me in full when we met again.

2. Addition of a verb to the clause (not the sentence), which repeats the meaning of another verb.

Example: *It seemed that my horse didn’t have had any good points.*
Proposed translation of the source text: it seemed to have every quality that a horse ought not to have.

3. Inappropriate clause construction: a construction that is not constructed according to the standard syntax of clauses in English. There are two types:
a. The student may choose a structure which does not match the intended meaning of the original (although the word order of the structure is correct). Example (3a) shows this error.

Example 3a: *I would win the deal even if I’d sold it for free.*
Proposed translation of the source text: *I thought myself in luck if I got anything at all for it.*

b. The student decides to use the correct structure, but apply the wrong word order within the sentence. Example (3b) shows this error.

Example 3b: *Anything which is bad that a horse shouldn’t my horse have.*
Proposed translation of the source text: *it seemed to have every quality that a horse ought not to have.*

4. Incomplete clause. A clause is considered to be incomplete when the subject or main verb is missing.

Example 4: *I was give to understand on the way that (it) is so fast.*
Proposed translation of the source text: *I had proved it to be a good beast, from the rate at which I had travelled.*

5. Omission of the relative pronoun linking one clause to another.

Example: *It was me ( ) would make a good deal.*
Proposed translation of the source text: *I thought myself in luck if I got anything at all for it.*

Sentence Structure
Incomplete sentence. If the main verb and other parts of speech in the sentence are deleted, but the subject is not, the result is an incomplete sentence. Sometimes an omitted verb causes a sentence to be incomplete.

Example: *Anything which is bad that a horse shouldn’t have my horse ( ).*
Proposed translation of the source text: *it seemed to have every quality that a horse ought not to have.*

Factors Contributing to Students’ Errors
In the first stage of the study, students’ errors in translation were identified according to Na Pham’s (2005) taxonomy. In the second stage, the author sought explanations for these errors. Three lecturers were interviewed for their views on the reasons for students’ errors in translation. The following reasons were given by the lecturers and students:

(a) Students had poor reading comprehension skills. Even after four years of instruction, they had difficulty grasping the main idea of a text. They also had problems comprehending Persian literary texts, making it even more difficult to translate literary texts accurately.
(b) Students were unable to translate compound sentences. More often than not, they confused the relative clause with the main clause, thus altering the focus of attention in the sentence.

(c) Students did not have enough practice, as they only learned English in the class without continuing to practice it at home.

(d) The many grammatical errors in their translation affected the communication of the main ideas of the source text.”

(c) Students were also careless about conveying the author’s main message.

(e) Students relied solely on the dictionary to translate, but they had poor dictionary skills.

(f) The main cause of students’ errors in their translation was that they did not read of the entire text first. Right from the beginning of the translation task, they tried to translate it sentence by sentence without considering the global meaning of the text.

(g) Another cause of students’ errors was that they did not revise their translation.

(h) The students did not consider the structure of the target text and most of the time they translated the source text literally.

(i) The most important reason was that the lecturers in Iran universities are trained in Teaching English as a Second Language, Literature or Linguistics, and rarely have any expertise in translation studies.

(j) Lack of practice with certain linguistic structures prevented students from writing grammatically correct English sentences, although they may have known the rules very well.

(k) Students seemed unable to apply their knowledge of English acquired in grammar or syntax classes to the translation process.

(l) There was interference of the Persian language (of the source text).

(m) Students’ generally had a low level of linguistic competence, and were unable to distinguish between similar words or structures in English.

The findings of the analysis of the students’ translation reveal a low level of skills in translation despite 4 years of instruction. The analysis of the translation texts reveals that syntactic errors comprised 42% of the errors among all categories of errors. (table 2). This result is similar to Na Pham’s (2005) findings in his analysis of students’ errors from Vietnamese to English. The results of the text analysis and interviews with lecturers showed poor awareness of grammar among ELT students. The students’ errors in the frequency list (table 2) for each sub-category of errors show that these were fossilized errors. This became especially clear from the results of the error analysis. This could be due to several reasons. Firstly, the students might lack practice in using certain linguistic structures. Two of the lecturers interviewed said that the students had poor linguistic competence and were unable to distinguish between similar words or structures in English. The students also seemed to be unaware that different situations called for different structures. Secondly, it was quite possible that the students were just not considering the wide choice of the strategies they had been taught in the translation programme. Two of the lecturers pointed out that students had been taught how to translate different types of texts from different fields such as politics, religion, economics, and literature.
CONCLUSION

Generally, the findings revealed that English Language Translation students may have problems comprehending the source language texts in Persian because of the complexity of the sentences and the differences between Persian structure and English structure. A similar observation was made by Na Pham (2005), Khodabandeh (2009) and Kussmual (1995) in their error analysis of students’ translation.

Considering the differences between the structures of the source text and the target text, the lecturers’ knowledge in both languages is important in improving students’ translation by providing them with more input and strategies in translation. For that reason, lecturers who are not experts in translation studies should practice on translation and work on improving themselves before they can teach the translation courses in Iran. According to Bell (1994), a good translation teacher is the one who can comprehend what translation is and how it occurs. He added that a translation lecturer should be good in translation theory, transfer procedure and translation methodology. Adding Persian reading courses, English and Persian grammar courses in translation programme may increase students’ ability in translation. Finally, students should be screened in proficiency both in English and Persian language before they are accepted in translation programme. The findings of this study is limited to the translated texts from Persian to English. Moreover, no generalization is possible due to the nature of the subjects under study.

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L2 TEACHERS’ AND LEARNERS’ BELIEFS ABOUT GRAMMAR

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ABSTRACT  
The present study aimed at exploring teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about grammar teaching and learning in language institutes in Isfahan. To this end, two questionnaires were adapted and used to elicit teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about grammar teaching and learning. Thirty-five English language teachers and 200 learners of English who were randomly selected from different institutes in Iran, were asked to fill out teachers’ belief questionnaire and learners’ belief questionnaire respectively. Such descriptive statistics as frequency and percentage were utilized to perform data analysis and make comparisons. The results revealed that there were some differences between teachers’ and learners’ beliefs regarding error-correction and testing procedures in the classroom. However, their beliefs about the other factors under investigation, e.g., definition of grammar, and the importance of teaching/learning grammar, were not dissimilar. The results of this study would be beneficial to both teachers and learners who are engaged in the process of teaching and learning grammar.

KEYWORDS: Teachers’ beliefs, Learners’ beliefs, Grammar teaching, Grammar learning

INTRODUCTION  
Language teacher cognition, defined by Borg (2003a, p. 81) as “what teachers know, believe, and think,” has come into focus for over three decades varying into different areas such as teacher education, grammar teaching, and classroom research. Influenced by advances in research, teaching has been recognized as a thoughtful profession and teachers’ thinking came to be viewed as a major factor in educational settings. As Borg suggests, “teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalized and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs” (p. 81). Studies have indicated that teachers’ belief systems—the information, attitude, values, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning—have a great impact on their instructional practices, all of which have provided the fact that teachers’ comments and actions in the class are derived from their beliefs (Borg, 2003b; Ng & Farrell, 2003). In fact, it has been revealed that teachers have complicated beliefs about learners and classroom activities which form an organized set of rules (Berliner, 1987; Borg, 1998; Burns, 1992; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). Teachers and scholars have also studied ESL and EFL teachers’ knowledge and beliefs in second and foreign language teaching (Freeman & Richards, 1996; Li & Walsh, 2011; Sanchez, 2010).
The studies of second language acquisition had been the main source of knowledge about grammar teaching for over 30 years. Grammar instruction has remained in demand in the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning and the degree of attention to grammar has increased in the history of language teaching. Thus, in the light of teacher cognition research in the field of second language and foreign language, the teaching of grammar has attracted substantial attention. There have been a number of studies in the area of teacher beliefs and teaching grammar in second/foreign language (Hinkel & Fotos, 2008; Kaçar & Zengin, 2013; Wach, 2013). Farrell (1999) examined the pre-service teachers’ beliefs and proposed that these beliefs may not change. By the same token, in-service teachers’ beliefs were investigated by Richards, Gallo, and Renandya (2001). The findings revealed that communicative approach was preferred by many of teachers in language learning, while some of them were interested in direct grammar teaching.

Whereas different teachers have different beliefs and can create various theoretical belief systems, some controversial issues including the proper lesson plans, methods, techniques and materials for teaching and the effect of these on teachers and learners’ belief systems are raised here. As a result, different beliefs of teachers and learners in the field of language teaching can negatively impact on the effectiveness of classroom programs and instructional practices. In spite of the fact that there is a considerable care in the area of language teachers’ and learners’ beliefs, there have not been many studies focusing on the beliefs of language teachers and learners about teaching and learning grammar especially in English language institutes of Iranian. Therefore, it would be beneficial to uncover layers of teachers’ belief systems and find out whether there is a mismatch between the teachers’ and learners’ beliefs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The role of grammar teaching has been open to debate in teaching foreign and second languages (Burgess & Etherington, 2002). Teaching of formal grammar in language programs has always had the mixture of good and bad experiences based on various theories and thinking. For instance, grammar teaching was once discouraged and most people disapproved of teaching it (see Ball, Kenny, & Gardiner, 1990). Before that time, it was disputed that teaching explicit grammar was not a useful way of developing practical communication skills. Most methods and approaches were against grammar teaching during the 1970s and 1980s. The centrality of grammar was challenged and its role as a part of teaching plans and curricula was ignored. Once again in the 1990s, grammar played a leading part in language teaching classes and people became interested in grammar instruction.

Views on grammar instruction lie between two extremes: At one extreme there are those who support explicit or formal grammar instruction; at the opposite extreme, there are those who ignore grammar teaching. According to Stern (1991), those teachers who are against grammar teaching have explained that grammar instruction is not useful for L2 learners’ competence. Terrell’s (1991) view about the role of grammar instruction is that if learners are able to use
grammatical structures on a discrete-point grammar exam, it does not mean that they are capable of using this knowledge in daily conversation.

However, a number of studies have positive views about grammar teaching. Baleghizadeh and Farshchi (2009) claim that grammar is one of the most important aspects of language by which learners expect to communicate well. Wu (2007) affirms that grammar is the main part of L2 instruction and stated that grammar improves learners’ writing, reading, and listening skills altogether.

One of the dimensions of teacher cognition which has recently come into favor in ELT is teacher beliefs. Research on teachers’ beliefs within the field of language teacher education has been admitted as a central issue in the early 1990s and recent years much work has been devoted to the development of teachers’ beliefs. Johnson (1994) has proposed that teachers’ beliefs cannot be defined easily since they are not something to be observed. What is obvious is that teacher beliefs comprise assumptions that influence their teaching. Research on teachers’ beliefs and practices has examined a number of issues, e.g. the nature of grammar teaching or thinking and actions of experienced teachers (see Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001), which may affect the beliefs and practices of EFL teachers (Allen, 2002). Nazari and Allahyar (2012) remarked that teachers’ practical and pedagogical knowledge exert an influence on their teaching techniques and move them towards adopting certain grammar teaching procedures.

Researchers in the field of teaching and learning have viewed teaching as a linear process which relates teachers’ behavior to learners’ achievement (Cochran, Smith, & Lytle, 1990). To have effective teaching practices, a good decision making is needed to improve students’ learning. Teachers make many decisions for the improvement of learners’ learning. Some decisions are made, say, for preparing lesson plans and some of them are made during the activities and interactions with learners.

Concerning language learners’ beliefs, many research studies have been conducted within SLL/FLL contexts (Alanen, 2003; Barcelos, 2003; Dufva, 2003; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004; Kalaja, 2003). With regard to language learners’ beliefs, some studies have been carried out firstly by Gardner (for an overview see Gardner, 1979; Gardner et al, 2004). Since the 1980s, such cognitive variables as language learners’ beliefs have come into focus.

The concept of learners’ beliefs has been the focus of many research studies and a great interest for many scholars. Teachers can gain better understanding of learners’ expectations and satisfaction with their language classes by having the knowledge of learners’ beliefs (Horwitz, 1988). Riley (1996) claims that learners’ language learning fall under the influence of learners’ beliefs. Growing evidence also suggests that learners’ beliefs not only influence their approaches to language learning, but also affect the way they respond to teaching activities. Learners may show dissatisfaction if they are encountered with the situations in which teaching methods differ from their thinking about the way of teaching. Thus, the knowledge of language learners’ beliefs is vital in order to take appropriate approaches and to improve language instruction (Horwitz, 1999; Sakui & Gaiés, 1999; Yang, 1999; Zarate, Gohard-Radenkovic, Lussier, & Pens, 2004).
There are many factors including learner wants and syllabus expectations to which teachers refer for shaping their views within the process of teaching and learning. However, learners’ and teachers’ experiences have a powerful impact on their views about grammar teaching. Considering the need for congruence between teachers’ and learners’ belief, Berry (1997) conducted a research in which there were 372 undergraduate learners and 10 teachers in Hong Kong. The researcher used a 50-item questionnaire to measure the knowledge of grammatical terminology, and found “wide discrepancies between the learners in terms of their knowledge of metalinguistic terminology and between this and the teachers’ estimation of it” which can cause problems in the classroom (p. 143). In the same vein, researchers like Kumaravadivelu (1991) stated that a similarity between teachers’ and learners’ beliefs result in effective teaching and learning. In contrast, a disagreeement between teachers’ and learners’ ideas affects learning negatively.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Here in this study, teachers’ and learners’ beliefs and the process of grammar teaching and learning were examined. Thus, an attempt was made to answer the following questions:
1) What are teachers’ beliefs about teaching grammar in language institutes?
2) What are learners’ beliefs about learning grammar in language institutes?
3) What are the differences between teachers’ beliefs and learners’ beliefs about presenting grammar in language institutes?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Two groups of participants took part in this research: EFL teachers and learners. Both teachers and learners were randomly selected from different English language institutes in Isfahan, namely Nikan, Paya, Naazh, Setak, Sanato Madan, Safir, Kaaj, Daneshjou, Roshd, Azadeh, and Fardaye Behtar. The teachers who participated in the study had Masters and Bachelor degrees in different branches of English language. Out of 35 language teachers who were asked to complete the questionnaire, 30 teachers (13 males and 17 females) returned their questionnaires. Moreover, 200 students who participated in this study were randomly selected from all the above-mentioned English language institutes. However, 187 student questionnaires were returned.

Instruments
Two different questionnaires were adapted from different sources including Horwitz (1987), Farrell (2005), Borg (1999), and Burgess and Etherington (2002): one of them sought English language institute teachers’ beliefs about grammar teaching and learning and the other elicited language institute learners’ beliefs (see Appendix A & B). Each questionnaire used in this study consisted of two parts. The first part was about teachers’ and learners’ bio-data and their background, while the second part concerned with their beliefs about grammar and its teaching and learning in English language institute courses. It should be mentioned that learners’ questionnaires were carefully and precisely translated into Persian, so that the participants could
fully understand the questions and answer them easily. The validity of the questionnaires was confirmed by three experts and their reliability was computed by cronbach’s alpha. The reliability of teachers’ questionnaire and learners’ questionnaire were .80 and .88, respectively.

Procedures
The questionnaires were distributed among English language teachers, a few of whom answered the questionnaire after or between their class times. Other teachers were assigned a time for returning it during one week. So the questionnaires were collected during the spring and the summer semesters of 2014. Out of 35 distributed questionnaires, 30 were returned. Learners’ questionnaires were also gathered after being distributed among the students of English language classes with the time limit of 20 minutes for each class. Out of 200 distributed questionnaires, 187 were completely answered and returned.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The data obtained through the questionnaires answered by the teachers and learners were interpreted to assess their beliefs. The following accounts, which are based on the tables supplemented in the Appendixes, present the results of teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about grammar teaching and learning in language institute classes.

Teachers’ Beliefs about the Grammar Teaching
Item 7 which demonstrated the importance of teaching grammar in language institute courses, had the highest percentage (7.0%) of the alternative 5. However, item 25, concerning the teaching approach category, and items 40 and 42 of the teaching techniques category had the least percentage (.5%) in this choice. In alternative 4, item 9, which related to the importance of grammar, and item 12, which related to reasons for teaching grammar, were the most frequently selected items by teachers with the percentage of 10.2, and the least percentage belonged to item 41 of the teaching techniques category (1.1%). Items 7, 8, and 9, referring to the importance of grammar, and item 11, which indicated practical reasons, with the percentage of .5, were among the least selected items of alternative 3; however, item 17, referring to the future occupation reason, had the highest percentage (6.4%).

The highest percentage of the alternative 2 belonged to item 42 of the teaching techniques category (8.6%). Item 19, which related to the learners’ proficiency level, item 22, which referred to the decontextualized approach, item 23, which indicated the contextualized approach, item 29, which belonged to the student correction, and item 34, which demonstrated testing grammar at discourse level, had the lowest percentage (.5%) of this choice.

In the last alternative, the highest percentage belonged to item 8, referring to the importance of teaching grammar (7.5%), and the lowest one belonged to item 10, relating again to the importance of grammar, item 17, concerning future occupation, item 21, which presented implicit grammar teaching, item 22, which represented decontextualized teaching approach, item 28 and 31, which related to teacher-correction, and finally item 29, concerning student correction (.5%).
Learners’ Beliefs about the Grammar Learning

Item 24, which was related to the correction category, had the highest percentage (59.4%) of alternative 5. On the other hand, item 26, which related to the same category, had the lowest percentage (2.1%) of this choice. Concerning alternative 4, item 2, concerning the definition of grammar, with the percentage of 51.3, and item 8, relating to the importance of grammar, with the percentage of 8.0 were the most and the least frequently selected items, respectively. The lowest percentage of alternative 3 belonged to item 24, which indicated teacher-correction (4.3%), and the highest one belonged to item 13, which presented reading skill as a reason for learning grammar (32.7%). In case of alternative 2, item 8, which showed the importance of grammar, with the percentage of 43.9 was the most preferred one, and item 1, which referred to the structural definition of grammar, with the percentage of 1.6 was the least frequently chosen item. It is clear from alternative 1 that item 37, which indicated use of learning aid techniques, had the highest percentage (57.8%). Items 3, and 5, which referred to the definition of grammar, items 10 and 14, which respectively related to writing and language development as the reasons for learning grammar, items 22, and 23 of learning approach category, item 28, which related to the teacher-correction, and finally item 29, which referred to the teacher-feedback, were among the least frequently selected items. Regarding the third research question of the study, the following descriptions are presented.

The Difference between Teachers’ and Learners’ Beliefs about Grammar Teaching and Learning

The similar items of teachers’ questionnaire and learners’ questionnaire consisted of 35 items including all 7 categories. The table in appendix F indicated that the highest mean (4.47) belonged to teacher-correction of learner group. It should also be mentioned that there were only 5 categories in which the means were above 4. These categories were definition of grammar in which the highest mean belonged to the learner group (item 1) and showed the learners’ preference for structural definition of grammar (4.42); importance of grammar with the highest mean of 4.40 of teacher group (item 7); reasons for teaching/learning grammar with the highest mean of 4.33 of the teacher group (item 10) indicating practical reasons; teaching/learning approach with the mean of 4.19 of the learner group (item 15) relating to decontextualized approach; and correction with the mean of 4.47 of the learner group (item 19) which indicated teacher-correction. The table also represented that the two lowest means belonged to item 29, relating to using teaching/learning aids (1.84) for the learner group, and item 8, referring to the importance of teaching/learning grammar (1.56) for the teacher group.

Discussion

The items in the survey aimed to elicit teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about the grammar role in language teaching and learning. The items of the first category were asked for reaction to different views about the definition of grammar indicating that teachers and learners had structural view towards the definition of grammar. Regarding the structural view as crucial to the area of teaching and learning, it could be inferred that this kind of view made educators feel important about the structures and forms of the sentences rather than other aspects of a language as having a pragmatic role or a communicative one. This finding was in line with Swan’s (2005)
view towards the grammar definition who perceived grammar as a set of rules in which the words can help learners with what to say in order to speak a language.

In this study, both teachers and learners had strong beliefs about the importance of grammar in language institutes. The reason might be that grammar has been conceived of as one of the most important concepts in human communication by which people express their thoughts and ideas they want to share. Thus, some researchers reported positive attitudes towards the importance of teaching grammar and its central role in language teaching (Batstone, 1994; Debata, 2013). On the contrary, in a study conducted by Loewen, et al. (2009), learners reacted negatively to studying grammar. They commented that spending time on grammar was a tedious job because numerous rules had to be memorized and learnt. Their finding is not congruent with the findings of the current study concerning the importance of teaching/learning grammar. The reason for this discrepancy could probably be attributed to the lack of usefulness of English outside the classroom and the way teachers teach grammar to the learners in their context.

Concerning the reason for teaching and learning grammar in language institutes, both teachers and learners believed that it was writing which could be considered as a compelling reason for teaching and learning grammar. Learners also felt an urgent need to improve their communication ability, self-confidence, and language development, which made it essential to learn grammar. They believed that if they did not know grammar well, they would not be able to speak and communicate appropriately. The explanation for this idea could be that without the help of grammar instruction, learners cannot use English accurately. Hence, focusing on grammatical concepts is essential for meaningful communication and assists learners in writing intelligibly. The findings supported the view of Tajzadeh, Khodabandehlou, and Jahandar (2013) who considered writing as a significant factor in learning grammar, and declared that learning the grammatical rules was required to write a foreign language accurately.

In the case of teaching/learning approach, teachers believed that learners’ proficiency level in English language influenced teachers’ decisions to provide learners with specific presentation of the grammatical rules. The reason may probably be the importance of instructional support provided by teachers at different proficiency levels, i.e. specific grammatical rules would be presented based on the language learners’ proficiency level. Liu (2013) in his study revealed that in order to have a full understanding of the concepts of specific grammatical points, it would be a good idea to change the method of introducing the grammatical items as the proficiency level of the learners increases. On the contrary, learners valued learning the grammatical items at the sentence-level. The basis for this belief might be the variety of structures, vocabularies, and lack of explicitness within a text which make it incomprehensible for learners. This finding is in line with the survey carried out by Baleghizadeh and Farshchi (2009) who found that learning grammar within the texts was too difficult for their learners because its presentation in the texts was time-consuming and difficult.

As for the error correction, teachers preferred self-correction and peer-correction, while learners had strong beliefs in teacher-correction. The root of this type of belief could be that learners considered their teachers as knowledgeable authorities who can provide them with the best
possible type of feedback. In addition, the reason could be attributed to the assumption that most learners believed that teacher correction facilitates their learning and makes them improve and develop language awareness. Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2012) reported that learners’ positive view on teacher-correction was connected with the importance of learning to speak English correctly. Likewise, some researchers had negative attitudes towards error-correction and believed that classroom time should not be devoted to such matters (Krashen, 1999; Semke, 1984; Terrell, 1977).

Another issue surveyed in this study was how to test grammar in language institutes. Results showed a degree of significant difference between teachers’ and learners’ beliefs regarding testing grammar in language institutes. They indicated that teachers strongly believed to have grammar test items at discourse-level, while learners preferred to have them at sentence-level. With regard to learners’ point of view towards testing grammar at sentence-level, it could be noted that the texts may make comprehension and responding to test items hard for learners as a result of various structures and complicated grammatical features appearing in a text, while grammar structures practice out of context is not functional from teachers’ viewpoint. The idea of decontextualized testing is in contradiction to Freeman’s (2009) view who holds that testing grammar at sentence-level does not assess whether test takers can use grammar correctly in real-life situations.

In applying teaching/learning techniques, teachers and learners rarely used pictures, teaching devices, tables, figures, charts, songs, music, and games for their grammar teaching and learning. They agreed with contextualized and real life activities more frequently and used form-focused practice techniques more often than not. The justification might be that using student-centered activities provide a chance for learners to express themselves and enjoy learning. The finding supported Bowen’s (2005) idea suggesting that contextualized task such as authentic reading texts would be challenging for learners to practice the grammatical points within a text, and fully comprehend the structures.

CONCLUSION
This study was an attempt to explore teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about grammar teaching/learning in language institute courses. Moreover, it dealt with a comparison of teachers’ and learners’ beliefs about teaching/learning grammar. To this end, two questionnaires were adapted to elicit teachers’ and learners’ beliefs towards grammar teaching/learning. The participants of the study were initially 35 English language teachers and 200 learners, who were randomly selected from different English language institutes in Isfahan. The findings of this study indicated that teachers’ and learners’ beliefs were, to a large extent, similar towards teaching and learning grammar in language institute courses. It further revealed that from among 7 categories of beliefs about grammar teaching in English language institute courses, teachers and learners differ in their beliefs about error-correction and testing procedures.

It is concluded that the match between teachers’ and learners’ beliefs in different aspects of grammar teaching/learning can lead to the effective language teaching/learning strategies. This congruence further encourages them to take a balanced approach in order to fulfil their
requirements. Conversely, the divergence between teachers’ and learners’ attitudes make them fail to progress and achieve their goals. Thus, the mismatches should be identified for a better communication between teachers and learners in order for their expectations to be met. This research tried to extract teachers’ and learners’ beliefs without keeping factors of age, gender, and proficiency level under control, which could have influenced the result of the study.

REFERENCES


Appendix A

Teachers’ Belief Questionnaire

Dear colleagues,

Our goal in this research is to study teachers’ beliefs about teaching grammar in language institutes courses and your participation will definitely help us achieve the purpose. Please kindly spare a few minutes of your time to fill out this questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation.

1. Gender: □ male □ female
2. Age:
3. Academic major:
4. Highest academic qualifications:
   □ Master’s degree □ doctorate □ other; please specify
5. Teaching Experience:
6. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A : Definition of grammar</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Grammar is a set of structures and rules of a language.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Grammar is concerned with using the correct tenses.</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>3. Grammar means to produce language structures accurately.</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>4. Grammar helps better understand different meanings.</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>5. Grammar means the appropriate use of language in different situations.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>6. Grammar facilitates communication.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<tr>
<th>B : The importance of teaching grammar in language institute courses</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
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<tr>
<td>7. Grammar is important and has to be taught in language institute courses.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>8. It is not needed to teach grammar to learners because they’ve already had it in high school.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>9. It is good to dedicate some time to teaching grammar in language institute classes.</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>10. Grammar should be the main part of</td>
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<td>C</td>
<td>Reasons to teach grammar in language institute courses :</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>No opinion</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>11. Learners need to know the grammar rules for writing.</td>
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<td>12. Grammar is important to improve learners’ communication ability.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Without a good knowledge of grammar, learners’ language development will be severely constrained.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>14. Grammar looks tidy, teachable and easily testable so it’s desirable to be taught in language institute courses.</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>15. Teaching grammar gives power to teachers by showing that they know more than the learners do.</td>
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<td>16. Learners generally need to understand the grammatical rules of English in order to improve their reading skill.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. Learners need grammar for future occupation.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>D</td>
<td>How to teach grammar in language institute courses :</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>No opinion</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
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<td>18. Grammatical structures taught depend on learners’ needs.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>19. The approaches to grammar teaching depend largely on the learners’ proficiency level in the English language.</td>
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<td>20. Grammar should be taught explicitly.</td>
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<td>21. Grammar should be taught implicitly.</td>
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<td>22. Teacher should present grammatical rules at sentence level.</td>
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<td>23. Teachers should teach grammatical structures not only in discrete sentences but also in texts.</td>
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<td>24. Both inductive and deductive approaches should be used.</td>
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<td>25. There is an essential need to provide a large number of complex exercises for learners to master the grammatical structures.</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>E</td>
<td>Error correction and feedback in language institute classes :</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>No opinion</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
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| 26. When learners make errors, I correct them and later I explain it to them. |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|
| 27. When learners make errors, I ignore them. |   |   |   |   |
| 28. I only correct learners’ errors if it interferes with communication. |   |   |   |   |
| 29. I provide learners with an opportunity to think about their performance. |   |   |   |   |
| 30. I encourage learners to correct each other. |   |   |   |   |
| 31. I correct local errors. |   |   |   |   |
| 32. I correct global errors. |   |   |   |   |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F: How to test grammar in language institute courses.</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33. I test grammar at sentence level.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. I test grammar in context (text or at discourse level)</td>
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<tr>
<td>35. Grammar is one of the most important parts of language institute exam.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Appendix B**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>G: How much do you use these techniques to teach grammar in language institute classes?</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Usually</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using story-telling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using role-play</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Using pictures and images</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using teaching devices and aids (balls, boxes, dolls and so on)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using tables, figures, charts and diagrams (such as tense tables)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Using music, songs and poems</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Playing games</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making learners participate in real life tasks in order to develop their grammatical knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Using contextualized practice</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Using form-focused practice (such as substitution drills)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Answer these questions using “always”, “often”, “usually”, “sometimes”, “never”:
Dear learners,

Our goal in this research is to study learners’ beliefs about learning grammar in language institute courses and your participation will definitely help us achieve the purpose. Please kindly spare a few minutes of your time to fill out this questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation.

1. Gender:  [ ] male  [ ] female
2. Age: 
3. Academic major: 
4. Highest academic qualifications:  [ ] Associate degree  [ ] Bachelor’s degree
5. Please indicate how far you agree with the following statements:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A : Definition of grammar :</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Grammar is a set of structures and rules of a language.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Grammar is concerned with using the correct tenses.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Grammar means to produce language structures accurately.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Grammar helps better understand different meanings.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Grammar means the appropriate use of language in different situations.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Grammar facilitates communication.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B : The importance of learning grammar in language institute courses :</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. Grammar is important and has to be learnt in language institute courses.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. It is not needed to learn grammar because the learners have already learnt it in high school.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. It is good to dedicate some time to learning grammar in language institute classes.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C : learners need grammar :</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. for writing.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. for improving communication ability.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. for security and self-confidence.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. for improving their reading skill.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. for language development</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. for future occupation</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>D : How to learn grammar in language institute courses :</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Grammar should be clearly and explicitly presented in language institute classes.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Learners should be presented with grammatical rules at sentence level.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Learning grammar should be in reading context in language institute courses.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Learners should learn grammatical structures not only in discrete sentences but also in texts.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Learners learn grammar better when they start with examples and then identifying the rules.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Learners learn grammar better when they work on rules in first place and then have some examples.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Frequent practice is a key for learners to improve their grammatical accuracy.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Learning reading skills in language courses develops learners’ grammatical knowledge.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E : Error correction and feedback in language institute classes :</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. When I make errors, I expect teacher to correct me and later explain it to me.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I expect to have an opportunity to look and evaluate my learning.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I like my classmates to correct my errors.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I expect teacher to correct the errors which are important (global errors).</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I expect teacher to correct all my errors.(local errors)</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Teacher should check if I have understood and learnt the grammar rules under study.</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Learners should work together and help</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
F: How to test grammar in language institute courses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>31. Grammar items should be at sentence level.</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>32. Grammar items should be in context (text or at discourse level)</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>No opinion</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Answer these questions using “always”, “often”, “usually”, “sometimes”, “never”:

| G: How much do you use these techniques to learn grammar in language institute classes? |
|-----------------------------------------------|---------------|------|-----------|---------|
| Always | Often | Usually | Sometimes | Never | |
| Memorizing the grammatical rules | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Learning the rules in “story” | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Learning the rules in “role-play” | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Using pictures and images | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Using balls, boxes, dolls and other learning devices | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Using tables, figures, charts and diagrams (such as tense tables) | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Using music, songs and poems | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Learning the rules by playing games | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Learning by participating in real life tasks in order to develop my grammatical knowledge | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Learning by extracting the rules from the passages in the course book and working on them (contextualized practice) | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | 
| Form-focused practice (such as substitution drills) | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ | ☐ |
A CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF ESP STATUS IN IRAN

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Email: ghaemi@kiau.ac.ir

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ABSTRACT
Teaching ESP (English for specific purpose) courses is widespread in many countries in the world, and also in Iran. During forty years of ESP courses, numerous studies have been conducted addressing and questioning the effectiveness of such courses and now this is one of the most controversial issues among academics, teachers, textbook writers, and students. Most ESP teachers and content area specialists express their deep dissatisfaction with their performance in ESP courses and such courses are considered as a huge burden on the shoulder of students and teachers. As such, the output is not satisfactory. The present paper is a critical reflection and appraisal of the current ESP (English for specific purposes) status in Iran from both retrospective and introspective perspectives. To do so, the researchers primarily focused on the English background of ESP learners entering universities to highlight the mismatch between ESP goals and language proficiency of the ESP learners (retrospection). Then, they shifted their focus on factors arising out of ESP status itself (introspection). This study indicates that we must consider both background of the ESP learners (language proficiency) and the impact of determining factors on teaching ESP courses in Iran if we want to find a solution to this long-lasting problem. At the end some practical educational implications are proposed for ESP material designers, teachers, and policy makers in ministry of science, research, and technology.

KEYWORDS: ESP, EAP, need analysis, EGP, ESP teacher, content area specialist, teacher education

INTRODUCTION
What is ESP?
The study of language for specific purposes (ESP) has a long and interesting history going back, some would say, as far as Roman and Greek Empires. Since the 1960s, ESP has become a vital and innovative activity within the teaching of English as a foreign or second language movement (Howatt, 1984).

Johnson and Johnson (1998) write the following definition for ESP:
English for specific purpose (ESP) is a broad and diverse field of language teaching. In its earlier manifestations in 1960's, it was particularly associated with the notion of a special language or
According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP must be seen as an approach. ESP is not a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need. The foundation of all ESP is the simple question: why does this learner need to learn a foreign language? From this question will follow a whole host of further questions, some of which will relate to the learners themselves, some to the nature of the language the learners will need to operate, some to the given learning content. However, this whole analysis drives from an initial identified need on the part of the learner to learn a language. ESP then is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning.

Dudley-Evans, Co-editor of the ESP Journal defines ESP in terms of ‘absolute’ and ‘variable’ characteristics.

Definition of ESP (Dudley-Evans, 1998):

Absolute Characteristics
1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners
2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves
3. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Variable Characteristics
1. ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines
2. ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English
3. ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level
4. ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students
5. Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems

Critical Features of ESP
1. It is goal directed, i.e. a means rather than an end in itself. This perspective is fundamental to a view that sees language as a “service” rather than a subject studied for its own sake, and has been a powerful influence on most areas of ESP research and practice.
2. It is based on an analysis of learner's needs.

Engaging with Disciplines
Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Joe St. John (1998) proposed three levels of cooperation in order to teach subject-specific works:

• Cooperation
Cooperation is the first stage and involves the language teacher taking the initiative in asking questions and gathering information about the student subject course, how English fits into their
course and what the department and students see as priorities. In fact, this is part of the target situation analysis required for needs analysis.

- **Collaboration**
  If cooperation largely involves the language teacher taking the initiative and finding out what happens in the subject department, collaboration involves the more direct working together of the two sides, language and subject, to prepare students for particular tasks or courses. In collaboration the language and subject teacher work together outside the classroom.

- **Team-teaching**
  The final level of subject-language interaction is the actual working together in the classroom of the subject and language specialists, usually referred to as team-teaching.

**Classification of ESP**
Historically, such abbreviations as EAP, EOP, EST, and EBT have been used in describing ESP. Robinson (1991) has classified ESP as either English for academic purposes (EAP) or English for occupational purposes (EOP). This classification was based on the experience of the learners and time and age were considered as the most important factors.

Presently, another professional based classification of ESP has been proposed by Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Joe St. John (1998). Here, ESP is divided to EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional area. Based on this model, in EAP, English for science and technology has been the main area, but English for medical purposes and English for legal purposes have always had their places. Recently, the academic study of business, finance, banking, economics, accounting, and numerous other EAP courses especially in master in business administration (MBA) have become established.

English for occupational purposes (EOP) refers to English that is not for academic purposes; it includes professional purposes in administration, medicine, law, and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations. Therefore, we may distinguish between studying the language and discourse of, for example, medicine for academic purposes, which is designed for medical students, and studying for occupational purposes, which is designed for practicing doctors.

In this introductory section, we focused on English as it is related to academic purposes (EAP). First, we distinguish between English for academic purposes and general English. Then, EAP situations are introduced and subsequently, its situation in Iran is determined. Finally, the prominent skill used in EAP i.e. Reading is elaborated in detail.

English for academic purposes is an educational approach. It is unlike general English courses. It begins with the learners and the situation whereas General English begins with the language. General English tends to teach learners conversational and social genres of the language while EAP courses tend to teach formal, academic genres.
The key determinant of what an EAP course should contain is whether the subject course is taught in English. In this regard there are four types of EAP situation, exemplified here using tertiary level institutions. Some features may also apply to the teaching of English at secondary school level, where, particularly in the senior, immediately pre-university classes, English courses will have EAP component. These four situations are as follows:

**Situation 1**
EAP in English speaking countries such as UK, USA, Australia where students come from another country in foreign system; for them both general and academic culture may be different; everything around them operates in English.

**Situation 2**
EAP in ESL situations such as Zimbabwe where education at all levels have been mainly in English; the civil service uses English, but people mostly use their first language in everyday life.

**Situation 3**
EAP situations where subject courses are taught in the national language e.g. Jordan are among third situation EAP types. In tertiary education, some subjects are taught in L1, but others, such as medicine, engineering, and science, are taught in English.

**Situation 4**
EAP situations where subject courses are taught in the national language in countries like Brazil are called fourth EAP situation type. In these situation all tertiary level education is taught in the L1; English is the auxiliary language (Tony- Evans & Maggie Jo St John, 1998, p. 34-41).

In this situation, the materials focus on key micro-skills related to overall to overall macro-skill of reading, but also teach certain lexical and grammatical items relevant to the comprehension of undergraduate academic reading texts (Tony- Evans & Maggie Jo St John, 1998, p. 40).

The actual methodology is also fascinating: the classes are taught in national language and this enables the teacher to lead some very detailed discussions about the linguistic structure of the text and the techniques of deducing meaning of the text in a foreign language. In some respects the classes resemble a problem-solving class in applied discourse analysis in detail in workings of an English text (Alderson & Scott, 1992; Scott, 1981a, 1981b). In the study that follows, the focus will be on the fourth situation which exemplifies the current EAP situation in Iran. In our country, EAP has often been referred to as technical English and the courses have focused almost exclusively on reading.

**Significance of reading in EAP**
To catch up with the changing world, students are supposed to be lifelong learners. Reading is in charge at that point. Supposing that most of the learning processes occur in terms of reading, students should have a meaningful and critical reading process. Without supportive skills of reading comprehension, desired level of learning may not be reached (Yalcin & Sengul, 2004).
At college, reading activities are made to comprehend the academic materials and to learn the conceptual framework. These materials are complex ones with lots of concepts and information. Students are supposed to read and understand the assigned texts before coming to classes on their own. Such a reading process means to read beyond the lines and to think critically (Shelton, 2006).

The role of reading is much more striking in comprehension of EAP texts where a reader is actively involved in using available content knowledge (content schemata) and knowledge of the text structure (formal schemata) to construct the meaning of the text (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Carrel, Devine, & Eskey, 1988; Rumelhart, 1980; Swaffar, 1988).

One of the most important contributions to the approach to reading in EAP was the shift from text as linguistic object (TALO) to text as a vehicle of information (TAVI) (Johns and Davis, 1983). They encapsulated the key principles, that for EAP learners, extracting information accurately and quickly is more significant than language details; that understanding the macrostructures comes before language study; and that application of the information in the text is of paramount importance. Therefore, language knowledge is the medium of comprehension of content knowledge, which is of prime importance.

Tony Dudley-Evans and Maggie Jo. St. John (1998) proposed three key stages in designing and teaching a reading course: selection of texts, extracting and recording information, and the use of information that has been gathered.

Selecting texts:
Traditionally, texts have mainly been chosen by institutions and teachers: by institutions through the textbooks available on the market: by the teacher through the textbooks in their resource center and any supplementary material they provide. However, learners and subject specialists also have an important role to play in selecting texts for reading. The texts they supply can become part of a regular course.

The criteria used for selecting texts will relate to key features of both carrier and real content. Key features of carrier content include conceptual level, novelty, value, and interest. The key features of content include significance, relation to objectives, exploitability, clarity, and accessibility.

Once good texts have been selected, activities can be written. These will relate to the overall purpose of reading the text and, so the process begins from using the information gathered.

Using the information that has been gathered:
It is one from which the design of activities begins. Knowing what students would really do with a text, and why is necessary for setting the task that will guide the reading process and determine all the other activities.
The first stage for the EAP teacher is to know what kind of tasks and processing would be associated with particular texts or information.

Extracting and recording information:
With a short document, highlighting the relevant information on the actual text may be an appropriate strategy. With longer or more complex documents, extracting the information and recognizing it and fitting it in with existing knowledge is necessary. Visual representation can be very helpful for this especially for right hemisphere learners. Key graphic representations include lists, columns, tables, matrices, tree diagrams, flow charts, bubble diagrams, and mind maps. Then, there are other two dimensional representations such as concept maps, plans, pictures, and different kinds of graphs. Which type is appropriate depends in part on the type of information.

A RETROSPECTIVE REFLECTION ON ESP IN IRAN

English as an international language and as the international means of general and scientific communication has an EFL status in Iran depriving the learners from a very precious wealth of incidental and semi natural context of learning.

With this background at hand, this language enters the educational system from the second year of junior high school in Iran utilizing mostly a grammar-translation method that, according to Richards and Rodgers (2002), requires quantitative repetitions and substitutions to master grammatical structures that are taught deductively. Vocabulary is pre taught, reading passages are translated on a word-by-word basis, and no attention is paid to the oral form of the language. The EFL Learners have mechanical roles in such a system and are not actively engaged in the process of learning. Moreover, in the absence of enough and proper input and exposure, they are expected to demonstrate a satisfying output. Therefore, these courses are not effective enough and the students who leave the public school system in Iran suffer poor English language proficiency.

Although there has recently been a shift of focus from GTM (grammar translation method) to CLT (communicative language teaching) in our educational system, we cannot expect dramatic changes in short run specially bearing in mind some generations of teachers who have been trained ( not educated) in teacher training centers according to GTM. Bearing those historical pitfalls in mind, one must immediately recognize the wide gap between ESP learners' English proficiency level and the academic purpose of ESP. English is a required course for the university students in Iran which emphasizes reading literature.

As mentioned above, in the academic level, there has been a shift of focus with regard to the purpose of ESP from text as linguistic object (TALO) to language as vehicle of information (TAVI). These courses and the related textbooks are designed and developed with this presupposition that learners do not have a difficult time going through the linguistic structures and getting to the content information through reading strategies.

But, as soon as it starts working, it stops working since learners have a hard time handling the linguistic difficulties, let alone content information. This language proficiency level will
automatically lead the ESP teachers toward teaching such courses on a word-by-word translation basis.

This is all but a synopsis of historical accounts of the current EGP (English for general purposes) status in Iran. Therefore, it can be concluded that EGP courses beginning from high school and leading to pre-university do not leave a valuable heritage behind for ESP learners now in the tertiary level.

AN INTROSPECTIVE REFLECTION ON ESP IN IRAN

As teachers, academics, textbook writers, course designers and even students, we cannot sit back and hope that the educational system and policy makers will change the status in near future and it should not be an excuse for us so as not to reflect on ourselves. Therefore, in this section we turn to an introspective reflection of ESP in the academic level.

Need analysis

Belcher (2006) states that ESP specialists assume that there are problems that education can improve and that these problems being unique to specific learners in specific contexts should be addressed carefully with tailored-to-fit instructions. Therefore, first the ESP specialists usually assess the learners’ needs and then design and implement specialized curricula in response to the identified needs. It is due to this emphasis on the concept of needs that there are striking differences among curriculum designers, material developers and teachers.

Dudley-Evans and John (1998) believed that needs analysis is the cornerstone of ESP and makes the course purposeful. There are many classifications of needs, objective and subjective, perceived and felt and process oriented and product oriented, to name a few. Dudley-Evans and John (1998) accept that needs analysis is the first step before a course, but at the same time they admit that different situations may alter the way in which needs analysis is actually conducted.

Jordan (1997) states that there are other terms, such as necessities, demands, lacks, likes and deficiencies also proposed for the concept of “needs”. According to him, for an EAP needs analysis factors such as the subject of the study, necessary language, study situation and the related study skills, should be considered.

After the Islamic Revolution of Iran in 1979, the then Ministry of Higher Education began to establish uniform discipline-based EAP programs for universities that have led to designing several ESP textbooks for students of medicine, engineering, science, social sciences, humanities and other academic fields (Mohammad, Hashemi, Lamir, Farideh, & Namju, 2011).

As Eslami-Rasekh (2010) mentions the purpose of these programs is to enhance the students’ motivation and interest through providing EAP courses that are more related to the learners’ needs in special fields of study. However, as Eslami-Rasekh (2010) claims these courses were not designed based on any systematic needs analysis so the program designer’s goals do not seem to have been fulfilled.
For ESP, if narrowed down to an Iranian context, the cornerstone of the needs analysis is to understand the wide gap between the ESP goals and the ESP learners' language proficiency. Such understanding will dramatically influence the process of needs analysis. However, the absence of such a perception has led to the present status in which both ESP teachers and ESP learners are the slaves of textbooks. Level adaptation is not met and even in this system the best educated teachers cannot go beyond translation on a word by word basis and students have mechanical roles in a cold, de-motivating context.

**EGP or ESP?**

EAP courses could generally be divided into two main sections: EGP (English for general purposes or general English) and ESP (English for specific purposes).

Entering universities with that poor language proficiency, students are supposed to study EAP courses (i.e. EGP and ESP). In designing such courses, we must consider students' proficiency level, needs, interests, course and institution level, and availability of resources.

Zohrabi (2010) states that based on the experience of teaching in EFL situation, students largely need general English rather than specific English. Every year many students enter schools and universities and study the EAP courses (i.e. EGP and ESP) in EFL situations. A great amount of money, resources, time and energy are spent on these courses. However, the end results of such programs are less than satisfactory. Hyland (2002) believes that it is “probably because of gaps in school curricula or the insufficient application of learners themselves” (p. 386). The most important barriers students face in an EFL context like that of Iran are language components (vocabulary and grammar), the four language skills, and appropriate use of language. The ESP students in EFL situations mostly need to acquire general English and harness language in order to deal effectively with the requirements of their subject-specific courses.

Unfortunately, some students, teachers, and administrators assume that General English is not important and cannot develop students’ linguistic and communicative competence. They assume that EGP is a general course which can barely teach useful things to the students. However, as Widdowson(1998) emphasizes “simplicity of language is not to be equated with accessibility of meaning” (p. 5). Mainly, EGP should assist students to function effectively in their specific field of study. This branch of ELT is a means to help learners to fulfill their academic requirements (Dudley-Evans & St John, 2000).

**Teacher education**

The prerequisite to investigating teacher education is to define the role of ESP teachers. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) use the term “practitioner” rather than “teacher” to emphasize that ESP work involves much more than teaching. According to them, ESP practitioner can have several roles: The ESP practitioner as a teacher, The ESP practitioner as course designer and material provider, The ESP practitioner as researcher, the ESP practitioner as collaborator, and The ESP practitioner as evaluator.
What reality reveals in an Iranian context is that teacher education is not provided for both ESP teachers and content area specialists and there is no cooperation between these two groups of teachers. In addition to the poor language proficiency of the ESP learners, ESP teachers are not motivated enough to deal with the scientific content information of an academic field of study other than their own field. On the other hand, content area specialists do not have an acceptable command over language and their only choice is translation. As such the output is not satisfactory. One other problem is that ESP teachers barely evaluate and reflect on their own teaching in such a de-motivating context. They (ESP teachers and content area specialists) cannot bridge the gap among ESP learners, ESP textbook designers/writers, and policy makers. Strategic teaching and the use of reading strategies has no place in such classes. Therefore, we cannot direct students, especially considering their background, to the content information through mere translation of ESP texts.

**ESP Materials**
The most prominent debate on ESP is concerned with the selection and use of authentic vs. non-authentic, general vs. subject-specific and simple vs. simplified materials. One major problem as posed on an Iranian context is again the lack of need analysis in the process of designing, developing, and writing ESP materials. One other problem is that in the real world teachers barely save any time to research and develop appropriate and useful materials. Therefore, it is believed that many teachers have become slaves of the published course books available. Gatehouse (2001) notes that “no one ESP text can live up to its name” (p. 10). Clapham (2001) states that finding appropriate materials is indeed difficult and the appropriateness of these materials cannot be determined in advance.

Last but not the least, as Azizfar, Koosha, and Lotfi(2010) state, it is disappointing that researchers have not provided more guidance to enable teachers and administrators to make wiser decisions.

**EFL teachers or content area specialists?**
Who must teach ESP, EFL teachers or content area specialists? As Maleki (2011) has rightfully stated teaching English for Specific Purposes was and is a controversial issue among EFL teachers and others. The result of his study indicates that EFL teachers are more qualified to teach ESP courses. Our experience as ESP teachers in different universities in Iran shows that in most universities, content area specialists teach the ESP courses and EGP courses are assigned to EFL teachers.

Unfortunately, the only resort of content area specialist is the translation of ESP texts on a word by word basis. They do not have much command over the language, strategic reading, pronunciation, and other critical linguistic features of the text. The historical background of ESP learners makes the situation much more difficult. Here we need a veteran EFL teacher to pave the way for students in the process of reading and comprehension of such texts. An EFL teacher can better disentangle the students from the linguistic difficulties of the text and lead them to the
EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Following those retrospective and prospective reflection on ESP in Iran, some instructional implications are proposed here:

• As long as policy makers in our educational system are reluctant to make some dramatic changes in our educational system, the chronic disease of ESP cannot be cured in Iran. Therefore, the methodology must change. To do so, we must change the methodology of teacher education in teacher training centers focusing on the most recent trends of teaching, post method, and critical reflection. GTM must be eradicated from schools and new materials arising out of such changes must be introduced. All these require volition, investment, and support on the part of ministry of education and ministry of science, research, and technology. If we succeed in doing so, students will enter universities with a rich general English background making the connection between students' language proficiency and the goals of ESP.

• ESP emerged out of the concern with the needs of different groups of learners. English is the medium of communication and people from all walks of life need to learn it to fulfill such needs as exchanging ideas, communicating on the internet and social networks, performing educational and occupational tasks, and reading newspapers, magazines, writing for conference presentation. De-motivation of the learners and inefficiency of the ESP classes may stem from ignoring their needs and expectations by authorities and decision makers. In fact our educational system at tertiary level is suffering from the lack of systematic need analysis. Policy makers, universities, ESP teachers, and material writers must pay attention to the needs of the learners. Dehnad, et al. (2014) recommended that a team consisting of instructors from educational departments, including English language department and students come to some agreements about educational needs, wants, expectations and desires about ESP curriculum of post graduate students. Moreover, ESP teachers must engage in the process of exchanging their ideas about students' needs and expectations with content area specialists. As Benesch (1996, pp. 736) claims, needs analysis is a political and subjective process. Critical needs analysis assumes that institutions are hierarchical and those at the bottom are often entitled to more power than they have. Hashemi, et al. (2011) stipulated that learners, who are at the bottom of the hierarchy in top-down educational systems such as Iran, should be given more power and their voices should be heard in order to facilitate change. Faculty members need to become aware of what their students need, versus what the institutions think of as being necessary and take action accordingly.

• As Dora Chostelidou, et al.(2009) has stated the impact of teacher training on optimizing teaching and learning opportunities in the ESP classroom need hardly be argued as the distinct characteristics and the nature of English for Specific Purposes require awareness on the part of the ESP teachers as to the diversified roles and the modern instructional needs assumed of them. Using skills as a framework of ESP, ESP teachers must be provided with the necessary knowledge and tools to deal with their own students’ specializations. Most of them are not
specialists in the field and they work with students who know the subject better than the teacher do. A professional teacher is someone who develops the essential skills in understanding, using, and presenting authentic information through various learning strategies and is able to switch from one professional field to another without being obliged to spend months on getting started. Wright et al. (1997) declared that “more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than by any other single factor” (p. 63). Hence, studying and exploring teachers’ personalities, beliefs, and performances is arguably required to discover the efficient options for fostering the learning process. By providing teachers with teacher education programs, the educational system can help them continue their own educations, gain vital skills that they may not have been able to learn while taking college courses, and stay current with new techniques. It is critical for teachers not only to know their material but also to help students in order for them to truly succeed. The purpose of these programs must be educating teachers on the best ways to instruct and motivate students for the best possible outcomes.

One more practical implication for ESP in an Iranian context is that because of the dearth of adequate exposure to general English, students need more EGP rather than ESP courses. As Zohrabi (2010) has stated, undergraduate students are not provided with general English language for adequate period of time at university, i.e. EGP is only offered during the first or second semester. The students need to be exposed to general English language throughout the whole period of their studies. That is, it is better that EGP course to be offered to the students each semester. When the students obtained enough language proficiency, they could tackle their subject-specific texts more easily.

*Who must teach ESP? EFL teachers or content area specialists? In Iran, most of the ESP courses are taught by content area specialists and the result of the studies conducted by Davoudi-Mobarakheh, et al. (2014) and the observations of the researchers in the present study show that

* Specialists are just vocally active but EFL teachers are ready for a variety of pedagogical movements in the class.
* Specialists have less encouraging students. EFL teachers make more autonomous learners by engaging them in the process of learning. EFL teachers provoke ESP learners background knowledge by frequent warm ups and various strategies and materials.
* Specialist classes are teacher oriented but EFL teacher classes are student centered.
* Specialists are not knowledgeable enough to tackle the linguistic problems posed on texts. ESP teachers just translate.
* As Duddy-Evans (1998) states the EFL teachers need not have a scientific command on the ESP texts.
* More student participation has been reported where EFL teachers run the classes.
* Translation is limited in EFL teacher class, but it is very common in specialist class.
* The use of different learning strategies by EFL teachers motivates and involve the students in the process of learning while a content area specialist can only teach on a word by word translation basis where learners have a mechanical role and are de-motivated.
The evaluation of ESP materials is closely related to students’ motivation and their needs, thus affecting the efficiency of the course. Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach; they encourage learners to learn (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p. 107). Wallace (1992) specifies five determining criteria in order to evaluate the ESP materials:

* Adequacy — the materials should be of the appropriate language, age, level.
* Motivation — they should present content which is interesting and motivating for students’ work. It aims at students’ effectiveness, interest and pleasure of work.
* Sequence — it is important if there is some relation to previous texts, activities, topics not to miss the sense of a lesson.
* Diversity — they should lead to a range of classroom activities, be a vehicle for teaching specific language structure and vocabulary and promote reading strategies.
* Acceptability — they should accept different cultural customs or taboos.

To sum up, materials evaluation not only helps an ESP practitioner to adjust the teaching materials to the learners’ needs and their level of proficiency, but also keep them motivated. ESP courses have started to be more prevalent particularly in our rapidly developing country in recent decades since Iran has undergone a lot of changes in her national and foreign policy, international trade and economy. Sometimes, it has been observed that students are not motivated to study English. As most of them do need English for their future studies and careers, it should be found out why they do not show enough motivation to learn English. One of the reasons would be that they have to study books which are not compiled for their specific needs.

CONCLUSION

In this study, a critical appraisal of ESP in Iran from both retrospective and prospective perspectives was presented. With regard to the retrospective side, we focused on the general English background of the ESP learners before entering the universities. We concluded that one striking problem students face while reading ESP courses at the academic level was their poor language proficiency they carry with themselves to the university which is not compatible with the goals of ESP. The introspective side of this reflective study focused on five determining yet ignored factors in ESP especially in an Iranian context (need analysis, teacher education, EGP or ESP?, ESP materials, EFL teacher or content area specialist?).

Finally, and based on those introspective and prospective reflections, some educational implications were proposed for policy makers (ministry of education and ministry of science, research, and technology), educational institutions (namely universities), teachers, students, and ESP textbook writers.

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ON THE EFFECT OF ELECTRONIC SCAFFOLDING VS. NON-ELECTRONIC SCAFFOLDING ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS’ STRUCTURAL ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
The present research study aimed to search the effect of electronic vs. non-electronic scaffolding on learners’ structural ability. To conduct this, amongst the various computer tools, email was selected as the channel of communication between the teacher and the learners. The researcher adopted a quasi-experimental approach. The sample of the study consisted of 66 male intermediate English as a foreign language (EFL) learners from Metanat English Language Institute in Bardaskan, Khorasan Razavi, Iran. The scaffolding strategies were used in teaching English grammar for the e-scaffolding group via exchanging e-mails in the fall semester of the year 2014-2015. Also, the same strategies and techniques were taught in non-electronic scaffolding group. But the control group was not gone through these strategies. The standard grammar test was used as pre and post tests to measure any possible differences between the mean scores of the students in electronic, non-electronic scaffolding and control groups. The collected data were analyzed statistically using one-way ANOVA. The study results indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the e-scaffolding group’s mean scores in the pre-and the posttest compared to the non-electronic scaffolding and control groups. In the light of those results, the study recommended the necessity of implementing strategies and techniques of scaffolding via e-mail exchanging in teaching English grammar.

KEYWORDS: E-scaffolding, non-electronic scaffolding, structural ability

INTRODUCTION
Accuracy along with fluency has always been significant in producing foreign languages, and it cannot be disregarded. To obtain it, there exist several approaches and techniques such as inductive learning, deductive learning, implicit, explicit ones or problematizing, pushing, and scaffolding which to me the latter plays a fundamental role in conveying grammar knowledge in the process of teaching which is a necessary element for production skills (speaking and writing).
There should be sufficient support to provide the security to take risks with the language especially in the case of grammar in order to make learners autonomous, responsible and problem solvers. Successful learners are who take the responsibility of their own and have an active role in the process of learning. In fact, it’s the very autonomous learning which involves the supporting and facilitating role of the teacher. McLoughlin and Marshall (2000) define scaffolding as a form of assistance provided to learner by a more capable teacher or peer that helps the learners perform a task that would normally not be possible to accomplish by working independently.

Grammar instruction is often regarded as the unattractive component of the language by the language learners. One of the best solutions to change the unattractiveness to attractiveness is creating attractive learning tool that acts as a stimuli for learning a foreign language (Taylor, 1980). The important issue is here that with the rise of the world of digital technologies, attractiveness has been created in various areas of language. That is, providing electronic supports that empower them to cope with more complicated and sophisticated content and skill demands than they could otherwise handle. Among the variety of forms of facilitating language teaching and learning via internet, e-mail has been so far the most popular and useful tool. In Iran, applying e-mail into English writing teaching is still a relatively new field due to the late access to the Internet.

The usage of computers for teaching grammar has not been seen as the same amount of communicative computer assisted language learning, while teaching grammar electronically owns several potential advantages. Computer tools such as e-mailing can provide rich input and explicit grammar explanation. In a study conducted by Ragan, Redwine, Savenye, and McMichael (1993) learning time lessens by 30 percent compared to the conventional instruction group. Furthermore, they revealed that learner interactivity and control over programs as the characteristics of computer instruction generate improved results in achievement.

The goal of this study was to determine whether or not students who are provided with e-scaffolding to practice grammar skills using e-mailing perform differently than students who are provided with traditional opportunities through scaffolding to practice grammar skills. The primary research question posed in this study was whether a difference is created in the acquisition of a specific grammar point for students taught in an electronic instruction versus chalk and talk class.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Theoretical and empirical support for the study and informing the research methodology is served through the literature review. Careful review of relevant literature has substantiated the need for the current study. Thornbury (2000) says: “Grammar is partly of what forms (or structures) are possible in a language. Traditionally, grammar has been concerned almost exclusively with analysis at the level of the sentence. Thus, the grammar is a description of the rules that govern how a language’s sentences are formed” (p.1). Maugham (1938) adds, “It is necessary to know grammar, and it is better to write grammatically than not, but it is well to remember that grammar is common speech formulated. Usage is the only test.”
The concept of scaffolding draws different meanings among different researchers. Some researchers like McLoughlin and Oliver (1998) think of it as any form of support that students receive. But Orrill and Galloway (2001) restrict it to particular processes, strategies, and techniques that support learners. In this study, scaffolding contains a process that enables a learner to attain an objective, solve a problem, or end with a task that the individual would not be able to do without support from other human beings or tools.

The roots of the term "scaffolding" are attributed to Vygotsky's (1978) socio-cultural theory, and, in particular, his concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Zone of proximal development containing the concept of scaffolding was proposed for the first time by the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978). He never used the exact terminology of scaffolding. In his view, ZPD is the distance between what a learner can do independently and what he or she can potentially achieve with individualized support from more capable others, such as a teacher, even a peer or someone who has greater expertise. The process and support by which a more knowledgeable other mediates a learner's attempts to take on new learning characterize scaffolding in instructional situations.

Grammar was associated with linear thought and “perceived as anathema to process because its teaching had always been identified with teacher-centered classrooms” (Devet, 2002, p. 10). Nowadays, with the entrance of digital technologies to the process of education especially in teaching and learning foreign languages, teachers’ interest in resorting to computer tools for teaching grammar to get rid of traditional teaching has increased. In spite of the abundance of comparative research on electronic scaffolding in other academic fields such as reading and the growing body of research on methods of teaching grammar, as far as the literature review is concerned, a few research studies have investigated the use of electronic foreign language teaching. One area that has gained much from the computer tools in terms of data volume, easy access, interactive and immediate feedback and possible individualization of teaching is grammar drills. Generally, the results of the comparative studies have indicated that computer-based language instruction produced syntax development and created high motivation than traditional or conventional classroom instruction. However, a few studies have found that computer-based language instruction had non-significant or negative effects (Biesenbach-Lucas, Meloni & Weasenforth, 2000).

Abu Naba’h, Hussain, Al-Omari, and Shdeifat (2009) compared the computer assisted language learning (an instructional program) and the traditional method on the achievement of passive voice of secondary students in Jordan. The results of their study showed that there is an effect on students’ achievement attributed to receiving the treatment through the instructional program. Ghorbani and Marzban (2013) investigated the effect of teaching grammar with Power Point Presentation on Iranian Beginner EFL learners over a four-week period. During these sessions grammar in CALL group was taught with Power Point software that were introduced to the class instead of the traditional method of grammar teaching. The grammar lessons with the inclusion of Power Point slides that was made up of colorful learning tips, inspiring pictures, bulleted patterns of highlighted examples, related sounds of the pictures, and their hyperlinks to refer to their original sites for further explanations. The researchers confirmed that the computers have been
considered a good fit for grammar instruction. In a study to investigate the difference of acquisition of specific grammar points (past tense (irregular and irregular), past continuous and present perfect (regular form) and conditional tense) for students taught in electronic teaching versus those in a chalk and talk class, Nutta (1998) administered a treatment of 60 minutes of teaching a day per one week. The results showed that computer-based grammar teaching was at least as effective as teacher-driven.

The purpose of scaffolding through e-mailing is to enable effective, efficient and engaging learning. It should contain cognitive and non-cognitive elements. Interest, motivation, emotions, beliefs, attitudes and efficacy constitute non-cognitive element. On the other hand, modeling, questioning, optimal guidance, information processing and recall constitute cognitive elements. By joining the two elements the teacher can reach a more effective, efficient, and engaging learning which via e-mail can reduce the learners’ anxiety in learning grammar and boost their levels of their motivation.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
For the purpose of the present study, the following research questions were formulated:
Q1. Does electronic scaffolding have any significant effects on Iranian intermediate EFL learners’ syntax?
Q2. Does non-electronic scaffolding have any significant effects on Iranian intermediate EFL learners’ syntax?

METHODOLOGY
Participants and setting
The population of this study included English learners at intermediate level studying at Metanat Foreign Languages Institute of Bardaskan, Khorasan Razavi, Iran. Their age ranged from 14-18. They were all native speakers of Farsi. All participants were studying English as a required subject for three to four years in secondary school.

Instrumentation
Language proficiency test
The language proficiency test named Nelson English language test, series 100, developed by Fowler and Coe (1976) was administered to determine the learners’ level of proficiency and homogeneity in terms of English language proficiency. It consisted of two sections: structure and vocabulary in the form of multiple choice questions. It included 50 items and the time allotted was nearly 40 to 45 minutes.

The Nelson test is a standard test, however, in order to test the reliability of the test in this study for these students, a Kuder-Richardson was calculated to determine the degree of internal consistency. The analysis was done considering the data from the whole participants taking part in this study. The obtained value through the analysis was 0.602 which is regarded at an acceptable level of reliability.
**ICT questionnaire**

Since the treatment in e-scaffolding (ES) group was supposed to be done only through emails, the researcher had to determine learners’ degree of familiarity with information and communication technology especially e-mail and Internet on which he could assign them to the ES group. To serve this purpose, the standard ICT questionnaire taken from Internet was administered to see whether the participants had the knowledge of using e-mail and Internet. This questionnaire includes two parts in Persian (Persian version, because of avoiding misunderstanding): the first part provided personal information about the participants, and the second part which is divided into four sub-parts consisting of 25 items in the Likert scale format from “little” to “very much”. It is worth mentioning that in order to find more assurance on its reliability, Cronbach’s Alpha was utilized to assign the degree of reliability (.72). In part A, the participants were required to mark the type and amount of using computer. In part B, they were to rank using computer software. Also, in parts C and D, they were asked to check the type and amount of using Internet and Internet services.

**Grammar in Use Intermediate Third Edition Evaluation Test**

As the aim of this study is to examine the effect of e-scaffolding on structural ability, a standard grammar test named Grammar in Use Intermediate Third Edition Evaluation Test (Cambridge University Press 2010) was administered as a pre-test. Since the time interval between the pre-test and post-test was long enough, the same pre-test was used as post-test too. This test is known as a standard test, however, in order to assure its reliability, Kuder-Richardson was administered to assign the degree of reliability. The value gained by that was 0.812 which is an accepted degree. It included 50 multiple choice items on different topics. The time allotted to answer it was 45 minutes.

**Procedure**

The researcher announced the course project to the institute principal. She reviewed the project and approved it. First, the Nelson English proficiency test, series 100, was administered to see whether they are homogeneous in terms of English language proficiency or not. At first, the test takers were 70 male students. The passing mark was at least 30 out of 50. Those who obtained at least 30 marks and more have been regarded having the same level of proficiency for this research. Two students failed the test. The rationale of administering this test was to assure their proficiency level. Second, the standard ICT questionnaire was set up to see whether they had information and communication technology literacy according to which 22 of the participants who were ICT literate were assigned as the electronic scaffolding (ES) group. The participants who obtained at least %75 of the choices could be regarded ICT literate. All the participants passed the questionnaire successfully except seven participants who did not possess computer systems at home. In order to find out the learners’ level of structural ability before conducting the treatment, the researcher utilized the grammar in use intermediate test as a pretest on three groups. The control group and the non-electronic scaffolding group were supposed to attend their classes 90 minutes in the evening the first four days of the week for eight weeks. The researcher decided on certain rules for writing e-mails, otherwise he would become overloaded by e-mails from the learners. He agreed on the evenings when he answered the e-mails to avoid impatient learners sending him an e-mail requesting his answer twice a day. He said that he
usually uses group e-mailing which will save time and send certain answers or directions to all learners. Treatment was implemented in two months for sixteen sessions each with 90 minutes on control and NS groups in the afternoon the first four weekdays. All the weekdays from morning to night was allotted to e-mail exchanging with the ES group. The materials used in the present study also included the book contained grammatical points by Raymond Murphy (2012) titled “English grammar in use”.

In the control group, the researcher taught the grammar points explicitly. A traditional grammar lecture followed by translation exercises. The structures were taught deductively. In the non-electronic scaffolding group grammar was taught inductively and in an implicit way by using scaffolding strategies. Also, these strategies such as such as modeling, templates, feedback, and questioning prompts which were approved and experienced by some researchers mentioned in the literature review are very effective in teaching grammar to foreign language learners. Thus, he tried to keep those strategies to teach grammatical points in both non-electronic scaffolding (NS) group and those possible in electronic scaffolding (ES) group.

But the ES group involved the learning process via e-mailing. The teaching and learning were done via e-mails. Through exchanging e-mails, the researcher established a trusted atmosphere and enhanced a “give and take” environment to learning by being a participant, a co-respondent, and a facilitator. He asked students to introduce themselves to one another through e-mailing. In the first e-mail for each unit containing a grammatical point, the teacher first introduced the grammar items learnt. Second, he gave explanations of forms and functions. Third, he followed the examples of usage in sentences and carbon copied to all members of the ES group. If there was no problem for them in understanding that point they sent an e-mail indicating all is OK. Feedback was given by the teacher as well as by the other respondents. If a student had a question on a certain grammatical point he received comments tailored to his level considering his current position by questions or statements. The teacher used different techniques such as template, modeling, question prompts, feedback appropriate to that particular structural point. To teach and scaffold, for example, “Relative Clauses” (who and which) the teacher, first, wrote what a clause and relative clauses are. Then he gave its forms and functions followed by the examples of usage in sentences. Since modeling as one of the scaffolding strategies was possible for most of the structural points, the teacher utilized that. He did this by chunking a compound sentence having who or which into simple sentences and highlighted that part having who or which clause in different colors, bolding and italicizing it. He used questions to draw the learners’ attention to that particular point considering their previous knowledge related to that subject.

**Study design**

Because it was impossible for the researcher to set learners randomly to these three classes, the design of this study is quasi-experimental design. The participants of this research are intact.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In order to sort and reveal data in a logical way, the researcher administered various statistical procedures. In order to ensure the normality of data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (table 1) besides
the one way ANOVA were conducted for all data in Nelson test, grammar pretest and grammar posttest in three groups of e-scaffolding, non-electronic scaffolding and control groups.

Table 1: Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

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<th>Nelson</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>Normal Parameters</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-.108</td>
<td>-.159</td>
<td>-.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
<td>1.107</td>
<td>1.290</td>
<td>1.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.172</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.152</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Test distribution is Normal.

Note. G.PR stands for grammar pretest; G.PO stands for grammar posttest

In order to homogenize participants and select those students with similar level of language proficiency, Nelson test was administered. Table 2 displays results of relevant analysis.

Table 2: Results of Homogeneity of Variances for Nelson Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.105</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>.338</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table 2 shows, p-value is .338 which is greater than α = 0.05, therefore, the null hypothesis of Levene test which is the equality of variances, is supported, and ANOVA can be used. To be sure about the homogeneity of the groups in terms of general proficiency, one-way ANOVA was used.

Table 3: Results of ANOVA for Nelson Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.576</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td>.072</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>690.18</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>10.955</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>691.75</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 3 shows, there is not any significant difference (F=0.072, p=.931 > 0.05) among three groups in Nelson test before implementing the treatment. The results show that p-value is .931 which is greater than α = 0.05.

To check and compare the homogeneity of the total participants of the three groups (N=66), the Nelson Test was administered. Also, to obtain more detailed information about the differences about the means and to compare the three groups, multiple comparisons were conducted. Table 4 illustrates the descriptive statistics of participants’ scores.
As Table 4 shows, there is not any statistically significant difference among three groups since p-value is greater than 0.05 in every comparison. (p=.936 for comparison of control and non-scaffolding groups; p=.963 for comparison of control and e-scaffolding groups; p=.996 for comparison of non-scaffolding and e-scaffolding groups). Therefore, participants gained similar and close scores in Nelson test.

In order to assess the participants' performance at the outset of the study, one way ANOVA was again conducted. Results are shown in table 5.

According to Table 5 p-value is greater than 0.05 (p=.235), therefore, AONVA can be conducted.

To ensure the homogeneity of groups with respect to grammar in pretest, one-way ANOVA was used. The results are revealed in table 6.

As Table 6 shows, there is no significant difference (F=.927, p=.401> 0.05) among three groups with respect to grammar ability.

To check and compare the homogeneity of the total participants of the three groups (N=66) in terms of grammar ability, the Grammar in use third edition evaluation test was administered. Also, to obtain more detailed information about the differences about the means and to compare the three groups, multiple comparisons were conducted. Table 7 illustrates the descriptive statistics of participants’ scores and shows the results.
Table 7: Results of Multiple Comparisons for Grammar Pretest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent pretest</th>
<th>Variable: grammar</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% CI Lower Bound</th>
<th>95% CI Upper Bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(I) group</td>
<td>(J) group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scheffe C</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>-.50000</td>
<td>1.13886</td>
<td>.425</td>
<td>-4.3552</td>
<td>1.3552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ES</td>
<td>-1.09091</td>
<td>1.1386</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td>-3.9462</td>
<td>1.7643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1.50000</td>
<td>1.1386</td>
<td>.425</td>
<td>-1.3552</td>
<td>4.3552</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ES</td>
<td>.40909</td>
<td>1.1386</td>
<td>.938</td>
<td>-2.4462</td>
<td>3.2643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>-.40909</td>
<td>1.1386</td>
<td>.938</td>
<td>-3.2643</td>
<td>2.4462</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 7 displays, p-value is more than 0.05 indicating that there is not any statistically significant difference among means of three groups in grammar test administered as the pretest. As a consequence, participants' homogeneity was accepted prior to the treatments implemented in the study.

In order to see whether e-scaffolding treatment has significant effects on EFL students' syntax, independent sample t-test was employed. And the first null-hypothesis restated below was rejected.

H01: "Electronic Scaffolding has no significant effects on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' syntax".

To compare the performances of the e-scaffolding and control participants in the grammar posttest, independent sample t-test was utilized. Table 8 illustrates the descriptive statistics of participants' scores.

Table 8: Results of Independent Sample T-test for Grammar Posttest in E-scaffolding & Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>39.45</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>33.81</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 8 shows, participants in e-scaffolding group (N=22, M=39.45, SD=3.55) significantly (df=42, t=5.26, p=.000 < 0.05) performed better than those in control group (N=22, M=33.81, SD=3.54) in grammar posttest. The difference is significant at the 0.05 level of significant. The present finding confirms the significant effect of using e-scaffolding in improvement of EFL students' grammar. Therefore the first null-hypothesis was rejected.

In order to see whether scaffolding has significant effects on EFL students’ syntax, independent sample t-test employed. Also, the second null-hypothesis restated below was tested.

H02: "Non-electronic scaffolding has no significant effects on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' syntax ".

285
To compare the performances of the non-scaffolding and control participants in the grammar posttest, independent sample t-test was utilized. Table 9 shows the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>36.90</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>33.81</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 12 shows, participants in non-electronic scaffolding group (N=22, M=36.90, SD=4.01) significantly (df=42, t=2.71, p=.01< 0.05) performed better than those in control group (N=22, M=33.81, SD=3.54) in grammar posttest. The difference is significant at the .05 level. The present finding confirms the significant effects of using non–electronic scaffolding in improvement of EFL students' grammar. Therefore the second null-hypothesis was rejected.

**CONCLUSION**

It is concluded that the electronic scaffolding strategies and techniques initiated a meaningful change in the mean score of the ES group. In other words, providing learners with scaffolding via exchanging e-mails can positively affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners’ performance in grammar tests. Besides, the results indicate that the participants in the e-scaffolding group developed more self-monitoring and regulation by producing more positive results at the end of the study. The results of this study contrastively show that receiving feedback, support and guidance from the instructor via e-mailing to the extent that it’s not felt to be essential can develop a more interactive context in web-enhanced language learning modes, while lack of interaction has been claimed as a major drawback in internet-based L2 classroom activities. This study has established valuable insights into the use of emails in fostering the learning of grammar. The respondents of the study were observed to yield high interesting learning grammar through email exchanges.

Similar to any other study, some inevitable limitations, which may raise new questions for further researches in the same field in the future, are imposed on. In addition to the small sample size and its short duration, among so many channels and applications that are possible such as blogging, chatting, video chatting or e-mailing, the treatment was driven through only e-mailing by the researcher. Another is that this study was carried out in Metanat Language Institute of Bardaskan, Khorasan Razavi, Iran with intermediate students of English language, more research is needed to be conducted in order to see whether similar results will be attained in other settings. Also since the participants’ gender is male, the relationship between learners’ success in structural ability due to the effect of electronic scaffolding could be investigated in terms of gender, in other words, the research could be carried out with equal numbers of participants from each sex. In addition, because these classes already existed in this site, random sampling of the participants was impossible.
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SUICIDE IN ANCIENT TIMES: A NEW-HISTORICIST APPROACH

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ABSTRACT
While human’s right to live has always been an unquestionable doctrine through the ages, his right to die has remained a matter of controversy thus far. Suicide through centuries has been a fact of life and humans’ ideological pendulum has been swinging from the most antithetical extremes to the most agreeable extremes with regard to this phenomenon. Surprisingly, the adoption of fierce and inimical stances against suicide by church authorities in the Middle Ages, had no precedent in the ancient times as suicide was in many cases celebrated or at least tolerated by the ancients and was regarded as an honorable choice in the face of humiliation and capitulation. While humans’ later toleration of suicide in the wake of modernism was to a great extent the fallout of the emergence of skeptical secular philosophies of life and more a backlash against the previous religious monopoly of the church, the ancients maintained a rigid adherence to their mundane life and reckoned suicide as an active means of attaining their worldly aspirations. The present paper aims to delineate the ancients’ affirmative outlook towards suicide in different social, historical, political and literary contexts and to discuss the underlying reasons behind their approach. The findings from the research illustrates how conspicuously the ancients were obsessed with courage, nobility and honor that they sought to find an alternative for attaining these values even in the face of failure. Suicide was the means for measuring their courage against the workings of the fate.

KEYWORDS: Suicide; Ancients; Celebration; Toleration; Right to die

INTRODUCTION
Owing to the fact that Christianity materialized in a world in which dignity and chastity were the integral social fabrics, any Christian stance against suicide in favor of these basic precepts was naturally uncalled for. If the truth be known, many figures of authority such as the early bishop of Hippo, Augustine and the later theologian Thomas Aquinas have postulated that Jesus was a suicide as well. Akin to Socrates, he never adduces reasons to acquit himself and even seems to have incensed his judges. In the book of John we find Jesus saying: “No man taketh [my life] from me, but I lay it down of myself” (John 10:18). Our earliest records verify that Christians did not take issue with suicide and even extolled the virtues of suicide. To illustrate, around the year 300 the scholar Eusebius, soon to be a bishop, set his pen to paper for a compilation of Christian martyrs. He recounts how a Christian woman and her two virgin daughters took their lives out of deference to faith.
However, the most astringent remarks on suicide come from Saint Augustine in his book *City of God* around the year 400. He seems to have signed off on the presupposition that Jesus took his life voluntarily, writing, “His soul did not leave his body constrained, but because he would and where he would and how he would.” Yet he deprecated other suicides and clashes with Eusebius over his judgment on the story of virgin girls killing themselves. For Augustine, the girls would be exonerated of any possible rape. Augustine’s remarks provide us with corroborative evidence that individual intention supplants the outward appearance of an action as a gauge for any moral judgment. With that reversal we leave behind the classically inflected sense that honor—or even virtue, or purity, or the absence of sin—ought to decide the matter of guilt. We have arrived at a morality dependent on individual intention. He dubs suicide as a “detestable crime and a damnable sin” and squarely assails it:

This we affirm, this we maintain . . . that no man ought to inflict on himself voluntary death . . . that no man ought to do so on account of another man’s sins, for this were to escape a guilt which could not pollute him, by incurring great guilt of his own; that no man ought to do so on account of his own past sins, for he has all the more need of this life that these sins may be healed by repentance. . . . Those who die by their own hand have no better life after death (Augustine, 2009, p.29).

As mentioned, medieval retribution for suicide had been severely gruesome, and it became even more atrocious in the wake of the Protestants. In the late Renaissance, those who committed suicide continued to suffer ghastly violence, but these practices began to be drastically opposed by philosophical and literary investigation of suicide. As a matter of fact, many writers and intellectuals of the Renaissance and the early modern period that followed it were engrossed in suicide and viewed it from different facets. Still, the philosophy was to large extent against suicide, but now the pillars of reasoning were founded less on ecclesiastical orthodoxy and more on personal evaluation of the situation. The Renaissance was also an era of showing initiative in diplomacy, economics, and social relations, so we are not taken aback to witness changes in all the dimensions of culture, and adoption of new outlooks towards suicide was part of the vast cultural and political breakthrough. Petrarch excelled in philosophy and literature: his hero Cicero, as mentioned, was at least tolerant and at times booster of certain ancient suicides.

In the Enlightenment, the outlooks Berkeley delineated came to be voiced overtly by philosophers. Enlightenment philosophers launched a full-scale onslaught against a variety of religious taboos and purported that many ecclesiastical rules—such as the religious prohibition of self-murder—were utterly superstition and convention. The loudest champions of the right to suicide were two of the greatest upstarts against Christianity, the Enlightenment philosophers David Hume and Baron d’Holbach. When we survey their philosophical arguments, we come to know that they were concerned more with rejecting religious authority than in particular with adopting a more liberal attitude towards suicide for individuals and community. It is a significant distinction, since it appears that some people were convinced by these philosophers and acted on their convictions. According to contemporaries there was a noticeable rise in suicides in this age, and many pinned the blame on philosophical arguments siding with the right to suicide. When we read those arguments and find them to be acrimonious and smart onslaughts on the religious
injunction against suicide, not exacting, sympathetic reflections on the meaning of life, it is fair to wonder whether this philosophical mobilization against the churches did in fact inspire more negative fallouts than its arguments merited.

The present paper, however, aims to delineate how ancients viewed suicide. There is no shadow of a doubt that the agitation for human’s right for suicide which emerged after the middle Ages in the rise of secularization, was more an intentional move for defying religious authorities and reckoned suicide as the last resort and more as an escape from the ignominy of life. For the ancients, however, the mundane world was replete with excitement and was the only context where human beings could attain their aspiration. However, suicide was highly celebrated for them in many cases and this viewpoint was not adopted as a reaction to previous eras.

DISCUSSION
Owing to coequality of the dead with the living and regarding suicide merely as bidding farewell to unbearable quandary offered by the mundane world and simply a means of entry into another existence, suicide is reckoned as a neutral phenomenon in ancient Egyptian perspective and bears no resemblance to what we see in the upcoming religious discourses.

An anonymous Egyptian papyrus entitled *A Dispute over Suicide* written in Egypt’s First Intermediate Period proposes a tense dialogue between the soul and self in which a man, fed up with exhausting vicissitudes of life endeavors to coax his soul to escort him into death. Whether an individual is condoned to get away with himself takes center stage in the dispute as individual freedom calls social responsibility into question. While the soul asseverates that committing self-murder ruins any chance of enjoying a blissful afterlife, the self is adamant that death signifies a healing to him to attain tranquility and to triumph over mortality.

For a person sentenced to death, execution by suicide was excusable and the Romans, later on, followed the same route as well. Further evidence of the Egyptian embrace of suicide is manifest in what is dubbed Declaration of Innocence which comprised of forty two questions concerning sinful acts asked of a dead person ritualistically. While we can see questions as regards violence and bloodshed, no question is posed among them to denote a proscription for suicide.

No condemnatory or condonable attitude is adopted with respect to suicide in the Old Testament. One can itemize seven instances of self-destructive conduct therein: shunning the ignominy of being killed by a woman, Abimelech had one of his warriors put him to the sword. As Samson’s hair grew long again, he regained his legendary robustness and tore down the philistine temple, putting to death he, himself and the multitude assembled there to rejoice at their victory over him. Ahitophel who forecasts a debacle in his rebellion against King David hanged himself. Saul, who had lost his three offspring in the battle against Philistines on Mount Gilboa, resolved to kill himself. Saul’s armor bearer too, modeled after his lord. Following the fall of the city of Tizrah, Zimri who had abandoned all hope set the king’s house on fire while he was there. Razis, a patriotic elder of Jerusalem, settled upon killing himself rather than be slaughtered by his foes. Jonah is recognized as a figure who considered suicide several times while being caught in the fish’s stomach.
As a prominent case of someone engineering his own death we could refer to the tale of Samson, in the book of Judges. Samson’s mother was visited by an angel during her pregnancy and was told that as long as his infant abided by Nazirite vows, God would grant him outstanding strength. He, therefore, had to abstain from alcohol and never cut his hair. He soon exerted his power on Israel over Philistines through his legendary strength demonstrated by such feats as killing a thousand of armed soldiers using only the jawbone of an ass and killing a lion bare handed.

On the way to his engagement party he comes across a dead lion and comes to know that swarm of bees has made its hive in the lion’s ribcage. Taking some of the honey, he shares it with others and provides his in-laws-to-be with a riddle: “Out of the eater something to eat, out of the strong something sweet” which leads to a massacre. His tragic flaw is when he falls in love with another Philistine woman, Delilah, who overthrows him consequently.

As soon as she makes him expose the chink in his armor, she treacherously shaves his head while sleeping. Philistines soon apprehend him in his feeble state just to blind him. He is then enslaved and yoked like an ox to push a grindstone. While Philistines are rejoicing in their temple at their dominance, Samson whose hair has grown a bit, devastates the whole building killing himself and as many philistines as possible. The story is not voiced tragically and no moral assessment of the incident is made.

Just like the Old Testament, Hebrew Bible adopts a neutral stance against suicide. There are minor exceptions however. Job, whose life is a picture of sheer misery, wished he had never come into being. Despite his wife’s provocations, he resists suicide. He says, “My Soul Chooseth strangling and death rather than my life”. Suicidal as his words may appear, he does not give away. Hence, Job has always served as an anti-suicide biblical symbol. However, scripture sometimes guards against suicidal thought. In the apocryphal book of Ecclesiasticus we read:

Give not over thy mind to heaviness, and afflict not thyself in thine own counsel. . . . Love thine own soul, and comfort thy heart, remove sorrow far from thee: for sorrow hath killed many, and there is no profit therein. Envy and wrath shorten the life, and carefulness bringeth age before the time. . . . For of heaviness cometh death, and the heaviness of the heart breaketh strength. In affliction also sorrow remaineth: and the life of the poor is the curse of the heart. Take no heaviness to heart: drive it away, and member the last end. (Ecclesiasticus 30:21, 22–24; 38:18–20) “Love thine own soul, and comfort thy heart.” We are given a clear directive there: “Sorrow hath killed many, and there is no profit therein.” Scripture is thus not as neutral as it might have seemed.

The New Testament from a neutral standpoint acquaints us with suicidal figures such as Judas Iscariot and Paul’s jailer. Also, the Torah, neither condemns nor condones self-destruction and only in the body of rabbinical literature are we able to trace an opposing posture. Saul’s self-destructive move is quite understandable when interpreted as an avoidance of profanity. Permission is granted to suicide whenever, it is a deterrence against disgrace to God.
Due to Hebrew’s maintaining a tight attachment to life, suicidal inclination is less frequently observed among them. They boasted of being the God’s selected nation and bore a positive attitude towards life. Insanity was known to be the trigger point for developing suicidal tendencies and they, thus, recognized major funeral rights for the victims and never desecrated the corpses.

In Judaism however, suicide was conspicuously a taboo as it put accent on the sacredness of life as well as humane intrinsic values. Giving up the ghost voluntarily was deemed as an affront to God. Life was to be preserved and suicide, even under the direst conditions, meant giving up hope in the Almighty. Suicide was however, justified in defense of goodness, morality and God. Exceptions to the ban on suicide were made only in extreme cases where the principles of divinity were jeopardized. Anyway, funeral rights were usually granted to the victims of suicide and the public participated in funeral rites out of reverence for the living, however with no rending of clothes and no eulogy. Suicide in the midst of war was permissible though as in the case of Josephus, the priest and general in the army of Jews. He was arrested by the Romans and lived the rest of his life in Rome when the lives of Jewish people had undergone major transmutations. He wrote the history of time in four books, The Jewish War, Antiquities of the Jews, His Life and Against Apion.

Josephus reports to us on his involvement in a mass suicide when he decreed the detachment of Jewish troops at Jotopata in A.D. 68. Hemmed in by Vespasian’s army, his warriors came to the conclusion that demise takes precedence over capitulation and adjudicated to commit suicide. Josephus adopts an opposing stance primarily, contending that “for those who have laid mad hands upon themselves, the darker regions of the netherworld receives their souls, and God, their father, visits upon their posterity the outrageous acts of the parents. That is why this crime, so hateful to God, is punished also by the sagest of legislators. With us it is ordained that the body of a suicide should be exposed, unburied until sunset . . . .” He is soon censured for his pusillanimity and threatened to death. Ultimately, he desists from his urge and concedes that suicide was reasonable in such a situation where defending Torah and the holy name is the prime concern and indeed came up with the solution—“that they commit mutual slaughter by lot”—and they unanimously concurred. However, he and one soldier could survive the bloodbath “by chance or by the providence of God” and Josephus could successfully convince his fellow to show the white flag to the Romans.

He recounts even a more awe-inspiring mass suicide which took place in 74 A.D. Zealots, pursued by Romans, took refuge on altitudes of Masada under Eleazar Ben Jair’s leadership. Roman enclosure lasts for three years and they lose any hope for further resistance. Eleazar assembles his comrades and reminds them of their vow not to live under the yoke of Romans and emboldens them to die by their own hand. He proclaims that that “death affords our souls their liberty and sends them to their own place of purity where they are to be insensible to all sorts of miseries.” The warriors engaged in a vast bloodshed which took a heavy toll, killing a total of 960 people. They primarily killed their families and then themselves. Reportedly, ruthless Romans were all awe-stricken in the face of honor and contempt for life demonstrated by the people. The only survivors were two women and five children who had gone into hiding.
Brutus, the most famous of Julius Caesar’s assassins, took his own life when his brigade was defeated following the second battle of Philippi. Many instances of individual suicide could be seen in Josephus’s books, some of which are concerned with Herod and his family members. Phasael, Herod’s younger brother, kills himself while in King Antigones’s custody, in the belief that Herod is dead. Shackled in chains and awaiting capital punishment, he hits his head against a large rock. A year later, Herod gets even with Antigones by killing him. He also recounts two suicide attempts by Herod, one in 41 B.C. by sword and the second in 4 B.C. by knife.

In this part I will introduce the major figures of ancient suicide. We will move from mythical to historical contexts and present the reader with a range of motives for self-murder. In mythical realm motives mostly fall into one of the following categories:

- suicide because of great loss
- altruistic suicide,
- suicide because of shame,
- and suicide because of love gone wrong

There is a strong case for celebration of suicide in ancient Jewish, Greek and Roman worldview. There is, nevertheless, little evidence to buttress the frequency of suicide among them until at least the first century B.C.E.

Quite interestingly, ancient suicidal figures, whether real or fictional, are scarcely diagnosed with depression which is lucidly in stark contrast with our era’s despair suicides. As a matter of fact, despair suicide is mostly reckoned as reprehensible. Plato, for instance, pays obeisance to suicide for the sake of community and launches an acrimonious onslaught against those who end their lives on the grounds of disillusionment. Today, killing oneself under coercion is not beheld as suicide through our eyes. For ancients, however, it was quite the reverse and Socrates served as a suicidal figure thus.

We should bear in mind that familial honor was of paramount significance among the ancients and suicides were less customarily perpetrated against the family than for it. In other words, ancient suicides were social apparatus to insulate family reputation from being tarnished. It was a means by which a good family name could be rehabilitated in the wake of an ignominious event.

Our discussion on ancient suicide centers upon archaic myths from Homer and Hesiod and later Greco-Roman mythology of Sophocles, Ovid and others. As a case in point, when Erechtheus sacrificed his youngest daughter to win victory for Athens against Eleusis, his other daughters kept their vows to die together and killed themselves as the incident was so hard for them to stomach.

Icarius who had been well versed by Dionysus in viticulture and Oenology, was oblivious to enlighten his fellows about the aftermath of drinking. Inebriated, they thought they had been poisoned. They killed Icarius out of fear and interred his corpse under a tree. His daughter, Erigone, unable to stay the course brought death on herself by hanging from the very tree beneath which her father was entombed. According to another source, “sorrowful Erigone wept her fill
for her slain sire, and already was untying the fatal girdle, and bent on death was fastening it to the sturdy boughs” (Hyginus, 1960, p.186). Erigone’s dog Maera led her to her father’s burial site and then threw itself into a well.

When Oedipus could get away with death by solving Sphinx’s unfathomable riddle, the fact heaped too much insult on Sphinx so that she leaped from acropolis to her death. By the same token, when Oedipus could successfully shun the sirens, they killed themselves: “Ulysses proved fatal to them, for when by his cleverness he passed by the rocks where they dwelt, they threw themselves into the sea” (1960, p.117). Supernatural beings had transparently no conception of being overpowered.

Iphigenia is an exemplar of death for the sake of community as Agamemnon sacrifices her for Artemis so that he allows the winds to shift and launch the Greek fleet toward Troy. Yet, in some other versions of the tale, the death is embraced voluntarily by her: “I have chosen death: it is my own free choice. I have put cowardice away from me. Honor is mine now” (Euripides 1375-78).

No doubt, honor of community forcefully prevailed upon the ancients to sacrifice themselves. However, sacrificial death, in this particular case, occasions mortal repercussions, namely, the death of Agamemnon and later Clytemnestra. Also, Orestes’ is driven insane by divine spirits for murdering her mother.

Orion’s three Daughters, Coronides, Menippe and Metioche clearly exemplify ancients’ unceasing tribute to their communities. When the only way to deliver Ionians from the fatal plague was to sacrifice two young women willingly, Orion’s daughters had no hesitation to accept death in behalf of their fellow citizens. As one ancient chronicler tells us, “they cried out . . . that they were willing sacrifices. They thrust their bodkins into themselves at their shoulders and gashed open their throats” (Liberalis, 1992, p.84). The prominent Roman poet Ovid (43 B.C.E. to 18 C.E.), too, directs our attention to an artist’s depiction of the scene where Orion’s daughters are portrayed in the streets of Thebes, stoutheartedly “cutting their throats, piercing their brave hearts with swords,” and dying “for the sake of their people” (Ovid, 2010, p.372). It is crystal clear that there is no attempt made to disguise their extolment for their suicide.

It is beyond doubt that suicide was reckoned as a guardian of one’s honor in the period of Homer. When Charondas indeliberately breached one of his formulated laws by entering the town assembly without removing his dagger, he killed himself with the same dagger thereupon. In the same vein, Greeks and Romans were accredited to take their own lives to avoid apprehension and humiliation in the battlefield. In this regard, we could instance Demosthenes who took poison on the verge of being incarcerated by the Macedonians. Likewise, Vulteius and his troops opted for suicide rather than servility to Pompey. Upon hearing the news of their lord’s suicide, Otho’s soldiers had no ambivalence to follow suit.

P. Decius Mus, 337 B.C., is also noted as he, in compliance with the ritual of devotio, sacrificed himself in the Battle of Vesuvius to decimate the foes. Decius the Younger, son of Mus, also went for killing himself in a fight against the Gauls in 295 B.C. Cato the Younger of Utica is also remarkable as he favored inviting his own death over subjection to Caesar. As a case in
point, Regulus welcomed death with open arms when he abode by his pledge to return to Carthage considering that he had propelled Rome into war against Carthaginians upon his release. Moreover, Greek history transmits two incidents of heroic mass suicide which transpired at Corcyra one in 425 B.C and the other two years later in 427 B.C. Positive that their execution is imminent, large numbers of prisoners engaged in a mass suicide to dodge their mortifying destiny.

When Odysseus bequeathed Achilles’ armor, Ajax, who looked upon himself as the true heir, took umbrage at the incident and committed himself to get back at his former comrades. Deluded by Athena, he slaughters a herd of sheep in the belief that they are Greek combatants. When he rose from the torpor into which he had sunk, he ends his life forthwith to extricate himself from such a fiasco. There is a sensible irony to note here. While he was struggling to latch on to Achilles armor, he was totally ignorant of how defenseless he could be against his own mortal jealousy. Ajax’s case intelligibly epitomizes suicide of shame in the ancient world. In like manner, Jocasta, Oedipus’s mother, hangs herself in the knowledge that she had married her own son and Oedipus blinds himself with a pin from her cloak.

The myth of Thisbe and Pyramus which later provided a template for Shakespeare’s Romeo and Juliet stands as one of the great myths of suicide for love. Both plays present star-crossed lovers who absurdly put an end to their lives. Narcissus, however, typifies self-love. In the earlier versions of the story, Narcissus, immensely tantalized by his own image, plunges into the water and drowns himself willfully. In Canon’s version, nonetheless, he slew himself and narcissus flower blossoms in the ground drenched with his blood.

Hercules’s lover, who craves his attention, is duped by the demigod’s foe and soaks Hercules’ robe in what she conceives to be the love elixir so as to rejuvenate his love for her. But when he puts the robe on, it sears his flesh and when he tries to take it off, it pulls out his organs. He asks his friend to make a pyre and throws himself on it. Hercules engages in a sort of self-immolation which plainly precipitates an impending and otherwise agonizing death. In this sense, we may call this type of suicide Herculean.

Euripides (480 to 406 B.C.E.) as the most modern of the three ancient Greek playwrights has a different slant on the matter since he bluntly values life over death. In his play Iphigeneia in Aulis he writes: “Ill life o’er passeth gracious death”. Elsewhere in The Madness of Hercules, Euripides’ hero says: “Yet, thus I have mused—how deep soe’er in ills—shall I quit life and haply prove me craven? Or, . . . I will be strong to await death.”

While ancient mythical and literary suicides feature sizeable amount of passion, historical records of self-murder are less marked by emotional fervor than by philosophical composure. Though historical figures are in most cases coerced into committing suicide, they do so with a glorious display of courage and nonchalance for death. The fact has its roots in the philosophical worldview of the epoch undoubtedly. We will not hem and haw, then, to make mention of historical instances of forced self-murder. In discussing suicide in ancient Greek and Roman
world, we ought to take notice of the fact that they envisaged no eternal afterlife for the man. Death consequently was the end.

Pythagoras (570 and 495 B.C.E.) is known as one of the earliest proposers of anti-suicide argument. Pythagorean schools vocally ran counter to volitional end to life because, life is hallowed there. Man is dispatched at a guard post and is duty-bound not to leave it until he is retired. Plato, later on, borrowed the idea, which remained a well-known allegory for years.

Cleomenes I, the king of Sparta personifies one of the few instances of suicide which is induced by madness. He is no doubt a figure of substance because his example later appealed to Renaissance philosopher Michel Montaigne and the Enlightenment philosopher David Hume as two major voices in defense of suicide. According to Plutarch, he had nothing to lose when his plot to dethrone Demaratus foiled. However, he resisted Therycion’s enticement to commit suicide and determined to stay alive as long as he could for the others, “For it is an ungenerous thing either to live or die for ourselves” (Plutarch, 1918). Ultimately, in prison he went insane and knifed himself to death. Initial resistance to a splendid suicide culminated eventually in a wretched self-slaughter. That is why the story never escaped Montaigne and Hume’s attention.

Plutarch also draws our attentions to what is defined as suicide cluster nowadays: Once upon a time a dire and strange trouble took possession of the young women in Miletus for some unknown cause. The most popular conjecture was that the air had acquired a distracting and infectious constitution, and that this operated to produce in them an alteration and derangement of mind. At any rate, a yearning for death and an insane impulse toward hanging suddenly fell upon all of them, and many managed to steal away and hang themselves. Arguments and tears of parents and comforting words of friends availed nothing, but they circumvented every device and cunning effort of their watchers in making away with themselves (Plutarch, 1931, 11:249).

To end the epidemic, a decree was issued pursuant to which women who took their lives were sentenced to be dragged naked through the marketplace. The women, supremely protective of their chastity, could not tough the disgrace out and did not hang themselves anymore.

Among historical records, Socrates’ enforced suicide appears salient. By reason of his conviction that philosophy is best done through dialogue, no writing, ascribed to him, is handed down to us to be indicative of his worldview. His student, Plato, is the pre-eminent provenance on Socrates’ ideas. It is beyond doubt, that he was resolute in censuring every aspects of life in his contemporary world of ancient Greece, particularly, humans’ voracity for wealth and sovereignty. As Plato relates in his Phaedo, Socrates staged a spectacular exhibition of poise and resignation in his death. In both Plato and Xenophon’s accounts of his death, Socrates would have been able to abscond from the lock-up but he has a deep yearning to eschew the humiliation of old age and proclaims himself “better of dead.” In disregard of court’s verdict, he never beseeches for life. Still, in Plato’s account of his dying scene, Socrates expresses his disapproval of ending one’s life prior to God’s mandate: “Man is situated in this life as if he were on a post or station which he must not quit without leave; because the gods exert a providential care over us on which account we are a part (as it were) of their property and possessions; and because we
should think it unjust and punishable (if it were in our power to punish) for any slave of our own
to kill himself without our permission.” There is a real prospect that Socrates fixed upon suicide
as means to dispose of an afflictive death. Accordingly, convicts were granted clemency when
they were provided with hemlock. Self-murderers could also avoid sequestration of their holdings
which would have been otherwise denied for those who were executed for crime. They could also
enjoy sepulchral rights. It was viewed as a goodwill gesture when Nero took kindly to let Seneca
commit suicide when he suspected his former teacher’s machination against him. Seneca’s
forlorn writing insinuates that his suicide was less out of honor than utter despair:

Hence the boredom, the disgust for oneself, the tumult of a soul fixed on nothing, the somber
impatience that our own inaction causes, especially when we blush to admit the reasons . . .
tightly contained in a prison with no exit. . . . As Lucretius says, “Thus all continually flee
themselves.” . . . We follow ourselves; we cannot get rid of that intolerable company. . . . We lack
the strength to bear anything: work, pleasure, ourselves, everything in the world is a burden to us.
There are some whom this leads to suicide because their perpetual variations make them turn
forever in the same circle and because they have made all novelty impossible for themselves,
they lose their taste for life and the universe.

Roman law, nonetheless, manifestly vetoed suicide in the case of slaves and soldiers as it was not
in the national interest. Prevalence of stoic army suicides shows under no uncertain terms that
this legal ban was unavailing overall.

Plato (424 to 348 B.C.E.) is known for turning the spotlight on otherworldliness by pertaining to
his theory of ideals. His well-known Allegory of the Cave pictures men in fetters, who face the
far wall of a cave. Their only avenue towards understanding is gleaning shadows cast on the wall
by representations of the objects in front of the fire. Once one throws off the shackles and turns
back, he will be sightless first by the fire and then by the light outside. The gist of his argument is
that what accounts for knowledge is no more than a shade. True knowledge is procured only in an
excruciating and arduous course of understanding.

In his Laws, Plato dwells upon the theme of suicide first and foremost. He enumerates
extenuating circumstances for suicide. Suicide is justified for one so dishonored as to be beyond
expiation and correspondingly in cases of insufferable loss. Socrates too could not be rebuked as
he was compelled by the state to do so. Notwithstanding his seemingly lenience for suicide, he
launches into a draconian tirade against those who end their lives out of “weakness to the
vicissitudes of life”.

As the originator of manifold scientific disciplines from marine biology to logic, ethics to
psychology, Aristotle appears more down-to-earth than his counterparts. He dismisses suicide as
an injustice to community and a type of social larceny. However, he does not waver in his
rationalization of suicide for the sake of community. Taking your life is not only condonable but
also commendable, provided you cede it to the republic.
Throughout history, medical sphere has always laid the groundwork for fierce disputes over toleration of suicide. As one of the pioneers of scientific medicine, Hippocrates’ (460 to 377 B.C.E.) express rejection of assisted-suicide is manifest in his famous adage “First, do no harm.” Hippocratic Oath patently gainsays euthanasia: “I will neither give a deadly drug to anybody if asked for it, nor will I make any suggestion to this effect.” Only patients who were “overmastered by their disease” (Hippocrates, 1967, pp.185-217) were an exception to the rule. They were allowed to make a plea to practitioners to relieve them of pain forever.

The advent of stoicism late in the Greek period marks an epoch incontestably tolerant of suicide. At the heart of stoicism was the idea of accepting life as it is. Resignation and passivity are the pivots around which their whole ascetic philosophy revolves. Characteristically, they were completely impervious to death and embraced it with open arms. One should leave life as one leaves a room that has become too smoky. Given their skeptical outlook on life, this came to mean a penchant for death. The school was founded by Zeno of Citium and was in the ascendant until 529 C.E. when the Byzantine emperor Justinian closed all the philosophical schools in deference to Christianity.

Both Greeks and Romans feast their eyes on death naturalistically. The idea of an afterlife for ordinary people, distinct from gods, begins to emerge, vaguely, in the Judaism of the eighth and seventh centuries B.C.E., starting with the prophet Isaiah but it could never supersede pagan ideologies. Centuries later, the author of Ecclesiastes spells out the fact:

For that which befalleth the sons of men befalleth beasts; even one thing befalleth them: as the one dieth, so dieth the other; yea, they have all one breath; so that a man hath no preeminence above a beast: for all is vanity. All go unto one place; all are of the dust, and all turn to dust again. Who knoweth the spirit of man that goeth upward, and the spirit of the beast that goeth downward to the earth? (Ecclesiastes 3:19–21).

Elsewhere the eponymous Preacher writes:
For to him that is joined to all the living there is hope: for a living dog is better than a dead lion. For the living know that they shall die: but the dead know not anything, neither have they any more a reward; for the memory of them is forgotten. Also their love, and their hatred, and their envy, is now perished; neither have they any more a portion forever in anything that is done under the sun (Ecclesiastes 9:4–6).

In the Hellenistic age, dating from the death of Alexander the Great in 323 B.C.E. and spreading throughout the vast Roman Empire, a range of “mystery religions” came to prominence, namely, the cult of Isis, the Eleusinian Mysteries and the Mythraic Mysteries. In a completely rarefied atmosphere, their cosmopolitan luminaries passed on the occult and provided their initiates with insurance and a life after demise. The epidemic dissemination of mystic ideologies was to a large extent an insurrection against the frosty religion of the state. Pre-Christian Romans’ worldview, after all, had been predicated principally upon mundane doctrines and for them adherence to the values and virtues of community was the chief avenue to safeguard purpose and inner peace.
Allegiance to such mores required them to keep cool in confrontation with death and even to
sacrifice their lives for a sublime end.

Hellenistic period is also marked by Epicurean movement which was thought of as tolerant
towards suicide. Epicurus (341 to 270 B.C.E.), based upon the little writing imparted to us, was
steadfast in cleansing the man of the fear of death, fear of the gods and fear of death:

Whatsoever causes no annoyance when it is present causes only a groundless pain in the
expectation. Death, therefore, the most awful of evils, is nothing to us, seeing that, when we are,
death is not come, and when death is come, we are not. It is nothing then, either to the living or to
the dead, for with the living it is not and the dead exist no longer (Epicurus, 1972, pp.649-50).

The Roman poet and philosopher Lucretius was the great bard of Epicureanism and is said to
have taken his own life at age forty-five, in 55 B.C.E. Due to the fact that so little of Epicurus’
own writing has survived thus far, he could come to our aid opportunely in order to elucidate
Epicureans’ approach towards death. In line with his shaman, in his book-length poem entitled
On the Nature of Things, he outspokenly dispenses with the feeling of apprehension for death:

Death, then, is nothing to us, no concern,
Once we grant that the soul will also
die.
Just as we felt no pain in ages past
When the Carthaginians swarmed to the attack,

So too, when we no longer are, when our
Union of body and soul is put asunder,
Hardly shall anything then, when we are not,
Happen to us at all and stir the senses,
Not if the earth were embroiled with the sea and
the sea with heaven!

Now if you happen to see someone resent
That after death he’ll be put down to stink
Or be picked apart by beasts or burnt on the pyre,
You know that he doesn’t ring true, that something hidden
Rankles his heart—no matter how often he says
He trusts that there’s no feeling after death (Lucretius, 1995, pp. 26-27).

It should be noted, however, that Lucretius’ writing, unlike Epicurus’, strikes us as existential and
nihilistic. While comradeship and elation constituted central tenets of Epicurus’ mindset,
Lucretius appears to have been a much more skeptical disciple. According to him, “each man
tries to flee from himself, but to that self, from which of course he can never escape, he clings
against his will, and hates it.” The fact comes as no surprise as according to historians, cynicism
had suffused the period between the seventh and fourth centuries B.C. Among the heavyweights
of philosophy, Theognis of Megara, Sophocles, Euripides, Herodotus, and Democritus were great
apostles of the right for suicide. Epictetus, the prominent stoic philosopher puts in his two cents’
worth: “live as long as it is agreeable; if the game does not please you, go; if you stay, do not complain.”

Cato was a Roman statesman and is recognized as an apotheosis of rectitude. He was also a Stoic. In 49 B.C.E. when Caesar could wrest the power from Senate, Cato preferred to end his life rather than witnessing the demise of the Republic and bowing down before a victorious Caesar. Based on valid documents he, in all likelihood, took his life twice. In one version, he first gashed his abdomen. He was found covered with blood and a doctor replaced his intestines and stitched up his wound but when left alone again, Cato ripped out the stitches, eviscerated himself again, and finally died.

Cicero (106 to 43 B.C.E.), the ingenious Roman rhetorician, philosopher and statesman, brings another arresting commentary on suicide. Cicero and Cato are poles apart as Cicero acclimatized himself to the political reversal following the investiture of Julius Caesar. He on the one hand finds Cato a model of liberty and on the other hand sees eye to eye with Plato that no man should exercise his right to die as we should attend our posts fully. In point of fact, he applauded self-sacrifice for the sake of state:

“But noble deaths, sought voluntarily, for the sake of country, are not only commonly reckoned glorious by rhetoricians but also happy. They go back to Erechtheus, whose daughters sought even with eagerness for death to save the lives of their fellow-citizens” (Cicero, 1950, pp. 116-17).

Women have been always viewed as the pillars of strength in reference to suicide. There is no shadow of a doubt that Lucretia should be reckoned as one of the greatest sources of inspiration for the ancients. Raped by Etruscan king's son Sextus Tarquinius, this semi-legendary figure in the history of the Roman Republic took her own life clamoring for justice. The incident is said to have kindled the revolution that overthrew the monarchy and established the Roman Republic. Arria, is another Roman figure who was recognized as the embodiment of self-sacrifice and the quintessence of philosophical spirit. In the year 42 C.E. when his husband Caecina Paetus was convicted of treason by the emperor Claudius and dictated to kill himself, he found himself too pusillanimous to undertake the task. Finding her mate shamefully effete, Arria valiantly stabbed the dagger into her chest, famously saying, “Nondolet, Paete!”—It doesn’t hurt, Paetus!—and handed the dagger back to him for his turn (Pliny the Younger, 2006, pp. 152-53). Pliny the Younger (61–c. 112 C.E.) held many contemporary suicides in high esteem most of which validate the great influence exerted by stoic movement. He recounts how a severely wounded soldier is emboldened by his wife to take both their lives. The fact overtly betokens the potent example that Arria served for Romans. Porcia Catonis is another salient female figure who is supposed to have wolfed down scorching coals upon hearing the death of his husband Brutus. To belabor the point, Cleopatra made a sharp retort to Augustus Caesar’s inauguration by committing suicide, clutching two poisonous asps to her breast.

Quite interestingly, unrequited love provided compelling impetus for the ancients to end their lives. Virgil (70–19 B.C.E.) the illustrious Roman poet makes us conversant with absorbing
instances of suicide for love. In his *Aeneid* he relates how Dido, the queen of Carthage, killed herself when Aeneas, with whom she had fallen in love, left him. In another story, when Theseus forgot to hoist the white sail to denote his victory, his father Aegeus presumed his son to be dead and drowned himself in the sea, which from then on bore his name. Similar is the suicide of Hero who dolefully drowned herself when Leander’s body washed ashore. Considering the following passage on the ancient queen, no apparent condemnation of suicide catches our eyes:

“It let me die, I go gladly to the dark. May the heartless Trojan see my flaming pyre from far out on the deep and let it bring him evil omens.” She spoke and then her maidens saw her fall upon her sword, the red blood spouting and frothing over her sword drenching her hands (Virgil, 2009, p. 89).

**CONCLUSION**

The ignominy and abhorrence attached to the act of suicide in the Middle Ages conspicuously had no precedence in the ancient times. Even from a religious point of view, the Old Testament and the New Testament not only adopted a tolerant stance against suicide but also paid tribute to the act in some cases. We may therefore conclude that it was in the writings of church authorities such as St. Augustine and St. Aquinas that suicide was later regarded as an obvious violation of God’s rights and was bitterly repressed in the Middle Ages. For the ancients, suicide could be interpreted as a means of attaining honor and grace when capitulation or death in the hands of enemy was the last resort. Surprisingly, women, who later on where known to be the fair sex, were the paragons of courage and honor for the ancients and were in many cases among the most renowned suicides. It was also viewed as a means of expiation when a hero made a tragic flaw and merited retribution for that. Moreover, ancients pertaining to an existential philosophy of life, sometimes favored suicide over tolerating the backbreaking after-effects of a great loss, for instance, in the cases of unrequited love. The fact attests to the fact that ancients had no strong adherence to the blessings of an afterlife so when worldly life ceased to fulfill their aspirations they preferred to do themselves in.

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ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) AND PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS (PA)

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ABSTRACT
Phonetic awareness is identified as a key early literacy skill which plays an important role in learners’ academic success. The present study aims to investigate the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Phonological Awareness (PA). This paper reports an experimental study. The present study was conducted on students who were selected based on the convenient sampling. 57 lower-intermediate English students were selected from four different private English institutes in Zanjan and Gazvin cities in Iran. From the total participants, 27 were males and 30 were females. Two types of instrument were employed to collect the necessary data, a test on phonological awareness and a questionnaire on emotional intelligence. The findings of the study indicated that there is no significant correlation between EI and PA. Further interpretations of the results revealed that some other extraneous factors might directly or indirectly shed some light on PA. The practitioners, active in teaching pronunciation, can benefit more from the current study. The most fundamental implication is that teachers are supposed to be aware that students with high or low EI will perform equally on PA.

KEYWORDS: emotional intelligence, phonological awareness, foreign/second language acquisition.

INTRODUCTION
Phonetic perception and production are known to be an essential part of human development. As children grow up, they begin to manifest the ability to discriminate between sounds and
consequently perceive them. The ability to distinguish sounds is the issue of PA (Erdos, Genesee, Haigh, & Savage 2011; Konza, 2011; Mathes & Torgesen, 1998). Due to the significance of PA, especially in early years of life, there have been various attempts to define it (Anthony & Francis, 2005; Griffith & Olson, 2004; Yopp & Yopp, 2009). Yopp and Yopp, for instance, define it as ‘the ability to manipulate individual sounds (phonemes) in words, and rudimentary phonological skills, such as judging whether two words rhyme’ (2009, p.1). In other words, children who can detect and manipulate sounds are phonologically aware. PA as an auditory skill which affects learners’ academic success is a necessary step in understanding the relationship between the sounds and letters (Torgesen & Wagner, 1998). Owing to this fact, it plays a noticeable role in learning to read and spell (Bentin, 1992; Katzir, Kennedy, Kim, Lovett, Morris & Wolf, 2006). Although PA skills do not lead to independent and successful readers, they are crucial steps in the development of reading skills. Students who do not have sufficient awareness of how speech is divided into small sounds will have difficulty in learning to read a written system. In order to foster learners’ PA, various strategies can be implemented. Some of these strategies that are related to emotions rather than cognition deal with emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence (EI) as a term that has long attracted the attention of scholars and researchers encounters with a plethora of definitions (Assanova & McGuire, 2009; Gardner, 1983; Goleman, 1995). Ardashiri and Zarafshan contend that ‘EI is largely accepted as the ability to understand and apply the knowledge created from our emotions to aid effective functioning, reduce the impact of stress, and enhance relationships’ (2012, p.106). Furthermore, EI plays a considerable role in students’ educational success. Numerous studies have attempted to investigate the effect of EI on learners’ academic achievement (Brackett & Salovey, 2006; Mohammadi, 2012; Williford, 2000). Studies indicate that students with high level of EI are more willing to take part in speaking and brain based-activities. They try to cooperate with other students because they have high level of social skills and self-esteem. In contrast, low level of EI leads to isolation from classroom environment, conversations as well as brain-based activities (Bora, 2012).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Phonological awareness (PA) is a term that should not be confused with other terms such as phonemic awareness and phonics which are the sub skills of PA (Yopp & Yopp, 2000). PA refers to the skill of analyzing the words at the level of independent sound units. These skills place on two ends of a continuum ranging from holistic, simple form of awareness to more complex forms (Cisero & Royer, 1995; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991; Yopp & Yopp, 2009). Less complex end of a continuum encompasses activities such as initial rhyming, rhyming songs, sentence segmentation and so forth. At the complex end of a continuum are activities such as breaking words into onsets and rimes as well as blending rime and onset into words. Finally, phoneme segmentation is an instance of more complex level of awareness which requires explicit instruction. Moreover, PA is a general perception of person about how spoken language can be divided in to its components. For instance, it can be a perception about how sentences are divided into words, syllables as well as rimes and onsets. When a syllable is broken down into the smallest units, the term phonemic awareness is applied (Ehri, Nunes, Schuster, Shanahan,
Phonemic awareness refers to sound when words are divided into their smallest units of sounds. Finally, Phonics refers to how speech sound and written letter correspond to each other (Burns, Griffin & Snow, 1998). The significance of phonemic awareness in fostering the learners’ PA should not be overlooked. ‘A child’s phonemic awareness on entering school is widely held to be the strongest single determinant of the success that she or he will experience in learning or conversely, the likelihood that she or he will fail’ (Stanovich, 1994, p.2).

Without sufficient awareness of how words can be broken down into discrete segments, identification and manipulation of sounds becomes difficult or even impossible. As the words are divided into the smallest units, phonemes, phonemic awareness manifest itself. Consequently, familiarity with phonics enables learners to comprehend the relationship between letters and sounds. To put in a nutshell, being a competent reader requires learners to pass through five steps including phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary and text comprehension in which the PA is the fundamental skill. PA is developed through certain activities. Most of these activities refer to preschool period (Mathes & Torgesen, 1998).

PA is practiced during kindergarten and the first grade at school with children (Ehri & Roberts, 2006; McGee & Ukrainetz, 2009). During this period, children have natural tendency to play with language and develop their PA. The major objective of PA is directing children’s attention to the elements of the words, thus it demands certain mental processing including thinking, recognizing, distinguishing, exploring and realizing the sound of language. Through activities that stimulate phonetic awareness, children listen to each other while reading aloud, then recognize the sounds in words and repeat it for themselves and recognize familiar sounds. By practicing and engaging in different tasks during classroom activity, learners understand the patterns among words and apply this knowledge to reading and sentence processing. It is worth noting that PA is a skill that should be taught to children; it cannot develop on its own (Chard & Dickson, 1999; Christie, Richgelds & Roskos, 2003; Ege, 2006; Justice, Pullen, 2003; Lonigan, Menchetti & Phillips, 2008; Olofsson & Niedersoe, 1999; Rubba, 2004; Torgesen et al., 1992; Torgesen & Wagner, 1998). In this case, preschool teachers can help children extend their PA through activities such as reading aloud books that play with sounds, sharing poetry that plays with sounds, sharing songs that play with sounds as well as playing games that draw attention to sounds. In addition to these activities, according to National Association for the Education of Young Children (2009) PA instruction should be purposeful and child-appropriate. Moreover, similar to various domains of second/foreign language learning, phonetic acquisition deals with factors that are emotion based.

One of the areas concerning with emotion is Emotional Intelligence (EI) which has a long history. About 2000 years ago, Plato indicated that all learning has an emotional base (Della-Chiesa, Hinton & Miyamoto; 2008; Wharam, 2009). According to Matthews, Roberts and Zeidner (1997), in 1872 Charles Darwin found that it was not the fact that the strongest or the most intelligent species could survive but the species that are the most responsive to changes could survive more. In 1920, Edward Lee Thorndike introduced social intelligence which referred to the ability to understand and manage people in order to act and behave wisely. The
advent of social intelligence made the foundation for emergence of EI. In 1950s, Abraham Maslow introduced his hierarchy of needs in which the emotional need placed in higher order needs (Burden & Williams, 1997). In 1990, Peter Mayer and John Salovey found that some people are much better than others in recognizing their own emotion and other people's feeling and solving problem in relation to emotional matter. They perceived the non-cognitive aspect of intelligence in previous works and coined the term emotional intelligence in 1990. According to Salovey and Mayer (1990) EI is a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action.

Mayer and Salovey introduced a four-skilled model of EI skills in which the four skills are inter-related in a way that mastery in one skill influences the other areas. The first skill is “perception of emotion” which refers to perception of emotion in oneself and others. The second skill is “the use of emotion to facilitate thinking” which refers to ability to use or generate emotions to focus on attention, communicate feelings, or engage in other cognitive processes such as reasoning, decision making and problem solving. The third skill is “understands of emotion” which refers to ability to understand emotional information and the causes of emotions. The fourth skill is “management of emotion” which concerns with the ability to be open to feelings and apply effective strategies to promote personal understanding and growth. In 1992, Daniel Goleman investigated about why EI is more important than IQ (Kagan, 1995). Goleman suggested that IQ by itself is not a predictor of human performance in activities and only about twenty five percepts of human performance deals with IQ. The most recent definition which made an attempt to put the most encompassing definition forward was as the capacity, ability, skill, or potential to feel, use, communicate, recognize, remember, describe, identify, learn from, manage, understand and explain emotions (Hein, 2007). In all of the definitions of the EI there are some common features: first, it relates to the person ability to be self-aware and understand his/her own emotions whenever experience them. Second, it relates to discover other people's emotion. Third, it refers to manipulating emotional information. Studies on emotional intelligence suggest that EI skills deals with knowing how and when to express emotion and how and when to control emotion which plays a crucial role in children's personal, social and academic lives. Bora (2012) pointed out that students with high level of EI were more engaged in classroom activities because their self-esteem and social skills were in a high level. Previous studies indicate that cognitive and non-cognitive abilities relate to each other highly. Emotional and social skills cause improvement in cognitive function. Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) suggested that there was a significant relationship between students’ emotional intelligence and their critical thinking skills.

Regarding PA, most of the previous studies focus on the relationship between PA and reading. In the context of Iran, Dastjerdi, Jahani, Mehri, Saeedmanesh and Soleymani (2009) conducted a study in order to investigate the relationship between PA and reading in first grade students. They concluded that there is a direct relationship between PA and reading. In another study, Kazemi (2014) argued that teaching PA can improve students’ reading achievement. It is worth mentioning that a number of these studies take into consideration kindergarten children’s PA claiming that PA can facilitate reading comprehension (Kjeldsen, Niemi & Olofsson, 2003). Accordingly, Chein (2002) confirmed that among different PA tasks (e.g. syllable awareness,
onset-rime awareness, and phonemic awareness) phonemic awareness has the highest relationship with reading and speaking skills. While the so-called studies focus on the PA of kindergarten children, the present study focuses on lower-intermediate EFL learners’ PA. This study is an innovative one for this area, since the relationship between PA and EI is being investigated which is not the focus of the previous studies.

RESEARCH QUESTION
Study of emotional intelligence and investigation of its relationship with foreign/second language acquisition is a new phenomenon in educational contexts (Ardashiri & Zarafshan, 2012). Very limited numbers of studies have attempted to focus on the effect of EI on PA. In the present study, the relationship between emotional intelligence and phonological awareness was investigated. Therefore, the following research question was formulated for current study.

Is there any relationship between emotional intelligence and phonological awareness?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
57 Iranian students who studied English as a foreign language in private English institutes of Zanjan and Qazvin served as the participants of the present study. 30 of students were females and 27 of the students were males. The students were in lower-intermediate level of language proficiency based on the levels specified by institutes. They ranged in age from 12 to 15 and had already studied English.

Instruments
This study is conducted by a questionnaire and a test. The test was on phonological awareness naming Phonological Awareness Quick Screening Test (PAQST). Adams and Foorman (1998) developed PAQST which consisted of 66 items. PAQST was designed to measure respondents' perceptions of their ability in awareness of phonology. The reliability of the Phonological Awareness Quick Screening Test was computed through method of estimating reliability and reported to be 0.76.

The second instrument which was applied to measure emotional intelligence of the participants was Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT). The SSEIT includes 33 items self-report, each of which used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Moreover, the reliability index of the test was calculated and reported to be 0.91.

Procedure
Permission for data collection was granted from the principals of four different language institutes in Zanjan and Qazvin. Administers distributed the PAQST papers test among the participants. Then, respondents were asked to provide details of their age, gender and educational level. Before administering the test, administers explained about the test briefly and the
respondents were informed about the purpose of the study. Then, administers of the test assisted the participants in replying the questions step by step in order to make them more capable in answering the questions properly.

After collecting the PAQST test papers, the SSEIT questionnaire papers were distributed among the same participants. Administers explained the details of replying the questions. Furthermore, administers translated every question of the questionnaire into participants' mother tongue in order to guarantee effective data gathering and avoid comprehension problems that participants might encounter when given the English one.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the present study the relationship between lower-intermediate language leaners’ emotional intelligence (EI) and phonological awareness (PA) was gone under investigation. Statistical procedures were established in order to answer the research question concerning if there is any probable relationship between learners’ level of EI and their level of PA and to test hypothesis. It was hypothesized that a positive relationship exists between EI and PA.

Based on the students’ scores obtained from SSEIT and PAQST test, two-tailed Pearson correlation was conducted in order to find the relationship between the two variables. Statistical package for the social science (SPSS) version 16.0 was used for analysis, and results were presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Two-Tailed Pearson Correlation between Scores of EI and PA</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.I</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>E.I</strong></td>
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<td><strong>P.A</strong></td>
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As the results indicate there is no significant relationship between PA and EI (correlation between two variables (r= -0.21) is negative and the Sig. (2-Tailed) value is .875 which is more than .05 indicating that there is no statistically significant correlation between the variables of the study.). Therefore, increase or decrease in EI does not significantly relate to increase or decrease in PA.
CONCLUSION
This study was an attempt to investigate the possible relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and phonological awareness (PA). Appropriate statistical procedures were followed to get required answers to the research question. The research question investigated if there is any probable relationship between language learners’ level of EI and their level of PA. The hypothesis was that whether monitoring of one’s emotions could be a strategy to develop phonological awareness which plays a crucial role in learners’ reading skills. As it is presented in the above section, this study indicated that there is no positive and significant relationship between the two variables. The analysis demonstrated that students with high level of EI may or may not have high level of phonological awareness. In other words, EI has no impact on learners’ PA. So the hypothesis of the study claiming that there is a positive relationship between EI and PA was rejected.

To the best knowledge of the so far researchers no other studies have yet attempted to assess the relationship between EI and PA. However, there are numerous studies focusing on either of the variables independently and their impact on learner skills. One of these studies conducted by Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) suggested that there was a significant relationship between students’ EI and their critical thinking skills. While some other studies assessing the effect of EI on learners’ academic achievement (Brackett & Salovey, 2006; Mohammadi, 2012; Williford, 2000), indicated that students with high level of EI are more willing to take part in speaking and brain based-activities. According to these and many other studies mentioned in the above sections it appeared that EI and PA have positive impacts on learners’ achievements, though findings of this study revealed no statistically significant correlation between EI and PA.

However, the researchers do not claim that the results obtained from this study are absolutely conclusive. Furthermore, it is suggested that the findings of the present study should not be taken as definitive rather as indicative of some hypotheses to be tested in future studies.

Limitation of the Study
Like other studies, this study had some limitations. One of the major limitations of the present study was about sample size. Larger sample size could definitely lead to significant results. Since the focus of the present study was on the relationship between emotional intelligence and phonological awareness, the results cannot be applied to other areas such as vocabulary, grammar and so forth. What is more, gender issue was not exclusively controlled for current study; therefore, more studies are needed to ponder upon these kinds of relationships with a focus on gender.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF LEITNER’S BOX ON IMPROVEMENT OF VOCABULARY RETENTION

Mansooreh Hosseinnia and Roghayeh Maghsoodi

ABSTRACT
The goal of this paper was to investigate the effect of using Leitner’s learning box in studying intermediate to advanced vocabularies among the students of Saba English institution in Jajarm, North Khorasan, Iran. This research was carried out in two classes of male and female learners which were between the ages of 15 to 18. Sixty learners were randomly chosen from among the students of Saba English institution, who were studying in 18th term. The test was performed in fall semester 2014. One class was considered the control group that received the conventional treatment while the other class that was considered as experimental group received the Leitner’s learning box to use it for learning vocabulary. Before initiating the treatment, two similar tests were prepared as the pre-test and post-test to discover the vocabulary knowledge of the students at the initial and final stages of the study. The analysis of obtained results in the post-test manifested significant differences between the two groups such that the students in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control group in terms of their vocabulary knowledge. Thus, it was concluded that the use of Leitner’s learning box in studying vocabulary for the 18th term students of saba English institution led to a higher level of vocabulary improvement.

KEYWORDS: vocabulary, vocabulary test, Leitner’s box, active words, passive words.

INTRODUCTION
“Vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read, and write.” Without an extensive vocabulary and strategies for acquiring new vocabulary, “learners often achieve less than their potential” and may be discouraged from making use of language learning opportunities such as listening to the radio, listening to native speakers, using the language in different contexts, reading, or watching television”(Richards, 2002).

“If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh.” (Harmer 1993) . One of the most challenging parts of language learning is the acquisition of vocabulary. Vocabulary as a main component of English language learning has drawn many attentions in past years. Laufer (1997) indicates that learning the vocabulary is at the heart of language learning and its use. Indeed, vocabulary makes the essence of English language. Vocabulary is an intrinsic part of language teaching as well as learning. Vocabulary is essential for critical thinking, close reading, concise writing and other skills (Levines., 2005). Many researchers concur that there is very little research performed in the field of vocabulary learning and that the most effective means of vocabulary learning is still unclear (Folse, 2004; Hunt & Beglar, 2005; Annette & De Groot, 2006).
“Learning vocabulary is a very important part of learning a language. The more words you know, the more you will be able to understand what you hear and read; and the better you will be able to say what you want to when speaking or writing” (Shoebottom, 2012).

In the English language teaching and learning literature, a recurring theme has been always the neglect of vocabulary. It was often given little priority in language programs and was often left to be looked after itself and received only incidental attention in textbooks and language programs (Hedge, 2008; Richards & Renandya, 2002). Many authors remark that at one time it was widely assumed that lexical instruction is not essential as it can happen by itself; thus, the vocabulary teaching was not popular (Moir & Nation 2008). However, today’s, the importance of vocabulary and its significance in language learning have become more accepted. Griffiths (2006) indicates, for instance, that recently the significance of teaching vocabulary has been acknowledged. Learning vocabulary seems to be one of the easiest things about learning a language (after all, it's not difficult to remember a word, is it?). But it's also one of the hardest things to do, especially when you have reached a certain level.

Although vocabulary has been the subject of several studies, few researches have revealed the effective techniques of vocabulary teaching and learning. Thus, it is of great importance to find the most effective techniques for vocabulary teaching. Based on a research performed by Allen (1983), all experienced language teachers verify the important role of words and know that the lack of them leads to feeling of insecurity.

Vocabulary is an indispensable part of English language learning process. It would be impossible to learn a language without vocabulary. The important role of vocabulary has been emphasized in all different methods in language teaching and learning. Rivers (1981) states that vocabulary cannot be taught; it can be presented, explained, included in all kinds of activities, but it must be learned by the individual. “Have you ever wanted to increase your English vocabulary? As most learners agree, it's vital to know a lot of words if you want to make progress in a foreign language. Even if your grammar is excellent, you just won't be able to communicate your meaning without a wide vocabulary. But exactly how can you increase your vocabulary knowledge?”(Pemberton, 1997).

Statement of problem

The place of vocabulary in L2 teaching and learning has deservedly received great attention in recent years. Due to this fact, materials designers have been trying to provide L2 learners some ways or devices to increase our vocabulary knowledge.

Significance of the study

Vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition, whether the language is first, second, or foreign. Despite the fact that vocabulary has not always been recognized as a priority in language teaching, interest in its role in second language (L2) learning has grown rapidly in recent years and specialists now emphasize the need for a systematic and principles approach to vocabulary
by both teacher and the learner. The problem, “how can you increase your vocabulary knowledge?” is the significance of this study lies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Vocabulary is considered as one of the important components of language knowledge. Horowitz (1988) found that a large number of ESL students completing her questionnaire either agreed or strongly agreed that “the most important part of learning a foreign language is learning its vocabulary”. Also research has shown that “lexical errors tend to impede comprehension more that grammatical errors and native-speaking judges tend to consider lexical errors as more serious than grammatical ones” (Ellis, 1994). Widdowson, 1993 (as cited in Lewis, 1993: 115) states that the more we consider the matter, the more reasonable it seems to suppose that it is the starting point, and that the syntax need to be put to the service of words and not the other way round. Interest in second language vocabulary acquisition (hereafter SLVA) has grown steadily in the last thirty years. It has given rise to the procedure of several excellent books (e.g., Huckin, Haynes, & Coady, 1993; Huckin & Coady, 1997; Nation, 1990; Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997; Singleton, 1999; Schmitt, 2000).

Some information about learning words

“The vocabulary you know can be divided into two groups - passive vocabulary and active vocabulary. Passive vocabulary contains all the words that you understand when you read or listen, but which you do not use (or cannot remember) in your own writing and speaking. Active vocabulary is all the words you understand, plus all the words that you can use yourself. Your active vocabulary, in English and your own language, is probably much smaller than your passive vocabulary.

The more you work on learning a word, as suggested above, the more likely it is that it will become part of your active vocabulary. Once you have chosen which words to learn, you next have to decide how you are going to learn them” (Shoebottom, 2012). Here we want to introduce a useful device for learning vocabulary and investigate the effect of it for learning vocabulary.

Leitner’s box

“Our brains get bombarded with information provided by our senses. We are presented with too much to store and encode. The brain has developed sophisticated algorithms for throwing away information. The brain has developed algorithms for encoding information into Long Term MEMORY if it is important. We can use these methods of moving information from Sensory MEMORY into Working MEMORY and encoding it into Long Term MEMORY for easy recall later. Leitner’s Cardbox application is designed to lift things into the Long Term MEMORY through controlled repetition and spacing. The box system (also called "Leitner system") was originally conceived by German psychologist Sebastian Leitner in the 1960s. Its purpose is to provide a structure for people to learn and retain vocabularies in short-term and long-term memory. The box system is comprised of a set of boxes (5 in the case of Leitner’s Cardbox application), each containing a certain number of flashcards. This amount rises proportionally with the box's number. Also, the higher the box number, the nearer are the respective cards in the
long-term memory. Leitner’s Cardbox application is based upon the algorithm as developed and tested by Sebastian Leitner a German psychologist” (ITNT, 2003-2011).

**Method**

In this method flashcards are sorted into groups according to how well you know each one in the **Leitner's learning box**. This is how it works: you try to recall the solution written on a flashcard. If you succeed, you send the card to the next group. But if you fail, you send it back to the first group. Each succeeding group has a longer period of time before you are required to revisit the cards.

**Examples**

**Example 1.** Suppose you have 3 groups called Group 1, Group 2 and Group 3. The cards in Group 1 are the ones that you often make mistakes with, and Group 3 contains the cards that you know very well. You might choose to study the Group 1 cards once a day, Group 2 every 3 days, and the Group 3 cards every 5 days. If you look at a Group 1 card and get the correct answer, you "promote" it to Group 2. A correct answer with a Group 2 card "promotes" that card to Group 3. If you make a mistake with a Group 2 or Group 3 card, it gets "demoted" to the first level, which forces you to study that card more often.

The advantage of this method is that you can focus on the most difficult flashcards, which remain in the first few groups. The result is, ideally, a reduction in the amount of study time needed.

**Example 2.** This example uses 5 proficiency levels and 12 decks of flash cards. Cards at Proficiency Level 1 are reviewed at every learning session; those at Level 5 are retired and no longer in use. Those at Levels 2, 3, and 4 are reviewed every 2nd, 3rd, and 4th session, respectively.

Learning sessions are numbered from 0 to 9, then the numbering starts over again (that is, 0, 1, 2, ... 8, 9, 0, 1, 2 ...). Cards at Level 1 are in Deck Current; those at Level 5 are in Deck Retired; all other cards are in 1 of these 10 "progress" decks, each of which begins with a title card sporting 4 digits:

0-2-5-9 • 1-3-6-0 • 2-4-7-1 • 3-5-8-2 • 4-6-9-3 • 5-7-0-4 • 6-8-1-5 • 7-9-2-6 • 8-0-3-7 • 9-1-4-8  

If a learner is successful at a card from Deck Current, it gets transferred into the progress deck that begins with that session's number. (For example, success at a card during Session 6 transfers it from Deck Current to Deck 6-8-1-5.) Cards from that deck are reviewed whenever a number from the deck title matches the session number. (For example, cards from Deck 6-8-1-5 will be reviewed again at Sessions 8, 1, and 5.) If a learner has difficulty with a card during a subsequent review, the card is returned to Deck Current; otherwise it stays in its progress deck. When a learner is successful at a card during a session that matches the last number on the deck (for example, Session 5 for Deck 6-8-1-5), that card goes into Deck Retired, and the title card for that progress deck is freed up for use at the following session (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia)". 
Figure 1.

benefits

- **Selective Learning:** Prioritize your studying by focusing on the proper compartment—each compartment represents a degree of knowledge. This allows you to learn what you need to learn, when you want to learn it.

- **Staggered Learning:** Using the review scheduling system allows you to maintain properly spaced review sessions. Staggered learning minimizes the amount of time required to complete a cardfile and maximizes information retention.

- **Automation:** Flashcards are moved between the compartments without effort. Review frequency is determined automatically using established intervals and an e-mail will show up each day indicating what cardfiles you need to study.

- **Assessment:** By examining the distribution of flashcards within the various compartments you can easily gauge your mastery of the subject.

- **Community:** Cardfiles can be made up of any of the hundreds of thousands of flashcards in our system. Add these flashcards to your own cardfiles to leverage the time spent by your peers to create these flashcards” (Tuolumne Technology Group, 2001, 2012).

“Leitner Learning Strategy”
RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Based on the mentioned problems and the study purpose, the following questions were posed:
Q1: Is there any noticeable difference between the impact of traditional teaching method and the Leitner’s learning box (LLB method) on vocabulary knowledge of the students of Saba English institution?
Q2: Does using LLB have a positive effect on students’ vocabulary knowledge and learning?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS
According to a review of literature and the aforementioned lines of reasoning the following alternative hypothesis was formulated.
H1: There is no significant difference between the mean scores of the students in the experimental group who use LLB and the mean scores of those students in the control group who do not use LLB.
H2: Using LLB does not have a positive effect on vocabulary knowledge of students of one class in the experimental group at the end of the study and treatment.
H3: Traditional teaching treatment does not have a positive effect on vocabulary knowledge of first year students in the control group at the end of the study.

METHODOLOGY
Study Design
A quantitative study was selected because of the nature of this research and the research questions. In addition, the proper design for this study was experimental. Two groups were selected. One group served as the experimental group and received treatment (LLB) while the other group served as the control group and received only the routine instruction. To verify the homogeneity of the two groups a language proficiency test was carried out for this purpose. It should be mentioned that the control and the experimental groups were matched for every items except for the treatment. Both groups were the students of 18th term of Saba English institution in two different classes. In order to measure the effectiveness of the treatment, the pre-test / post-test design was selected. In this case, the words in this study were chosen of Interchange (Jack c. Richards) that was taught in 18th term of Saba institution. Before starting the treatment, the authors made a one hundred item multiple-choice test and did a pilot study on a smaller group. The one hundred item multiple-choice test was split into two equal halves based on odd and even numbers as the pre-test and post-test.

Participants
Sixty learners were randomly chosen from among the students of Saba English institution, who were studying in 18th term. The participants were both male and female learners and they were between the ages of 15 to 18. The cluster sampling was used to select and specify the number of students required to carry out the experiment, that is, the procedure of selection of participants started with randomizing the larger groups and moved toward smaller ones. Therefore the unit of selection was not an individual but a group of individuals. They were divided into two groups of thirty learners. One group used leitner’s box for learning the vocabulary of 18th term’s book, the other group not.
Instruments
The first instrument which was used by the Institute to measure the language proficiency level of the students was the Vocabulary English Language Test. The test aimed to measure the vocabulary level of the students in 18th term which was chosen of the Interchange book, Intro. The second instrument was SPSS software used for the analysis of data.

Procedure
After selecting and dividing students in two groups (one group were used Leitner’s box for retention of words, another group weren’t used Leitner’s box for retention of words), the researcher gave them a vocabulary test to examine their vocabulary English language proficiency level. Then she analyzed the data by SPSS software.

The obtained data
The data gathered on variables were analyzed by the following methods through SPSS software. 1) Descriptive Statistics was used to determine the mean and standard deviation of each group on the pre-tests and post-tests. 2) Independent T-test was used to find the difference between the levels of the students of both groups on post-tests. 3) Matched T-test was used to compare the two mean scores of the students of both groups in pre-test and post-test on vocabulary tests.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Pre-test data
After students took the vocabulary pre-test and post-test, the mean scores, the medians, the standard deviations, the variances, the minimum and the maximum of the vocabulary pre-test and post-test scores of the control and the experimental groups were calculated respectively. The related results are given in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: The Results Obtained for Control Group in Pre-test and post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>13.85</td>
<td>14.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>14.20</td>
<td>15.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td>0.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>0.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>13.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: The Results Obtained for Experimental Group in Pre-test and post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>14.35</td>
<td>17.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>14.20</td>
<td>17.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>0.850</td>
<td>0.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td>0.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 2 shows, like the control group, the mean of experimental group’s post-test scores (17.05) is larger than the mean of pre-test scores (14.35). Therefore, from these numbers can conclude on the average the way of teaching has caused the improvement of students’ scores in both relevant groups, but it is important to know that such a conclusion is only a descriptive conclusion. As Table 1 and 2 show the mean of the two groups is similar in pre-test, but the mean of the two groups was different in post-test. The result of pre-test showed that the two groups were almost at the same level of vocabulary knowledge and the mean of two groups were not of great difference.

Post-test data
After giving treatment (LLB) to the experimental group, the research questions of the study were to be answered “Is there any significant difference between the impact of traditional teaching method and using LLB on vocabulary knowledge of first year students in the university? Does using LLB have a positive effect on students’ vocabulary knowledge?” to answer these questions the researcher used two comparisons. First the performances of the two groups compared and second the performances of the two groups in the pre-test and post-test compared to investigate their progress and the influence of using LLB. Table 1 and 2 show the results. The post-test results show that there is a significant difference between the control and the experimental group regarding their vocabulary knowledge. The $T$ observed is 9.612 and $T$ critical at the selected significance level of 0.05 for degree of freedom 24 is 2.056. In other words, the $T$ observed exceeds the T-critical implying that the experimental group performed significantly better in the post-test. As Table shows the post-test results reject the first null hypothesis and it was concluded that there is a significant difference between the experimental and the control group in terms of their vocabulary knowledge at the end of the study. Overall, the experimental group represented a greater increase than the control group. Then based on the results the second null hypothesis was rejected and it was concluded that using LLB has a positive effect on the experimental groups’ progress in their vocabulary knowledge at the end of the study.

Discussions
The results of the study indicated that though both traditional and LLB methods enhanced vocabulary development of the students from the pre-test to the post-test, the experimental group seemed to be better than the control group. That is, the experimental group students had
significantly better vocabulary gain scores than the control group students at the end of the study. During the 16-week study, both groups followed the same course book which provided the students with a number of the new vocabularies (words). While the control group students learned vocabulary only through traditional method, the experimental group students learned vocabulary only through LLB as a new method. The experimental group students in the present study were shown explicitly the LLB strategy which they could try to achieve better vocabulary learning. The students discussed this strategy was more effective than other strategies, and received help and feedback from the teacher. When they failed to only memorize a new word, they tried to use LLB strategy, as they were aware of the existence of another strategy which they could fall back on. Thus, the instruction seemed to help them to learn better new words their performance. The vocabulary instruction through LLB empowered students in learning the relevant vocabulary. During the instruction period, students themselves found that they benefited from this strategy. It seemed that after a certain amount of practice and use, they knew how and when to use this strategy for remembering new words and for retrieving it when needed.

CONCLUSION
This study examined the influence of LLB on the vocabulary knowledge of two groups of 18 term students of Saba English institution of Jajarm, North Khorasan, Iran. Through the analysis of the findings from the students’ vocabulary pre-tests and post-tests, it was concluded that the contribution of LLB in teaching vocabulary to students led to a higher level of vocabulary improvement. Using LLB facilitates their involvement in the class work by sharing answers, trying to participate, paying attention, giving the examples, encouraging themselves to take part in the lesson, participating as volunteers, interacting with each other in a low-risk, warm-up activity, and utilizing the new words in the example. The findings revealed that participants in the experimental group, who had received the treatments on LLB, significantly enhanced better performance in a vocabulary test. Therefore, accordingly, through rejecting the first and second null hypotheses, the researchers can claim that LLB is a useful way of enhancing vocabulary learning and can play an important role in teaching and learning vocabulary to first year students. The result of this study indicated that there was significant difference in the efficiency of LLB compared to traditional teaching method. It was confirmed that learning vocabulary through LLB would lead to better learning than traditional method. The results of present study have several important achievements:

1) since vocabulary is a very important part of the language, a teacher must equip himself/herself with up-to-date techniques and methods of teaching them. The results of this research can be valuable for language teachers at the inter-mediate to advanced levels.
2) the present study showed a new technique in vocabulary learning and teaching such as four-step vocabulary flash card in order to facilitate vocabulary learning for students and also provide an opportunity for them to use or review their vocabulary in every situation.
3) LLB is very practical and useful for those who prepare themselves for international exams such as TOEFL, IELTS and GRE.
4) the results of this study proved that LLB is an effective way of enhancing vocabulary learning for students.
this study introduced a strategy (LLB) that make vocabulary learning interesting and easy for students.

Limitations of the study

Every study has own limitations. One of the limitations of the present study is the time limitation. The time period of the institution was three months and I had to investigate in that time period. Another limitation of my study was limited participants because of limitation of student in the institution classes. The other limitation is related to the Leitner’s box. The access of it was difficult to all of the students. And the writing of words in the flash cards was time-consuming.

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HEDGING IN PERSPECTIVE: THE CASE OF PERSIAN AND ENGLISH NEWS STORIES

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ABSTRACT
This study was directed at probing hedging phenomenon in the field of written news discourse, more specifically, in one specific genre of news writing, namely news stories. Underlying purpose of the present research was to analyze frequency and forms of hedging devices and their functions in news stories selected from four sections (arts & culture, business & economy, politics, and sports) of English and Persian newspapers. To investigate hedging phenomenon, Yuryevna (2012)’s taxonomy of hedging devices and adapted classification that combined two models, namely Yu’s (2009) model of hedging strategies and Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model of hedging functions were used. Data for this study contained a corpus composed of a total of 79,711 words collected from the news stories of four famous and highly-circulated newspapers in Iran (Jaamejaam and Iran) and United States of America (The New York Times and Washington post). The results of the present study showed that there is a statistically significant difference between the English and Persian news stories in the frequency of hedges, specific types and forms of hedges (except epistemic adverbs) and also functions of these devices. The English and Persian news stories were not different from each other in the use of epistemic adverbs. Epistemic nouns and implicit pragmatic markers as two types of the hedging forms had no frequency in the data. Although there were some shortcomings, limitations, problems and complexities in this study, the present research provided certain implications regarding the presence and importance of hedging phenomenon in news genre. The ESP instructors may find the comparative results of this study as a source for designing writing tasks for the learners that help them master this metadiscourse feature in writing Persian or English news stories.

KEYWORDS: Form; Function; Genre; Hedge
INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the most important skills with a crucial role and fundamental basis in learning a second or foreign language. Writing is important because of its power of communication. It can involve a close relationship with author and reader. Hedging plays a major role in the effectiveness of a writing piece both from the reader and the writer perspective. Hedge is the main center and has a crucial importance in this study. Hedging as a member of linguistic category has different definitions. Concerning the current different definitions of hedges in the literature, the most commonly adopted definition of hedge that is the basis of this study is presented by Hyland (1998), “hedges are linguistic means used to indicate either a) a lack of complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition, or b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically” (p. 1).

The research on hedging has only just initiated and is quite new concept in discourse researches. Although hedge is a quite new concept, it has received great attention and numerous studies have been done that are dealing with academic/scientific or spoken discourse and mostly between one or different languages in terms of using hedging devices (e.g. Salvager-Meyer, 1994; Hyland, 2000; Falahaty, 2007). Although various investigations have documented the presence and functional role of hedges in these genres, little attention has been given to other genres like newspaper. Newspaper is a vital genre because it is one of the forms of written discourse that is issued daily or weekly. It has more readers than other kinds of written texts and help the public know everything that is happening around the world. Newspaper discourse like academic discourse which follows constraints or conventions of a discipline, governs certain conventions in order to be accepted by their corresponding discourse community and meet their expectations. Yuryevna (2012) in his study stated that “news writing is not simply a language work done by the journalist to record and report to the recent occurrences and developments, but it is an invisible interaction between the journalist and the audience” (p. 3). According to Buitkiene (2008), “newspapers carry articles of an extremely diverse character; consequently, linguistic means employed, hedging included, to achieve specific purposes are also divergent” (p.11). Although there are different articles in newspapers (E.g. news stories or ‘straight news’, opinion, editorial articles), this study focuses on news stories. Likewise, he has also stated that “the main function of news stories is to objectively inform the reader, and provide him/her with hard facts” (p.12).

Hedge words can pose serious problems for ESP students and Persian journalists in translating, writing and reading in English language in general and journalistic texts in particular because they have lack of exposure to English as a foreign language and are unaware of the functions of these linguistic features. They have not also received enough instruction on how to use them in order to produce appropriate texts in the foreign language. So the ability to hedge effectively in English for them may be difficult. Therefore, this study aimed to compare the frequency, forms and functions of linguistic devices which act as hedges in the news stories selected from the following four sections: arts & culture, business & economy, politics and sports of English and Persian newspapers published by two groups of journalists: American news story journalists (as educated native speakers of English) and Iranian news story journalists who write in Persian (as educated native speakers of Persian).
This study attempts to familiarize ESP students and Persian news story journalists attempting to publish their English news stories in international journals or English newspapers with appropriate use of hedging devices in order to avoid vagueness and misunderstanding, communicate closely with the readers, enrich the understanding of hedging phenomenon in this genre and increase their awareness of the way educated native speakers of English in the field of journalism organize their writings. It is hoped that this study could be applied not only to the field of language teaching and teaching writing for the students and journalists of this second or foreign language, but also to teaching some ESP courses (e.g. English articles and news writing course). This research also fills the gap of previous researches and the literature related to hedging phenomenon in news genre.

BACKGROUND

In 1972, Lakoff presented the term hedging. It has commonly been distinguished as “words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy” (Lakoff, 1972, p. 471). Later, Hyland (1998) considered hedging devices as “linguistic means used to indicate either a) a lack of commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition, or b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically” (Hyland, 1998, p. 1). For many years, hedges have achieved a special consideration in linguistic researchers, particularly in spoken and written scientific/academic discourse. Considering that “hedging is a central to academic writing where the need to present unproven propositions with caution and precision is essential” (Hyland, 1996, p. 433), many researchers (Salager-Meyer, 1994; Hyland, 1996; 1998; Clemen, 1997; Vold, 2006; Yu, 2009; Pisanski-Peterlin, 2010 and others) have been performed to consider this hedging phenomenon. Moreover, Iranian researchers have also investigated on hedges, for example: Davoodifard (2006) studied the incidence of hedging devices in English and Persian academic research articles and she concluded that English academic research articles employ more hedging devices than Persian ones. All the research studies have revealed that hedging is a usual and one of the most prominent characteristics of academic connection. Buitkiene (2008) considered that the reasons given in support of such studies are really firm, because “English has become the lingua franca of academic discourse, young researchers as well as renowned ones, despite their nationality, have to express themselves in this language if they want to be fully accepted members of the international academic community” (Buitkiene, 2008, p. 11). Thus, “the issue of hedging, alongside with other linguistic, cultural, rhetorical aspects, became strongly accentuated and researched cross-linguistically and cross-disciplinarily in written and spoken academic discourse” (Buitkiene, 2008, p. 11). However, other genres as well as different registers within these genres also employ hedging strategies (Buitkiene, 2008, p.11).

Newspaper discourse among those genres can be investigated as Noorian & Biria, (2010) has reasonably found out “the most remarkable genre since it is undeniably one of the most popular public media which has a wide range of audience” (p. 67). News writing is not actually a language task performed by the journalist to note and give an account of the new incidences and improvements, but it is a hidden action and reaction between the audience and the journalist. Although it is generally received that the language employed in news reports is necessitated to be
correct, concise, and real, these necessities do not refuse the essence of hedging devices in news reports. Fomina (2010) in her investigation mentioned that “hedging frequently occurs in newspaper articles since it is an efficient strategy to persuade somebody in such a way that readers don’t feel that the ideas are being imposed on them” (p. 206). Hedged expressions are neither true nor false they are somewhere in between and that is exactly the quality that makes them so popular with many writers and speakers (Fomina, 2010, p. 206). Unfortunately, the study of hedging phenomenon in news texts has not received much attention and is a relatively new concept in discourse studies. In the past decades; researchers have been concerned about the use of hedges in written and spoken academic or scientific discourse. Numerous studies have investigated and paid great attention in hedging phenomenon (Salager-Meyer, 1994; Clemen, 1997; Markkanen & Schroder, 1997; Hyland, 1998; 1999; Yu, 2009). Researchers have documented the significance use and role of hedges in academic or scientific writing. Other genres (E.g. newspaper genre) also use hedging devices but they have not received the attentions and investigations they deserve. In the other words, the total number of investigations on hedging phenomenon in newspaper discourse is not as many as the total number of investigations concerning scientific/academic discourse. Clemen (2002) investigated on hedging devices in journalism and demonstrated the attendance of hedging devices in this genre. Her study was the first investigation concerning specially on hedging in journalism. He educed a little number of economic texts from *The Economist* magazine and indicated what kind of hedging devices may be presented in them. Her study was scarcity of enough information, however, it still presented “an idea of the occurrence of hedges and kindred elements in a genre of economic text that deserves still wider coverage” (Clemen, 2002, p. 46). Buitkine (2008) studied on hedging devices in two types of newspaper articles (editorials and news stories) from four different newspapers: *The Times*, *The Guardian*, *The Independent*, and *Herald Tribune International*. The results of the study revealed that editorials employ more hedging devices than news stories because editorials attempt to persuade the readers but news stories attend to inform the reader. Buitkiene (2008) in her investigation mentioned that on the basis of newspaper article genre, hedging devices are distributed differently in newspaper discourse. Each newspaper genre educes them in a distinct way, since “each genre pursues different interests and policies” (Buitkiene, 2008, p.12). He also found out that “the main function of news stories is to objectively inform the reader, to provide him/her with hard facts, while editorials aim to form or influence, sometimes even to manipulate, public opinion” (Buitkiene, 2008, p.12). Fomina (2010) investigated certain discourse functions of English hedging devices in the British English magazine *The Guardian*. He achieved that “hedging frequently occurs in newspaper articles since it is an efficient strategy to persuade somebody in such a way that readers do not feel that the ideas are being imposed on them” (p. 206). Yuryevna (2012) investigated hedging phenomenon in two particular genres of online news writing (news articles and opinion articles). The result indicated that opinion articles employ more hedging devices than news articles and attend to use more lexical hedging devices, whereas news articles prefer to employ non-lexical type of hedging devices. This study differs from other studies in compensating some shortcomings of the previous researches by comparing frequency, forms and functions of hedging devices only in the news stories selected from the four mentioned sections of English and Persian newspapers.
RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Regarding what were mentioned above and based on the purposes, the present study sought to answer the following research questions:
1. Is there any significant difference regarding the frequency of hedging devices employed between news stories of English and Persian newspapers?
2. Is there any significant difference regarding the forms of hedging devices employed between news stories of English and Persian newspapers?
3. Is there any significant difference regarding the functions of identified hedging devices between news stories of English and Persian newspapers?

METODOLOGY
Corpora of the Study
The corpora of this study included a total number of 200 news stories. Therefore, the corpora of the study were divided into two subsections including English and Persian news stories.

English News Stories
The corpus was composed of 100 English news stories written by American journalists who specialize in writing news stories. The New York Times and Washington post were chosen for this study, since they are the most prominent and elite newspapers in USA due to the information they contain. The news stories, though randomly selected, were chosen from the four mentioned sections of both newspapers (25 English news stories from each section).

Persian News Stories
A total number of 100 Persian news stories from two elite and highly-circulated newspapers in Iran namely, Jaamejaam and Iran written by Iranian journalists, was chosen. These 100 Persian news stories were selected randomly from the four sections of the newspapers (25 Persian news stories from each section).

The researcher tried to select the news stories which are approximately in the same length in order to get to a reliable result, so the news stories that are too short or too long were discarded. Having a wide variety of sections can increase the external validity of the results. The reason why news stories were chosen in this analysis is closely related to the importance of broadcasting the news, information exchange, mass communication in present day societies, and the findings of the previous studies (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Noorian & Biria, 2010; Buitkiene, 2008) that confirmed the key role of hedges in newspaper discourse as an efficient strategy in attaining effective persuasion. The main motivations for focusing on the news stories of arts & cultural, business & economic, political and sports sections are their nature and information they contain. Moreover these sections have approximately the most readers in comparison to other sections.

Instrumentation
Yuryevna (2012) compiled taxonomy of hedging devices to guide the process of identifying and categorizing hedging devices in the sample texts (see appendix A). This taxonomy was used in
this study in order to identify and categorize hedging devices. Wordsmith Tools’ Concordance program was used in this study in order to identify English hedges. This program allows seeing a particular word or phrase in the contexts. Adapted classification that combined two models, namely Yu’s (2009) model of hedging strategies and Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model of hedging functions was used as theoretical model for analyzing hedging functions (see appendix B). The reason for choosing this classification is an adaptation of Hyland’s classification with some modifications concerning linguistic devices and their correspondence the hedging functions. To examine hedging devices in the Persian news stories, Persian equivalents for the taxonomy and theoretical model were suggested by the researchers who are familiar with hedge analysis (see appendix A).

Data Collection
As concerns hedging devices across languages, the research data for the present study comprised 200 news stories (100 English and 100 Persian news stories). 100 English news stories derived from the four mentioned sections of the English newspapers contained a total of 44,277 words ranging from 302 to 589 words whose average length amounted to 443. 100 Persian news stories extracted from the four mentioned sections of the Persian newspapers comprised 39,856 words. The lexical range of the Persian news stories was between 300 and 493 with an average length of 399 words. All the news stories were published between August, September, and October 2014. Time can affect the style of the writers. With this time limitation, this factor can be restrained. News stories must be chosen carefully because some of the news stories derived from The New York Times and Washington post were not written by native American English journalists and in the same way, there are some news stories collected from Jaamejaam and Iran that were not produced by Iranian news story journalists who write in Persian as native speakers of Persian. Although the news stories that are too short or too long were discarded, the total number of words in the selected news stories of the mentioned newspapers and their sections wasn’t the same.

Therefore, in order to balance the total number of words across the English and Persian news stories in general and across the sections in particular, 3 arts & cultural, 2 business & economic, 4 political and 2 sports news stories derived from the English newspapers were excluded. As a result, the total number of words in the English news stories reduced from 44,277 to 39,855 words. Table 1 provides details about the number of words and news stories selected from the English and Persian newspapers and their four sections.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Arts &amp; Culture</th>
<th>Business &amp; Economy</th>
<th>Politics</th>
<th>Sports</th>
<th>Total number of news stories</th>
<th>Total number of words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English news stories</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>9,969</td>
<td>39855</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian news stories</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9,967</td>
<td>39856</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Once the materials of the research study were selected, they were analyzed in terms of the hedging frequency, forms and functions they perform. Procedures used for analyzing the data are discussed below.

Procedure
After collecting the data, the first task is to organize and present them in an understandable way. The English news stories were analyzed by employing Wordsmith Tools 5.0. Wordsmith Tools’ Concordance program was employed in the present study in order to identify English hedging forms. For the purpose of electronic search, the list of common hedging devices that was compiled by Yueyevna (2012) was used in the study. Then, due to the highly contextual nature of hedges, the electronic search was followed by a manual examination of the identified items. All identified English items were scrutinized in their context in order to determine and locate hedging devices in their proper categories.

As concerns the analysis of the Persian data, the selected news stories were also read precisely word by word in order to identify hedging items and locate them in their proper categories. The researchers who are familiar with hedge analysis judged about determination of those English and Persian linguistic items that express mitigation. Then, the overall frequency and percentage of hedging devices and also the frequency and percentage of each category of hedging forms were identified in the news stories of English and Persian newspapers. Since all the selected news stories did not have exactly the same length and were varied, the raw figures were converted to a common basis (marker per 1000 words), that is calculating the frequency of hedging per 1000 words. It can provide a basis for comparing the frequency of occurrence. In order to ensure the reliability of the analysis and avoid probable errors of identification, the frequency of hedging devices counted two times.

Then a closer examination of the frequency and percentage of different types of each category was conducted. Besides, chi-square tests were used in order to determine whether there is a significant difference regarding the frequency of hedging devices and also forms of employed hedges between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers. Moreover, the researchers were determined the frequency and percentage of each category of hedging functions in the news stories of English and Persian newspapers. At this point, the analysis was based on the adapted classification that combined two approaches, namely Hyland’s (1998) polypragmatic model of hedging functions and Yu’s model of hedging strategies. Chi-square tests were also employed in order to identify whether there is a significant difference between the English and Persian news stories in terms of the functions of identified hedging devices.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Overall Distribution of Hedging Forms
The overall distribution of hedging forms by categories was counted separately for the English and Persian news stories. Tables 2 and 3 show it.
### Table 2: Distribution of Hedging Forms in the News Stories of English Newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>F$^1$</th>
<th>F$^2$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal verbs</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximators</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic lexical verbs</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adverbs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adjectives</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic nouns</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive constructions</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impersonal passives</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution to the source</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit pragmatic markers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>416</td>
<td>10.43</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** F$^1$ - raw frequency, F$^2$ - frequency per 1,000 words, % - percentage of the individual categories

### Table 3: Distribution of Hedging Forms in the News Stories of Persian Newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>F$^1$</th>
<th>F$^2$</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal verbs</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximators</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic lexical verbs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adverbs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adjectives</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic nouns</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive constructions</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impersonal passives</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution to the source</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit pragmatic markers</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>139</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** F$^1$ - raw frequency, F$^2$ - frequency per 1,000 words, % - percentage of the individual categories
Concerning the frequency of occurrence of hedging devices in the English and Persian news stories, Tables 2 and 3 shows that the frequency of hedging devices per thousand words in the news stories of English newspapers was 10.43 (n=416) which meant that 1.04% of words in this corpus were hedges, whereas the frequency of hedging devices per thousand words in the Persian ones was 3.48 (n=139) which indicated that 0.35% of words in this corpus were hedges.

Table 4: Chi-Square for the Frequency of Employed Hedges in the English and Persian News Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-square Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$X^2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>138.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Level of Significance at 0.01  *Level of Significance at 0.05

According to the Table 4, there is a statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the frequency of employed hedges ($X^2$=138.25, $p=0.001$, df=1). Therefore, the English news stories show a statistically significant higher inclusion of hedging devices than the Persian ones. Based on this, it implies that the English news story writers show their uncertainty, tentativeness and lack of complete commitment towards the proposition by means of using hedging devices more frequently than the Persian news story writers. The findings said little about the use of specific hedging categories. Therefore, the results of the analysis were examined in more details in the following section in order to provide closer analysis of the each hedging category.

Categories of Hedges

Modal Auxiliary Verbs

While modal verbs can be readily identified in the sample corpus, the actual meaning expressed by modals is less clear (Hyland, 1998, p. 105). Coates (1983, 1992) regards epistemic modality as the “speaker’s assumptions or assessment of possibilities” (p. 55). It demonstrates lack of confidence or the speaker’s confidence in the truth of the statement stated. The study showed that there are six modal auxiliary verbs with epistemic meaning that were used as hedges in the English news stories, whereas there are two modal auxiliary verbs with epistemic meaning that were used as hedges in the Persian ones. Among them an auxiliary verb could (/ˈtævə:nɛstæn/ توانستن ) was found to be the most common in the English news stories, accounting for almost 7.45% (n=31) and in the Persian ones, accounting for about 10.07% (n=14). A modal auxiliary may (n=18) was appeared to be the second most common hedging device, amounting for 4.32% of all identified hedging device in the English news stories, whereas an auxiliary verb should (/ˈbæːjɛstæn/ بایستن ) is the second most common hedging device in the Persian ones, accounting for about 2.15% (n=3). The third most frequent auxiliary verb in the English news stories was a modal verb would (n=13), accounting for about 3.12%. In the data analyzed for this study, a modal auxiliary might was appeared to be the fourth most common hedging device, amounting for 1.92% (n=8) of all identified hedging device in the English news stories. The fifth most frequent auxiliary verb in the English news stories was the modal verbs can (n=5) and should (n=5), accounting for about 1.20% (for each one).
To summarize the results regarding modal auxiliary verbs, it can be said that as it is presented in Table 5 below, there is a statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of modal auxiliary verbs as hedging devices ($\chi^2=40.91$, $p=0.001$, df=1).

Table 5: Results of Chi-Square Tests for the Distribution of Hedging Forms by Categories in the English and Persian News Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modal verbs</td>
<td>40.91</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximators</td>
<td>31.76</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic lexical verbs</td>
<td>17.06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adverbs</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic adjectives</td>
<td>17.06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic nouns</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive constructions</td>
<td>21.35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impersonal passives</td>
<td>9.80</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.002**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution to the source</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.008**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit pragmatic markers</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On a general level, the news stories of English newspapers with total of 80 items employ a higher number of modal auxiliary verbs than the Persian ones which have only 17 hedging items in total. It shows that the English news story journalists express more prediction, possibility, tentative assumption, and assessment of probability by using epistemic meaning of modal auxiliary verbs than the Persian ones.

**Approximators of Quantity, Frequency and Degree**
Approximators of quantity, frequency and degree are those hedging devices that “work locally on a word or a phrase within the proposition, making its meaning sound vague, fuzzy, and imprecise” (Yu, 2009, p. 105). The data analyzed for the present study showed that 99 approximators, accounting for 23.8% were identified in the news stories of English newspapers and 34 items, accounting for 24.5% were identified in the news stories of Persian newspapers. In
the English news stories, there are seven types of approximators that were used to express hedging. As concerns the Persian news stories, there are four different types of approximators to express hedging. Among them about (n=37, 8.89%), almost (n=3, 0.72%), approximately (n=1, 0.24%), around (n=4, 0.96%), at least (n=9, 2.16%), nearly (n=13, 3.12%) and some (n=32, 7.69%) were present in the English news stories, while the Persian ones included about (حدود) (n=11, 7.91%), at least (حداقل) (n=1, 0.71%), nearly (نزدیک به) (n=3, 2.15%) and some (برخی) (n=19, 13.66%). According to the Table 5 presented earlier, it can be noticed that the chi-square test results showed that there is a statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of approximators as hedging devices ($\chi^2 = 31.76$, $p=0.001$, df=1). The English news stories show a statistically significant higher inclusion of approximators than the Persian ones. It suggests that the English news story journalists work locally on the meaning of a word or a phrase within the proposition in order to sound imprecise, fuzzy and vague by means of approximators more frequently than the Persian ones.

**Epistemic Lexical Verbs**

According to Varttala (2001), “while auxiliaries are commonly viewed as a central way of producing modal meanings, they are by no means the only devices with such potential” (p. 118). Hyland (1998) considers epistemic verbs as “the most transparent means of coding the subjectivity of the epistemic source” (p. 119), and they are usually employed to hedge either assertiveness or commitment. Five different lexical verbs with epistemic meaning were identified in the English and Persian news stories with 31 items in total. Total number of this type of hedges was 27 (6.5%) in the English news stories, whereas the incidence was noticeably lower in the Persian news stories with 4 items (2.9%). The English news stories included five epistemic lexical verbs, namely appear (n=9, accounting for about 2.16%), believe (n=3, 0.72%), seek (n=6, 1.44%), seem (n=6, 1.44%) and suggest (n=3, 0.72%), while only two of them, namely seem (به نظر رسیدن) (n=3, 2.15%) and believe (معتقدبودن) (n=1, 0.71%) were used in the Persian news stories. As shown in the Table 5, the chi-square test results revealed that there is a significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of epistemic lexical verbs ($\chi^2 = 17.06$, p=0.001, df=1). Therefore, epistemic lexical verbs are more frequent in the English news stories than the Persian ones. It implies that the English news story journalists code the subjectivity of the epistemic source, hedge their commitment or assertiveness and provide non-factual status of a proposition more frequently than the Persian news story journalists.

**Epistemic Adverbs**

Apart from modal auxiliaries, epistemic lexical verbs and approximators, there are many other ways of stating epistemic modality. A type of epistemic meaning associated with hedging is also frequently presented by epistemic adverbs “which can introduce a certain degree of indefiniteness or lack of precision to the information” (Yueyevna, 2012, p. 61), “either to provide a more accurate representation of reality or simply because vagueness is more appropriate for this specific communicative situation, in which a higher degree of precision is not considered necessary” (Poveda Cabanes, 2007). Two different forms of epistemic adverbs as hedging
devices were identified in the English and Persian news stories with 9 items in total. Total number of this type of hedges was 7 (1.7%) in the English news stories, whereas the incidence was lower in the Persian news stories with 2 items (1.4%). The English news stories included two epistemic adverbs as hedging devices, namely possibly (n=2, accounting for about 0.48%) and probably (n=5, 1.20%), while only one of them, namely probably (/ehtema:læn/احتمالا) (n=2, 1.43%) was available in the news stories of Persian newspapers. It can be noticed that according to the Table 5 presented earlier, the results of chi-square test showed that there is no statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of epistemic adverbs ($\chi^2=2.77$, $p=0.096$, df=1). Therefore, the English and Persian news stories are not different from each other in the use of epistemic adverbs. It shows that the English and Persian news story journalists use the same number of epistemic adverbs to provide a vague representation of reality and also represent not quite precise and a certain degree of ambiguity to the information.

Epistemic Adjectives
A number of adjectives were present in the research data that involve the kind of meaning that may be taken to constitute hedging. According to Varttala (2001), these adjectives with epistemic meaning mark the information presented as tentative, uncertain, doubtful, or not completely precise in many situations entirely similar to that of the adverbs. Three different adjectives with epistemic meaning were identified in the English and Persian news stories with 31 items in total. Total number of this type of hedges was 27 (6.5%) in the English news stories, whereas the incidence was noticeably lower in the Persian news stories with 4 items (2.9%). The English news stories included all three epistemic adjectives, namely likely (n=15, 3.60%), possible (n=10, 2.40%) and unlikely (n=2, 0.48%), while only one of them, namely possible (/ehtema:li:/احتمالی) (n=4, 2.87%) was found in the Persian ones. As seen earlier in the Table 5, the results of chi-square test revealed that there is a considerable difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of epistemic adjectives ($\chi^2=17.06$, $p=0.001$, df=1). As mentioned before, the English news stories present a higher number of epistemic adjectives than the Persian ones. It shows that the English news story journalists tend to mark the information presented as tentative, uncertain, doubtful, or not completely precise more than the Persian news story journalists.

Epistemic Nouns
The findings of the present study demonstrated that noun hedges weren’t present in the English and Persian news stories. It implies that the journalists don’t use noun hedges in their news stories. The absence of this type of hedging devices in the news stories could be again explained by the functions they perform in news discourse. The main function of news stories is to objectively inform the readers, to provide them with hard facts (Buitkiene, 2008, p. 12). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect such findings.

Passive Constructions
The findings of the present study indicated that agentless passive constructions as one of the hedging forms were found in the news stories of English newspapers with total of 121 items, accounting for almost 29.1% and also Persian newspapers which had 59 items, amounting for about 42.4%. The chi-square test results revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between the news
stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of agentless passive constructions ($X^2=21.35$, $p=0.001$, $df=1$). Therefore, the English news stories show a statistically significant higher inclusion of agentless passive constructions than the Persian ones. Based on this, it implies that the English news story journalists attempt to prevent taking responsibility for what they are stating about in order to present the news stories objective by means of various types of passive constructions more frequently than the Persian news story journalists.

Impersonal Passive Constructions
While passive constructions are not always used to express hedging, impersonal passive constructions in this sense are easier to identify and to define their hedging meaning (Yurevna, 2012, p. 68). The findings of the present study revealed that impersonal passive constructions that are used as hedging devices were present in the news stories of English newspapers with total of 17 items, accounting for about 4.1% and the Persian news stories which had only 3 items, amounting for almost 2.2%. To summarize the results, it can be said that as it was presented earlier in the Table 5, there is a statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of impersonal passive constructions as hedges ($X^2=9.80$, $p=0.002$, $df=1$). Therefore, it shows that the English news stories present a higher number of impersonal passive constructions than the Persian ones.

Attribution to the Source
According to Yurevna (2012) “this category of hedging devices can be regarded as a particular characteristic of the news writing” (p. 68). Since the journalist are supposed to be as objective and accurate as possible, reference to the source of the information can be one way to avoid misinterpretation of the facts or events and to protect themselves from the possibility being negatively judged by the readers (Yurevna, 2012, p. 68). The findings of the present study revealed that this category of hedging devices was found in the news stories of English newspapers with total of 38 items, accounting for almost 9.1% and also Persian newspapers which had 16 items, accounting for almost 11.5%. According to the Table 5 presented earlier, it can be noticed that the chi-square test results revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of attribution to the source hedges ($X^2=7.14$, $p=0.008$, $df=1$). Therefore, the English news stories show a statistically significant higher inclusion of attribution to the source than the Persian ones. It suggests that the English news story journalists prevent misinterpretation of the events or truths and keep safe themselves from the possibility being negatively judged by the readers in order to be accurate and objective to a greater extent than the Persian news story journalists.

Implicit Pragmatic Markers
This category of hedges wasn’t present and constituted no percent of all hedging devices identified in the English and Persian news stories. Pragmatic markers with interpersonal and interactive functions may bring a sense of cooperation, sharing, intimacy or solidarity between the interlocutors, expressed by humble and modest attitude, in a reduced or weakened tone (Yu, 2009, p. 98). News stories in comparison to other genres such as opinion articles perform different functions and follow different interests.
The main function of news stories is to objectively inform the readers, to provide them with hard facts, while opinion articles aim to persuade the reader and form public opinion (Buitkiene, 2008, p. 12). Therefore, as the findings of the present study showed, the journalists do not employ these different expressions and senses in their news stories. This category consists of some devices, for example, direct questions, parenthetical constructions, hypothetical conditionals, etc.

Functions of Hedges

Hyland (1998) in her polypragmatic model of hedges divided hedging functions into three main categories: accuracy-oriented, writer-oriented and reader-oriented hedges. Table 6 below presents the overall distribution of writer, accuracy and reader-oriented hedges in the English and Persian news stories.

Table 6: Distribution of Hedging Functions in the News Stories of English and Persian Newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Hedge</th>
<th>ENS</th>
<th>PNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F¹</td>
<td>F²</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writer-oriented</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>7.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy-oriented</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reader-oriented</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key to Table: F¹—raw frequency, F²—frequency per 1,000 words, % percentage of the individual categories, English news stories (ENS), Persian news stories (PNS)

This Table shows that apart from reader-oriented hedges which had no frequency in the data, the English news stories contained more writer-oriented and accuracy-oriented hedges compared to the Persian ones. Furthermore, the frequency of writer-oriented hedges in the English and Persian news stories was higher than accuracy-oriented hedges. A more closed examination of each hedging function will be presented further in the following subsections.

Writer-oriented Hedges

As Table 6 presented earlier demonstrated, the first prominent functional category of hedges in the news stories of English and Persian newspapers was writer-oriented hedges. Journalists employ this type of hedging devices in the news writing in order to support themselves from the possible results of error by restricting their personal responsibility. Table 6 showed that the frequency of writer-oriented hedges per thousand words in the English news stories was 7.95 (n=317), accounting for about 76.20% of the overall number of hedges which was more than that of the Persian ones (2.63, n=105, amounting for 75.54%). As shown in the Table 7, the chi-square test results revealed that there is a significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of writer-oriented hedges ($\chi^2=138.25$, p=0.001, df=1).
Table 7: Results of Chi-Square Tests for the Distribution of Hedging Functions by Categories in the English and Persian News Stories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writer-oriented hedges</td>
<td>138.25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy-oriented hedges</td>
<td>31.76</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Level of Significance at 0.01  *Level of Significance at 0.05

Therefore, the English news stories favor more number of this type of hedging functions than the Persian ones. It implies that the English news story journalists tend to maintain some distance from propositions in order to reduce the probability of refutation and make a shield for themselves against the possible consequences of error by limiting their personal responsibility more frequently than the Persian news story journalists.

Accuracy-oriented Hedges

According to the Table 6 presented earlier, the second important functional category of hedges in the news stories of English and Persian newspapers was this category of hedging functions. The prominent function of this category is to express statements with higher exactness. The writers in order to present information more precise and objective employ a diversity of degree of precision adverbs that present an “acceptable degree if imprecision to specify the accuracy” (Hyland, 1998, p. 140). Table 6 showed that the frequency of accuracy-oriented hedges per thousand words in the English news stories was 2.48 (n=99), accounting for about 23.80% of the overall number of hedges which was more than that of the Persian ones (0.85, n=34, amounting for 24.46%). As seen earlier in the Table 7, the results of chi-square test revealed that there is a considerable difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of accuracy-oriented hedges ($\chi^2=31.76$, p=0.001, df=1). As mentioned before, the English news stories present a higher number of this type of hedging functions than the Persian ones. It indicates that the English news story journalists attempt to express information with more accuracy and precision according to reality than the Persian news story journalists.

Reader-oriented Hedges

Reader-oriented hedges mainly are about the interpersonal interaction between writers and readers, in other words, reader-oriented hedges are as devices that help to lessen the statements in a way that “bring a sense of cooperation, sharing, or solidarity between the interlocutors” (Yu, 2009, p. 97) and make easy and effective communication between the writers and readers. According to the Table 6 presented before, the results of the present study indicated that because of the nature of news stories that informs the readers and presents truths and realities objectively, reader-oriented category of hedging functions wasn’t employed and found in the news stories of English and Persian newspapers. It implies that the journalists do not concern the readers in exchanging of opinions or direct them as an attentive individual to answer and judge regarding the truth value of the proposition in their news stories. They also do not provide and express a
sense of cooperation, intimacy and sharing in the statements between the readers and themselves in their news stories.

**Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to compare the frequency, forms of linguistic devices which act as hedges and determine the functions of identified hedges and see whether the incidence of the hedging frequency, forms and functions varies in the news stories selected from four sections (arts & culture, business & economy, politics, and sports) of English and Persian newspapers. In respect to the first research question, the findings of this study showed that there is a statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the frequency of employed hedges. Therefore, the English news stories show a statistically significant higher inclusion of hedging devices than the Persian ones. Finally, it is concluded that this study rejects the first null hypothesis. As concerns the second question which deals with specific types and categories of hedging devices, regardless epistemic nouns and implicit pragmatic markers which had no frequency in the data, the present study revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between the English and Persian news stories in the use of each hedging form except epistemic adverbs. In other words, apart from epistemic nouns and implicit pragmatic markers that were not present in the data, this study rejects the second null hypothesis regarding all the forms of hedging devices except epistemic adverbs employed between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers. With regards to the third research question, the findings of the present study showed that regardless reader-oriented hedges which had no frequency in the data, there is a statistically significant difference between the news stories of English and Persian newspapers in the use of each hedging function (writer-oriented hedges & accuracy-oriented hedges). In other words, regardless reader-oriented hedges that were not present in the data, this study rejects the third null hypothesis regarding the functions of identified hedging devices between the English and Persian news stories. The findings of this study supported Yuryevna’s (2012) study on hedging in news writing that indicated implicit pragmatic markers, epistemic nouns and reader-oriented hedges aren’t present in the news stories. The present study also confirmed his study that showed writer-oriented hedges are the first prominent functional category of hedges and accuracy-oriented hedges are the second important category of hedging functions.

The results of this study showed that hedges play a prominent role in the news genre. Although considerable differences were found in the use of hedging devices, their forms and functions in the news stories of each language, the most significant issue was the language differences that, following Hyland (1997), are believe to be the result of the cultures of English and Persian communities. The notion of culture-specificity as developed by Hyland (1997) refers to the ideological schema that controls each community’s knowledge, purposes, self-identification and conduct. The use of language by community members can express signs of their community-specific culture. So, writings of journalists of news stories to be specified by their discourse community norms, values and native language. The English news story journalists are involved in the effective nature of their discourse. It seems that this can be affected by the way they connect themselves with other members of the society and their awareness of cultural factors.
English and Persian writers mitigate their statements when they try to hide a matter against a thrust. This can be affected by the matter that as a result of impreciseness of an unhedged proposition, all the essential information cannot be presented (Varrttala, 2001). Although the Persian news story journalists employ fewer hedges and somehow are more open and honest than their English counterparts, this could not mean that they are impolite or want to indicate more authority. It seems that their understanding of cultural factors is completely different from their English counterparts. Thus, it is indicated that understanding cultural issues can lead to proper interpretation of hedges.

Besides cultural issues and differences between communities, these types of comparisons will hold true if we pay special attention to the nature of the sections. In other words, the nature of the sections can be regarded as one of the factors influencing the observed differences in the amount of using hedging devices, hedging forms that are employed and also functions they perform in the news stories of English and Persian newspapers. The different bases of argumentation in various sections can be considered as another reason for the observed differences. The amount of information that should be presented in the news stories can differ from one language to another and also from one section to another. The different emphasis given to the news stories of various sections of English and Persian newspapers can partially protect this idea.

CONCLUSION
The results of the present study indicated that hedging as mitigating device was widely employed and present in the English and Persian news stories. It suggests its importance in newspaper genre. These findings proved that hedge is an essential feature of professional writing. There are a number of limitations that may influence the findings of the study. First, establishing a clear definition of hedge is extremely difficult because researchers of various studies have proposed definition of hedges in different ways. Second, providing a comprehensive taxonomy and classification of all hedges using in a language is a very controversial task, because researchers have little agreement on the functions and forms of hedge. As concerns delimitation, this study is based on relatively small corpora (200 news stories). In order to complement the findings of the present study, some further researches can be suggested:

1. Future researches can be carried out expanding the corpora size to see if the same results are obtained.

2. Future researches are needed to examine other sections for in-depth analysis and reliability of the results in order to find out whether the results will be the same as or different from the results of the present study.

3. It is suggested that future researches concentrate on other genres of news, because only a single genre of news, that is, news story was examined in this study.
The results of the present study may be useful and have implications for ESP students and instructors, material developers and also Persian news story journalists attempting to publish their news stories in English in international journals or English newspapers. They are provided with a better understanding of hedges and can also be used for the development of teaching and studying writing in English. In other words, the findings of this study can have remarkable advantages for the students and journalists to examine and consider their extent of foreign language experience, the awareness of conventional rules and norms of English language, and the differences that might exist between the use of hedges in English and Persian news stories. It helps them make judgment accurately about employing one form rather than another. Moreover, the results of this study can also be used by ESP instructors, in order to inform the learners of the differences that may occur in hedging devices use between English and Persian news writing. ESP instructors when teaching writing skills should emphasize the ability to make a difference between observed facts and interpretations, make the learners aware regarding the way that English journalists use hedging and modify their claims and statements appropriately, and also aware them concerning the different degrees of emphasis that the English journalists may use in their news. The ESP instructors may find the comparative results of this study as a source for designing writing tasks for the learners that help them master this metadiscourse feature in writing Persian or English news stories. Furthermore, the findings of the present study suggest the necessity for developing and designing some authentic materials by material developers in order to manifest the natural frequency, forms and functions of hedging devices in their work. Information conveyed by authentic data is undoubtedly of great value for educational purposes.

REFERENCES


Appendix A
Taxonomy of Hedging Devices (Yuryevna, 2012, p. 97)

Common Lexical Items Expressing Hedging

1. Modal Verbs
   Can, could, may, might, should, would

2. Epistemic Lexical Verbs
   Seem, appear, believe, think, guess, suggest, suppose, propose, predict, assume, speculate, suspect, attempt, seek

3. Epistemic Adverbs
   Probably, perhaps, maybe, possibly, apparently

4. Epistemic Adjectives
   Likely, unlikely, possible, probable

5. Epistemic Nouns
   Possibility, probability, chance

6. Approximators
   Some, about, nearly, almost, quite, somewhat, kind of, sort of, somehow, to some extent, approximately, around

Syntactic Items Expressing Hedging

1. Impersonal Passive Constructions
   It is believed/assumed/said that...

2. Agentless Passive Constructions (Passive Construction without By-Agent)
3. Attribution to the Source
According to X,...; As X stated,...

4. Parenthetical Constructions Expressing Personal Reference and Attribution
I believe, I think, as far as I know, in my/our opinion

5. Direct Questions

6. Hypothetical Conditionals
Appendix B

Hedging Functions

Accuracy-oriented

Writer-oriented

Reader-oriented

-**Modal Auxiliary Verbs** (E.g. Would, can, could, may, might, should)

- **Epistemic Adverbs** (E.g. Probably, perhaps, maybe, possibly, apparently)

- **Epistemic Adjectives** (E.g. Likely, unlikely, possible, probable)

- **Epistemic Nouns** (E.g. Possibility, probability, chance)

- **Epistemic Lexical Verbs**

  (E.g. Seem, appear, believe, think, guess, suggest, suppose, propose, predict, assume, speculate, suspect, attempt, seek)

- **Impersonal Passive Constructions** (E.g. It is said / believed / assumed that …; X is believed / thought / supposed to ….)

- **Agentless Passive Constructions (Without By-Agent)**

- **Attribution to the Source**

- **Approximators of Quantity, Frequency, and Degree:**

  E.g. some, about, nearly, approximately, almost, quite, somewhat, kind of, sort of, to some extent, somehow, etc.

- **Implicit Pragmatic Markers (Personal Reference and Attribution)**

  I believe, I think, in our opinion, as far as I know, generally speaking

- **Direct Questions**

- **Hypothetical Conditionals**
THE EFFECT OF SELF-CORRECTION ON EXTROVERTED AND INTROVERTED INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS’ WRITING IMPROVEMENTS

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ABSTRACT
The present study was an attempt to investigate the Effect of Self-Correction on Extroverted and Introverted Intermediate EFL (English as a Foreign Language) Learners’ Writing Improvements. To carry out the study, 128 intermediate Iranian male EFL learners were selected through administration of Preliminary English Test (PET) and employing the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ). The participants were assigned to four main groups: (1) extroverts who corrected their own writings; (2) extroverts whose writings were corrected by the teacher; (3) introverts who corrected their own writings; (4) introverts whose writings were corrected by the teacher. The experimental groups (Group 1 & 3) received a seven-week period of treatment. The obtained results showed that personality type had no significant effect on learners’ improvement in writing. However, correction method proved to be significantly effective, with self-correction method showing greater effect on writing improvement. The results indicated that self-correction method has a greater effect on learners’ improvement in writing than the traditional teacher-correction method. The first null-hypothesis was rejected, implying that there is a significant difference between the two correction techniques; self-correction is more effective in writing improvement than the teacher-correction. The second null-hypothesis was supported. This implies that extroverts and introverts can improve equally in their writing and being extroverted or introverted will have no significant effect on learners’ rate of improvement.

KEYWORDS: extroversion, introversion, self-correction, teacher-correction, EFL writing development, writing feedback.

INTRODUCTION
Teaching of ESL writing has undergone great changes in the twentieth century, particularly since 1945, from viewing language as an end product to viewing it as an interactive process in which learners play a determining role. Consequently, responding to learners’ errors has undergone great changes. However, teachers need to inform the learners of the quality of their pieces of
writing. (Chastain, 1988; Magnan, 1990; Hyde et al. 1997). Apart from different approaches of teaching writing and different writing correction methods, personality traits such as Extroversion and Introversion are believed to have an impact on learners’ learning in that learners with different personality types view language and language learning differently (Fillmore, 1979; Stern, 1991; Brown, 2006; Shepherd, 2002; Hajimohammadi, 2010).

During the recent decades most of the language-teaching specialists have changed their attitudes and have tried to put the learners in the focal point of the attention through providing them with some tasks. Consequently, many methods and strategies emerged and each of them has assigned a different role to learners. As far as writing improvement is concerned, some teachers have recommended that a part of the responsibility for learning is put on the learners themselves. For instance, the learners can be taught to read their own pieces of compositions and check for the errors. That means self-correction instead of the traditional teacher-correction (Fathman-Whalley, 1990). Moreover, focusing on the learners many instructors have put forward the idea of considering the learner factors such as personality type, motivation, attitudes and other personal factors. Thus, these factors have gained prominence. One of these factors is the personality trait of Extroversion/Introversion. Considering a student as extrovert or introvert would likely affect many teachers’ attitudes toward him due to the erroneous stereotype that some teachers have against introverted learners. (Borg, Shapiro, 1996). The present study intended to investigate the effect of these two personality factors as well as correction methods in writing improvement of learners.

An Overlook on Teaching Writing

There’s no doubt that developments in teaching of ESL composition have been influenced by and, to a certain extent, are parallel to the developments in the teaching of writing to the native speakers of English (Silva 1990). Since 1945- the beginning of the modern era of second language teaching in the United States- many particular approaches or orientations to L2 writing have achieved dominance and then faded but never disappeared. Each approach, at least as it emerges in the literature, has the distinctive focus, highlighting in one case the rhetorical and linguistic form of the text itself; in another the writer and the cognitive processes used in act of writing, in another the content for writing, and in the last the demands made by the reader (Raimes 1991, p. 448)

According to Silva (1990), the four most influential approaches to this period are:

1) Controlled Composition(focus on form): Silva (1990) describes this phase of composition teaching by remarking that controlled composition that sometimes is referred to as guided composition has its roots in Charles Fries’s (1945) ‘oral approach’, the precursor of the Audio-lingual Method of second language teaching. The basic notions of controlled composition are that language is speech (from structural linguistics) and learning is habit formation (from behaviorist psychology). From this perspective writing was regarded as a secondary concern, essentially as reinforcement of oral habits.
2) Current-Traditional Rhetoric: In the mid-sixties there appeared an increasing awareness of producing extended written discourse. This awareness led to suggestion that controlled composition was not enough; that writing was more than building grammatical sentences; and that there was a need for a bridge between controlled and free writing. This approach combined the principles of current-traditional paradigm from native speaker composition instruction with Kaplan’s theory of ‘constructive rhetoric’ (Silva 1990, p. 13).

Kaplan (2006, p. 13) defined rhetoric as “the method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns”. He suggested that ESL writers “employ rhetoric and a sequence of thought, which violates the expectations of the native reader”. From the perspective of this version of current-traditional rhetoric, writing is basically a matter of arrangement, of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns. Learning to write, then, involves becoming skilled in identifying, internalizing, and executing these patterns. The writer fills in a preexisting form with provided or self-generated content. The reader is easily confused and perhaps vexed by unfamiliar patterns of expressions. The text is the collection of increasingly complex discourse structures (Silva 1990, p. 14).

3) the Process Approach (focus on writer): This is an approach in teaching composition writing which emphasizes the composing processes that writers make use of in writing (such as planning, drafting, and revising) and seeks to improve learners’ writing skills through developing their use of effective composition processes. This approach is sometimes compared with a product approach or a prose model approach, that is, one which focuses on producing different kinds of writing products and which emphasizes the imitation of different model paragraphs or essays (Richards et al. 1992). In this approach, content, ideas and the need to communicate determine the form. In essence, “composing means expressing ideas, and conveying meaning. Composition means thinking” (Raimes 1983 a, p. 261). In the classroom context, this approach calls for providing a positive, encouraging, and collaborative workshop environment within which learners, with ample time and minimal interference, can work through their composing processes. The teacher’s role is to help learners develop viable strategies for getting started (finding topics, generating ideas and information, focusing, and planning structure and procedure), for drafting (encouraging multiple drafts), for revising (adding, deleting, modifying and rearranging ideas), and for editing (attending to vocabulary, sentence structure, grammar and mechanics). From the process perspective, writing is a complex, recursive, and creative process similar in L1 and L2. Writer is the center of attention. The reader, focusing on the content, ideas, and the negotiation of the meaning, is not preoccupied with form. The text is a product – a secondary, derivative concern, whose form is a function of its content and purpose. It is the responsibility of the individual writers to identify and appropriately address the particular task, situation, discourse community, and socio-cultural setting in which they are involved.

4) English for Academic Purpose (focus on content): There have been a lot of criticisms against process approach. One major criticism is that the process approach does not adequately address some central issues in ESL writing. Reid (1984 a, b) has suggested that the approach neglects to seriously consider variations in writing processes due to differences in individuals, writing tasks,
and situations. Critics also question whether the process approach realistically prepares learners for academic work. According to Horowitz (1986, p. 144), this approach “creates a classroom situation that bears little resemblance to the situation in which learners’ writing will be exercised”. He suggests that process orientation ignores certain types of academic writing tasks. He also believes that the two basic tenets of process approach – “content determines form” and “good writing involves writing” – do not necessarily hold true in many academic contexts. He further asserts that the process approach overemphasizes the individual’s psychological functioning and neglects the socio-cultural context.

English for academic purpose, as an alternative instructional methodology, aims at recreating the conditions under which actual university writing tasks are done and involves the close examination and analysis of academic discourse format and writing task specification. In brief, from English for academic purpose orientation, writing is the production of the prose that will be acceptable at an American academic institution, and learning to write is a part of becoming socialized to the academic community (Silva 1990 p. 17). According to Silva (1990), an adequate and appropriate theory of writing is one that regards writing as an interactive activity, is reasonably comprehensive and internally consistent, reflects an understanding of historical developments in the field, is informed by current work in relevant disciplines, and is sensitive to the cultural, linguistic, and experimental differences of individuals and societies. Unfortunately, it seems that these approaches are not sufficiently grounded in appropriate and adequate theory and credible research and each of them is privileging and limiting its attention to a single element of writing. Controlled composition focuses on lexical and syntactic features of the text, whereas ESL current-traditional rhetoric focuses on discourse-level text structure. The process approach attends to writers’ composing behaviors, while English for academic purpose approach focuses on the reader, in the form of the academic discourse community. Therefore, it seems that there are no comprehensive theories of L2 writing, and also it does not seem prudent to assume that theories of first-language writing alone suffice (Silva 1990).

**When and How to Correct the Errors (correction as feedback)**

Undoubtedly, the final purpose of any writing course is to improve learners’ writing. However, Tsang (1996) found that frequent writing practice with little or no teacher feedback only led to limited improvement in L2 writing. The importance of feedback has also been pointed out by Swain and Lapkin (1995, p. 384) who posit that “relevant feedback could play a crucial role in advancing their [the learners’] language learning.”

Terrell (1985) remarks three reasons for not correcting learners’ errors directly: (1) it does not lead to more language usage in future, (2) it may result in independent effect and learners that interfere with learning and (3) it will probably cause learners to focus their attention on language rather than meaning. The written work must be viewed by teachers not as the final product but as the raw language material that the learners are in the process of shaping. According to Power (2002), the positive correction strategy firstly depends on the approach or, approaches, which underlie the planning of the program. He believes that considering the programs, teachers must decide whether to adopt a behaviorist approach (steering round errors -simplicity, minimal steps,
Similar to the teaching of the other skills, teaching writing should involve learners with their own learning. The self-access approach, with a better defined focus on the learners’ learning experience, needs, realistic learning objective and personalized learning program, is seen as an alternative of the uniformed conventional teacher-oriented approach. The attempt to experiment with this approach is to explore the learners’ potential and existing knowledge of English in his learning experience and maximize such experience to help him learn and use English effectively and efficiently. Teachers must coach and guide meta-cognition for it develops learners’ self-monitoring and self-correction skills. If teachers want their learners to think, the learners must know that the teacher will test their thinking and problem-solving skills as explicit elements that go into determining their grades. Critical ability on the learners’ part is probably better developed through self-correction. Self-correction, which is welcomed by many teachers, certainly makes the learners more aware of the kind of mistakes they are making and will consequently result in something being learned. Yet, in practice it does not solve all the problems.

**Personality Factors and Teaching Writing**

Since different learners view the language learning from different points of view, it is the responsibility of course designers to design a syllabus appropriate for any given class of learners. The tasks should be in line with the learners’ needs and personality types. During the recent years most of the teaching approaches changed their attitude toward learners’ needs and emotion. This, in its turn, may lead to individualized learning in which allowance is made in the design of a curriculum for individual differences in what learners wish to learn, how they learn, and the rate at which they learn. Individualized instruction attempts to give learners more control over what they learn and how they learn it (Richards et al. 1992).

According to Ellis (1985), in an individual approach, learners’ factors that can influence the course of development are considered to be infinite and very difficult to classify in a reliable manner. Five general factors that can contribute to individual learners differences are ‘age’, ‘aptitude’, ‘cognitive style’, ‘motivation’, and ‘personality’. As Fillmore (1979) points out, on one hand individual differences are seen as an all-important factor, while on the other hand they are treated as relatively insignificant. One of these individual differences is the personal factor that is difficult to observe by a third person (Schumann, 1975). Fortunately, in recent years there has been increasing awareness of these psychological characteristics, which have bearing on language learning and can influence the learning outcome (Stern 1991). This increasing awareness that sensitizes teachers to variations in their reactions to different learners has been achieved through different psychological methods such as Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), Pinker Personality Profile and Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI).
RESEARCH QUESTIONS
To investigate the performance of the extroverts and introverts with regard to their improvement in writing the following questions were proposed.
1. Is self-correction more effective than teacher correction in Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' writing improvement?
2. Is there any relationship between personality traits of Extroversion and introversion and learners writing improvement?

METHODOLOGY
The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of self-correction on extroverted and introverted learners’ writing improvement. Accordingly, 128 male EFL learners were selected as the participants of the study. They were assigned to four different groups – two groups included extroverts and two groups included introverts. Afterwards, they were given seven topics to write about in a seven-week period. While two groups – one extroverted and one introverted – enjoy self-correction, the teacher corrected the writings of the other two groups.

Participants
The participants of this study were selected from an English language institute, which is located in Tehran, Iran, named Iran mehr English Language Institute. The participants of this study were 128 male learners ranging between 14 and 20 years old, who (according to the chart of the institute) were intermediate learners. These 128 learners were selected from among 156 intermediate learners according to their scores in Preliminary English Test (PET) and also on the basis of the responses to Eysenck Personality Questionnaire.

Instrumentation
Preliminary English Test (PET)
The Preliminary English Test (PET) is an international examination sanctioning a certain level of mastery of the English language. A preliminary exam consists of three main points: the focus, the ideas, and explanations. The exam consists of 3 papers: Reading and Writing, Listening and an oral examination. A total of 70% across the 3 papers is needed to pass the exam. All items in each test have carefully been pre-tested by the constructors of the tests. These tests are widely used by EFL teachers as one of the most accurate means of measuring the general knowledge of Standard English. On the basis of the proficiency level of the available population, the P.E.T test was adopted and administered at the beginning of the study to select homogeneous participants. The allotted time to answer the test was one hour and half. The total score of the test was 60. The mean score was 32.58 and the standard deviation was 5.237.

Personality Questionnaire
The EPQ measures up to 21 scales of personality that are consistent with the giant three dimensions of personality traits (Extroversion, Neuroticism, and Psychoticism) as defined by Professor Hans Eysenck (Jackson et al. 2000). Therefore, EPQ provides a particularly accurate and comprehensive assessment of personality. The EPQ version that was employed in the
The present study aimed to distinguish between extroverts and introverts. It included 57 YES/NO items, according to which the degree of the learners’ extroversion could be measured. According to the EPQ key, in a given learners responses ‘YES’ to items 1, 3, 8, 10, 13, 17, 22, 25, 27, 39, 41, 44, 46, 49, 53 and 56 and ‘NO’ to items 5, 15, 20, 29, 32, 34, 37, and 51, he or she would be a total extrovert.

Therefore, if the number of corrected YES and NO, responses is 5, for example, a given learners would tend to have 4% extroversion tendencies and consequently 96% introversion tendencies. If the number of a student’s total correct YES and NO responses to these 24 items is 18, he or she would have 95% extroverted tendencies and 5% introverted tendencies. One separate key is also provided to secure the reliability of the responses. According to this key, responding YES to selected items such as 6 and 24 and responding NO to items 12, 18, 30, 36, 42, 48, and 54 would be considered as lies. Therefore, the more lies are included in a student’s responses, the less reliable his or her responses to the total 57 items would be. EPQ supposes that if there are more than 3 lies in a student’s responses, that student must be excluded from the study. It is essential to note that being introverted or extroverted is not binary. In other words, no one is exclusively extroverted or introverted. Rather, everyone shows a range of extroverted and introverted behaviors and, thus, falls somewhere in the continuum with total extroverted behaviors at one far end and total introverted behaviors at the other far end.

**Correction Code Sheet**

This sheet included some symbols and alphabet letters that were representatives of the error types the learners would have in their pieces of writing. It has to be mentioned here that the symbols are quite conventional and each teacher can develop his or her version of the correction codes. The symbols and alphabet letters were chosen mostly in a way that best could symbolize the error types. The error types and responding symbols were the follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>Wrong word</td>
<td>As our plane flew on the mountains we saw snow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WT</td>
<td>Wrong time</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains we see snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WF</td>
<td>Wrong form</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains we was seeing snow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WO</td>
<td>Wrong order</td>
<td>As our plane over the mountain flew we saw snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SP</td>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains we saw snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>Punctuation</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains; we saw snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>Extra word</td>
<td>As our plane flew over to the mountains we saw snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>Missing word</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains - saw snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>Register</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains we observed snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?</td>
<td>Not clear</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains we saw snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!</td>
<td>Silly mistake!</td>
<td>As our plane flew over the mountains we seed snow.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RW</td>
<td>Try re-writing</td>
<td>Our vehicle flies, we snow find, over mountains you saw it.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Composition Rating Scale**

This scale was developed according to the ‘Error Count Method’. The errors that were considered in this study were ‘semantic errors’, ‘grammatical errors’, and ‘punctuation errors’. The minus
mark was assigned to each error. Two raters (the researcher and one of his colleagues) rated each piece of writing.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
To select the participants Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered at the beginning of the study. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for the PET

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for Preliminary English Test (PET)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>32.58</td>
<td>5.273</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the 128 participants were assigned to the four groups, a one-way ANOVA was carried out to ensure the homogeneity of the four groups regarding their general English proficiency. The general descriptive statistics related to the distribution of the participants in the four groups according to their performances in PET are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2: General statistics related to the distribution of the participants in the four groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Group A</th>
<th>Group B</th>
<th>Group C</th>
<th>Group D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Learners</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>33.312</td>
<td>33.290</td>
<td>32.281</td>
<td>33.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>3.897</td>
<td>3.625</td>
<td>3.665</td>
<td>3.759</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it may be clear from the mean scores and the standard deviations of the four groups, the participants have been assigned to the four groups homogeneously. This is further confirmed by the result of one-way ANOVA (Table 3) as follows:

Table 3: Statistics related to the homogeneity of the four groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>d.f</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F observed</th>
<th>F critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>29.7064</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.9021</td>
<td>0.7081</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1733.9732</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>13.9836</td>
<td>0.7081</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared with the critical F value of 2.70, the low observed value of 0.7081 depicts that there is no significant difference between the four groups as far as the learners’ performances in P.E.T are concern. This implies that the participants have been assigned to the four groups homogeneously.

Two questions were posed earlier in chapter one:
1) Is self-correction method more effective than teacher-correction method in the learners writing improvement?
2) Is there any relationship between learners’ personality traits of extroversion/introversion and their writing improvement?

To find the answers to these questions, the researcher obtained the main data from the final compositions of the four groups. To analyze the data, a two-way analysis of variances (Two-way ANOVA) was employed to investigate the relationship between (1) Extraversion/Introversion as
personality traits, (2) self-correction versus teacher-correction as correction method, and (3) the learners’ scores based on a written composition at the end of a seven-week period. Thus the following results were obtained.

Table 4: Two-Way ANOVA. The effect of Self-correction method and Personality traits on writing improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>d.f</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F observed</th>
<th>F critical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personality Trait</td>
<td>150.8804</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>150.8804</td>
<td>0.67033</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correction Method</td>
<td>698.4453</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>698.4453</td>
<td>3.10308*</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Factor A) × (Factor B)</td>
<td>57.5392</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57.5392</td>
<td>0.2556</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>27910.06</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>255.081</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>28816.92</td>
<td>127</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 4 reveals, the F observed value of 0.67033 related to the personality traits (factor A) is much lower than the critical value of 2.70 at 1 and 124 degree of freedom. This depicts that being extroverted or introverted alone, that is personality trait regardless of the correction method, has no significant effect on learners’ improvement in writing. However, as Table 4 illustrates, the F observed value of 3.10308 related to correction method (factor B) is greater than the F critical value of 2.70. In other words, the correction method (self-correction) has proved to be significantly effective on learners’ improvement in writing.

Moreover, the other observed F value of 0.2556 related to the interaction between the two factors of personality trait and correction method is much lower than the F critical value 2.70. This implies that there is no significant interaction between personality trait and correction method because the corresponding F observed value is much lower than the F critical value.

CONCLUSION
As AbiSamra (2003) asserts teacher’s attitude toward correction, the way in which he offers it to learners, and learners’ own feelings about the teacher in general are significant factors in the effectiveness of correction strategies. She recommends that teachers focus more on process in their comments and use multi-draft assignments; they should teach learners how to use feedback to enhance their writing skills (Self-correction has proven to be very effective; being aware of one’s errors and rewriting those using problem-solving techniques is significantly beneficial for developing writing skills). As self-correction has proved to be superior to the traditional teacher-correction with regard to the writing improvement, it can be suggested to teachers to apply this method as an alternative to the traditional teacher-correction method in order to involve the learners in the whole process of writing, in general, and in the correction of errors, in particular. The followings would also justify the merits of self-correction.

According to Harris (1995), learners often perceive feedback (teacher-correction) as criticism rather than as constructive and well-meaning suggestion. Therefore, giving a part of the correction responsibility to the learners themselves will mean to them that the issue of criticism is
not as sensitive as it might have been if correction was done by the teacher himself. Furthermore, Boughey (1997, p. 128) asserts, the correction carried out by the learners is a process approach. She believes that in order for this process of writing, revising, and rewriting to be developmental, “some form of constructive feedback to the successive piece of writing is desirable and often necessary”. She goes on to say that in large mainstream classes peer reviews may suggest itself as an obvious means of alleviation of the workload of the teacher. At any rates, the learners must first be trained in taking this responsibility. Self-correction can serve as a preliminary practice for this responsibility.

According to Zeny (2003), the benefit of using correction codes to carry out the self-correction is that learners tend to pay closer attention to their work, considering different possibilities for choice of lexis, for instance. So, in fact, there is awareness raising and more willingness to assume responsibility for their production, even though it may happen merely at a linguistic level. As Porto (2001) says, each writer writes for specific readers and readers would read the written piece critically. Therefore, if the reader and the writer is the same person, some consciousness-raising would occur. According to Ferris (2007), self-correction follows the principles of problem solving and discovery learning, according to which learners themselves, guided by the teacher, find their problems in a relaxing atmosphere. Therefore, the solution can be better fitted into the cognitive structure which already exists in their minds. The other finding of the present study suggests that there is no significant difference in extroverts and introverts regarding their improvement in writing. Therefore, it can be suggested to the teachers that they consider the existing differences between the learners’ different potentials due to their different personality types. Teachers should bear in mind that introverted learners, who are sometimes erroneously believed to be shy, quiet, easygoing, and even not talented, can show improvement in the tasks required for them by just using strategies different from those of their extroverted counterparts to approach the goals (Hajimohammadi, 2010).

Therefore, it can be concluded that all learners, regardless of their personality traits, have the aptitude to learn in an efficient way just if the teachers discover the appropriate channel through which they would improve. These findings indicate that educators need to be aware of these temperament factors in order to address individual educational needs of learners. If educational setting is incompatible with the learners’ personal orientations towards learning, they may be unable to engage in educational activities and will be left at a disadvantage. More importantly, learners may disengage from the learning process which can further hamper their educational success.

**Limitations of the study**

The findings of the present study account for male intermediate teenagers. The instruction method is based on extensive reading and writing. Moreover, only two personality factors have been considered in the study, namely extroversion and introversion. The study also account for the effect of self-correction method on the learners’ improvement in writing. Therefore, two variables are considered in this study.
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A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF CODE GLOSSES IN INTERNATIONAL AND IRANIAN NEWSPAPERS

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ABSTRACT
This study aimed to identify how code glosses are distributed according to cross-cultural or cross-linguistic preferences and explore the role they play in the construction and attainment of persuasion. For this reason, 240 opinion columns of three Persian newspapers (IRAN, Hamshahri and Ettelaat) and two English ones (NewYork Times and Independent) were selected. Then code glosses were highlighted in the texts and classified based on the Dafouz-Milne' (2008) taxonomy of meta-discourse markers. Findings revealed that code glosses are present in English and Persian newspapers' opinion columns, but there are variations as to the distribution. In addition, two groups of informants were used in order to discover how these markers operate as a persuasive mechanism in English and Persian texts. For the Iranian informants, the text with a high number of these markers and for the English informants, the text with a balanced number of these markers was considered as the most persuasive texts. Results showed that English and Persian informants chose the most persuasive texts according to their cultural preferences. The results are useful for columnists because in order to convince their audience, they should present the propositional material in a way that the audience find more convincing.

KEYWORDS: Code glosses; persuasion; cross-cultural; cross-linguistic

INTRODUCTION
In each written genre, writers try to guide and direct readers through the text. Some genres have a wide audience, and among them are newspapers especially the opinion column. So columnists try to present their writings in such a way that they persuade readers to share the writer's views and reflect the particular conventions that are followed in a given culture by certain features. These features are called metadiscourse markers. Code glosses - a kind of metadiscourse marker - help readers to comprehend the text better. Code glosses explain, rephrase, expand, or exemplify propositional content. Overall, they reflect the writer's expectations about the audience. They include parentheses, punctuation devices, reformulators, and exemplifiers (Hyland, 2007, p.3). Although the presence and function of metadiscourse markers have been examined in a number
Columns, especially opinion columns, can be considered some of the most adequate examples of persuasive writing (Connor, 1996, as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008). By taking the importance of code glosses in newspaper genre especially the opinion column, this study attempts to contrast across English and Persian newspapers opinion columns in order to investigate their role in persuasion of their audiences.

Writers include code glosses to help decode the message, share the writer's views, and reflect the particular conventions that are followed in a given culture. They have a crucial role in the construction and attainment of persuasion (Dafouz-Milne, 2008). Dafouz-Milne (2008) studied how metadiscourse markers, both textual and interpersonal, contribute toward the overall persuasiveness of a text. Dafouz-Milne's study suffered from a number of limitations: a) the small-scale nature of the research and, b) the dynamicity and extra-textual dimension of the notion of persuasion itself. There are various extra-textual reasons that play a decisive role in the judgment of persuasion (the topic, the type of newspaper or the columnist) which were ignored by her. Also, the number of the participants who completed the questionnaire to judge on newspaper’s opinion columns was too small. Further, there is no study on code glosses in Persian newspapers, and no study has ever focused on Iranian readers' evaluation of texts which are published in newspapers. Furthermore, Persian students of English who study at university have to pass courses on journalistic texts and it is necessary for them to know the different kinds of metadiscourse markers, it seems that awareness of such devices would be of optimal importance to them.

LITRATURE REVIEW

Newspaper

Mass media is a term used to denote a section of the media specifically designed to reach a very large audience such as the population of a nation. "The mass media, which is usually understood to refer to the press, radio and television broadcasting, have become one of the most pervasive phenomenon in our culture"(Thomas & Wareing, 1999, p. 50). The mass media provide the means of access to much information and represent a potentially powerful force in a society (Thomas & Wareing, 1999).

Newspaper is a kind of mass media. Richardson (2008, p. 64) states that "journalism is best approached as an argumentative discourse genre." Newspaper discourse, and opinion column in particular, can be considered as "some of the most persuasive writing in all countries, setting standards for written persuasion" (Connor, 1996, as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008, p. 96). The newspaper serves many purposes in the modern society: It informs by supplying facts, figures, scores, prices, charts, maps, photos and illustrations; it educates by going beyond basic facts in the in-depth analysis of columns, commentaries and editorials; and it provides a print marketplace for advertisers and prospective customers.
The online and print editions of the newspaper share some defining features. First, the newspaper is made of diverse content. In addition, they feature editorials, letters to the editor, movie listing, horoscopes, comics, sports, film, interview, recipes, advice column, opinion column, classified advertisement, and a host of other material. Second, newspapers are conventionally packaged. Both the print and online versions are organized according to the content. Third, newspapers are local. Fourth, more than any other medium, the newspaper serves as a historical record, and fifth, newspapers are timely (Dominick, 2009).

Newspapers are divided into two types: Broadsheets newspapers are large-sized newspapers. Broadsheets are considered to be informative and objective, keeping news and opinion or comment firmly apart. They present the reader with serious news, which is supported with detailed and informed analysis and comment on economic, political, social, and world events. Tabloids or the popular newspapers are newspapers whose pages are about half the size of broadsheet newspapers. Typically, they have colorful front pages with many photographs and often very big headlines (Shams, 2007).

**Opinion Column**

Newspapers give their staff-members as well as their readers an opportunity to express their opinions on current events. That is, besides editorials, there are other opinion articles in newspapers. One such article is the column, which refers to a series of articles by the same person appearing on a regular basis in a newspaper and giving the person's personal opinion on different issues. Columns can be regarded as personal editorials, the purpose of which is to advise, criticize, entertain, analyze, interpret, or comment. They are views behind the news written by people who take an interest in explaining behind-the-scene events. Columns use singular voice (they use the personal "I"). The writers of columns are called columnists, who are either staff members of the newspaper or syndicated columnists, who write for different newspapers. Columnists are sometimes famous and influential, so their columns are often headed by their pictures. Each columnist has his own style. Some try to be funny; others are very serious and use a very formal style (Shams, 2007).

Opinion columns are a main type of analytical writing in newspapers. Franklin (2008, p. 70) states that "the editorial and op-ed (opposite editorial) pages are central to a newspaper's identity". Most of today's British newspapers whether quality, mid-market or tabloid, national, regional or local value and mark out as distinctive forms of opinion journalism. Comment articles are public, mass communicated types of opinion discourse which play a definitive role in the formation and alerting of public opinion, promote social interaction among journalists, readers, and the rest of participants in the language event, and influence social debate (Van Dijk, 1996). All the papers have in common the commitment to designate spaces for opinion expression (Franklin, 2008).

Opinion columns are often found on the page opposite the editorial page. The page is usually labeled *Opinion* or *comment*. Opinion columns may be found elsewhere in the newspaper as well,
especially on the page preceding the editorial page. Opinion columns might be written by columnists who are employed by the newspaper, or by guest writers who have some expertise to share or a specific argument to make (Petroce, 2008, p.1). While op-ed articles are subjective accounts, they are often perceived to carry an objective-like status; that is, they are generally, associated with the opinions of the newspaper as an elite institution, since the author is normally a recognized and regular contributor (Greenberg, 2000).

When evaluating opinion columns, readers are expected to pay attention to whether the arguments made are supported by evidence. A good writer will back up his or her arguments with examples. If there are obvious counter-arguments, these should also be addressed and dealt with (Petroce, 2008, p. 2). Opinion columns, like editorials, express an opinion; but the opinion expressed belongs solely to the column's author, not to the newspaper or to the editorial board. In fact, it is quite common for an opinion column to argue against an opinion expressed in an editorial in the same newspaper (Francis, 2007).

In order to persuade, columnists have to present the propositional material in a form that the potential audience will find most convincing and attractive; furthermore, to succeed, writers need to create a credible textual persona or ethos and develop an appropriate attitude towards their readers and the claims they present. In the construction of this textual persona, metadiscourse plays a vital role (Dafouz-Milne, 2008, p. 96).

**Audience**

In media studies audience is mostly used as a way of talking about people, either as groups or as individuals (Nightingale & Ross, 2003). All writers need to consider who they are writing for and adjust their prose to meet the needs of readers. They know that readers can always challenge arguments and reject claims and so they must present their ideas in ways that will be seen as both credible and persuasive, using the conventions of the genre to adequately engage their readers (Hyland, 2005). Essentially, writers must both present themselves as competent individuals, expressing a textual voice or community recognized personality, and engage with readers in accepted ways.

**Metadiscourse markers**

Coherence in discourse can be achieved by different means. Coherence relations that hold together different parts of the discourse are partly responsible for the perceived coherence of a text. More specifically, the recognition of coherence relations by the hearer or reader enables them to assign coherence to a text. Discourse markers guide the text receiver in the recognition of those relations (Taboada, 2006, p.507). In order to be successful, the writer needs to operate at two levels: the level of text (discourse) and the level of metatext (metadiscourse): On one level, the writer supplies information about the subject of the text. On this level he expands propositional content. On the other level, the level of metadiscourse, he does not add propositional material but helps readers organize, classify, interpret, evaluate, and react to such material. Metadiscourse marker is a kind of cohesive devices that help to establish relationships
between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Metadiscourse markers help writers shape their arguments to needs and expectations of their target readers. Metadiscourse helps organize, engage the audience, and signal the writer’s attitude. It is the author’s overt or covert presence into the discourse to inform and to shape the reader's thoughts (Crismore, 1984, p. 280).

A variety of metadiscourse taxonomies have been proposed (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Dafouz, 2003; Hyland, 1998 a; Vande Kopple, 1997) which propose different metadiscourse categories. Most of these classifications generally organize the linguistic units under the functional headings of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse. Textual metadiscourse refers to the organization of discourse, while interpersonal metadiscourse reflects the writer’s stance towards both the content in the text and the potential reader.

Textual metadiscourse consists of seven Macro-categories including: a) Logical markers express semantic and structural relationships between discourse stretches, and help readers interpret pragmatic connections by explicitly signaling additive, adversative, and conclusive relationships in the text, b) Sequencers mark particular positions in a series and serve to guide the reader in the presentation of different arguments in a particular order, c) Reminders refer back to previous sections in the text in order to retake an argument, amplify it or summarize some of the previous argumentation, d) Topicalisers explicitly indicate some type of topic shift to the reader so that the argumentation can be easily followed, e) Code glosses explain, rephrase, expand, or exemplify propositional content, f) Illocutionary markers explicitly name the act the writer perform, and g) Announcements refer forward to future sections in the text in order to persuade the reader for prospective argumentation. Interpersonal metadiscourse consists of five Macro-categories: a) Hedges refer to markers that withhold full commitment to the statements displayed in the text, b) Certainty markers express full commitment to the statements presented by the writer, c) Attributors perform a double function in the text, d) Attitude markers express the writer's affective values towards the reader and the content presented in the text, and e) Commentaries help to establish and maintain rapport with the audience by means of rhetorical questions, direct appeals, personalization, and asides.

Recently, Hyland and Tse (2004) have put forth a stronger interpersonal view on metadiscourse, claiming that all metadiscourse categories are essentially interpersonal since they need to take into account the readers’ knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs. Thus, they proposed a change in the terminology adopting Thompson's (2001) label of interactive (instead of textual) and interactional (instead of interpersonal) metadiscourse (as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008).

**Code glosses**

Code glosses help grasp functions of ideational material (Hyland, 1999; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Rahman, 2004; Vande Kopple, 1997). Code gloss signals are a crucial element of a text’s meaning as they relate a text to its context by taking readers’ needs, understandings, existing
knowledge, intertextual experiences, and relative status into account (Hyland, 2004, p. 17). They help "explain, rephrase, or exemplify textual material" (Dafouz-Milne, 2008) and are divided into four subcategories: a) Parentheses are words or phrases that are enclosed parenthetically; b) Punctuation devices refer to comma, semicolon, and colon. c) Reformulators are a discourse function whereby the second unit is a restatement or elaboration of the first in different words, to present it from a different point of view and to reinforce the message, and d) exemplifier is a communication process through which meaning is clarified or supported by a second unit which illustrates the first by citing an example (p. 98). Kumpf (2000) classified colons and parentheses as visual metadiscourse.

Reformulation is a discourse function whereby the second unit is a restatement or elaboration of the first in different words, to represent it from a different point of view and to reinforce the message. Reformulation is a "process of textual reinterpretation: the speaker or writer re-elaborates a previous fragment of discourse presenting its contents in a different way" (Cuenca & Bach, 2007, p.149). On other hand, reformulation ensures textual cohesion and at the same time facilitates discursive progression because it helps in reducing the possible communicative defects of a text, and it also makes it possible to re-elaborate the conceptual content of some statements previously presented in order to accomplish different functions (Cuenca & Bach, 2007).

Cuenca and Bach (2007) analyzed contrastively the form and use of reformulation markers in research papers written in English, Spanish, and Catalan. The corpus consisted of 395 utterances including periphrastic reformulators. The study showed interesting differences in the form and use of these markers cross-linguistically. In terms of the form and frequency of the markers, English papers used simple fixed markers and had fewer reformulators than Spanish and Catalan. On the contrary, Spanish and Catalan papers included more markers some of which were complex. The study showed that English authors usually reformulate to add more information to the concept (expansion), whereas Catalan and Spanish authors reduce the contents of the implicatures of the previous reformulation. Another finding was that some of specific and typical reformulators in Spanish and Catalan express two or even three moves in Spanish, so they tend to be more ambiguous; on the contrary, English reformulators express one move.

Exemplification is a communication process through which meaning is clarified or supported by a second unit which illustrates the first by citing an example. Lischinsky (2008) states that classical logic and rhetoric have considered examples useful for pedagogic or public debates. It is a current feature of academic writing and a central aspect of exposition, a part of the routine ways in which writers in all fields seek to make their ideas accessible and persuasive. Essentially, it is an appeal to understanding that the writer's beliefs are recoverable from the example: presenting an element of the writer's data or experience to make the abstract more concrete. Focusing on exemplifying and reformulating in academic discourse, Hyland (2007) explored how
professional academic writers monitor their texts for readers to restate information or provide examples as they construct their arguments. The disciplines were selected to allow comparisons across a range of academic knowledge and rhetorical practice, comprising mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, marketing, philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics, physics, and microbiology. The main claim of this paper was that elaboration is a complex and important rhetorical function in academic writing, and that its use varies according to discipline. The analysis showed disciplinary variations in the ways which reformulation and exemplification were expressed and the functions they served.

**Persuasion and metadiscourse**

In persuasive writing, a writer takes a position for or against an issue and writes to convince the reader to believe or do something. It is also used in essays and other types of writing to get the reader to accept a point of view. In order to convince the reader, the writer needs more than opinion; he or she needs facts or examples to back his or her opinion. The concept of persuasion has often been linked to hedging, emphatics, and metadiscourse in general. Signed or opinion articles are a subclass of persuasive texts.

According to Hyland (1998 b), metadiscourse plays an important part in displaying the writer's communicative intentions and is therefore integral to persuasive writing. He argued that metadiscourse is closely linked to the rules and expectations of a given discipline's discourse community. For example, if a researcher wants his or her arguments to appear persuasive to the readers within given academic community, the linguistic devices he or she chooses need to conform to the conventions of the discipline. Hyland points out metadiscourse in such different communities would also vary. On the basis of his findings, he argued that metadiscourse cannot be separated from its rhetorical context, and the relationship between them is indispensable for the success of academic writing. In another study focusing on expressions of evaluation and standpoint in academic writing, Silver (2003) analyzed the use of the adverbial *evidently* in American research articles published in academic journals of economics and history. He chose the genre due to its persuasive nature. According to him, academic writing essentially involves the making of arguments, or knowledge claims targeted at the discipline's discourse community, and they need to be made convincingly if the author wants his or her claims to gain the readers' support and attention. Silver's analysis of this epistemic adverbial in the context of history and economics research articles revealed that it can function both as a hedge and a booster. According to Silver, the adverbial evidently not only shows the writer's epistemic stance regarding propositions in the text studied, but it also gives an evaluation of what the discipline's value system considers as evidence.

Dafouz-Milne (2008) studied how metadiscourse markers contribute toward the overall persuasiveness of a text. The corpus in her study comprised opinion columns from two newspapers of The Times (English) and the other El País (Spanish). Within the category of interpersonal metadiscourse markers, Dafouz-Milne included the following macro-categories:
hedges, certainty markers, attributors, attitude markers, and commentaries. The results showed that hedges were the most common category of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in both British and Spanish texts. Certainty markers followed as the third most frequent type, right after attitudinal markers and before commentaries. As for the persuasive effect of the texts, the informants' answers indicated that the most persuasive texts were those that had a balanced number of both interpersonal and textual metadiscourse markers. In terms of overall intercultural differences, the Spanish texts were found to contain more textual metadiscourse markers than the English, whereas the situation was the opposite in the case of interpersonal metadiscourse, which was more abundant in the English texts. Dafouz-Milne concluded that the critical factor in producing a successfully persuasive text is to skillfully combine both expressions that weaken the argument (i.e.; hedges) and those that strengthen it (i.e.; attitudinal markers or certainty markers).

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

The current study attempts to answer the following questions:

1) To what extent are code glosses used in Persian and English opinion columns?
2) Is there any significant difference in using code glosses in Persian and English opinion columns?
3) Is the English text as well as Persian text with high degree of code glosses more persuasive than ones with medium or low degree of respective markers?

**METHODOLOGY**

The present study cast a contrastive look on code glosses in opinion columns of English and Persian newspapers in order to explore how these markers are distributed according to cross-cultural or cross-linguistic preferences and their role in the construction and attainment of persuasion.

**Participants**

The study was carried out with 60 participants of whom 30 were native speakers of English (British and Irish backgrounds) aged between 25 to 42 and the other 30 were native speakers of Persian aged between 27 to 35. The native speakers of English were accessed via e-mail, and the Persian native speakers were contacted in person. A questionnaire was originally distributed among 45 Persian native speakers and 30 were returned. The same questionnaire was sent to 50 English native speakers, but only 30 of them were returned.

**Dataset**

The corpus in this study consisted of five newspapers, three Persian newspapers (Ettelaat, Hamshahrî, and IRAN) and two English ones (New York Times and Independent) all of which were chosen because of their status and the political and rhetorical influence they exert in their respective national cultures. The opinion columns of these newspapers were the only sections that were investigated. The columns covered such topics as social and cultural, economics, and politics. Generally 240 columns were analyzed: One hundred-twenty opinion columns of the
Persian newspapers which were published during January and February 2009 and 120 opinion columns of the English newspapers published during January and February 2009 were selected. This quantity was assumed to be adequate to allow the researcher to make valid generalizations.

**Instrumentation**

This study explored the role of code glosses in the construction and attainment of persuasion and made a contrastive analysis of opinion columns in the use of code glosses as pragmatic devices in Persian and English newspapers. Dafouz-Milne taxonomy (2008) was used as the theoretical framework for the selection of these two metadiscourse devices which covers the functional division of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse. This division has offered a variety of subcategories covering both the pragmatic functions of metadiscourse markers and the linguistic devices used to carry out such functions. The taxonomy is shown in the following Tables. As mentioned before, opinion columns are a subgenre of persuasive texts (Van Dijk, 1988, as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008) and their final aim is to convince the audience by means of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers. These texts are constant in our daily lives and their mastery is necessary for literate individuals.

**Table 1: Textual Metadiscourse Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macro-category</th>
<th>subcategory</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Logical markers</td>
<td>Additive</td>
<td>and/in addition/moreover…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Express semantic</td>
<td>Adversative</td>
<td>or/however/but…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships between discourse stretches</td>
<td>Consecutive</td>
<td>so/therefore/as a consequence…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conclusive</td>
<td>finally, in any case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequencers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make particular positions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a series</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reminders</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer back to previous sections in the text</td>
<td>Let us turn to / as was mentioned before</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topicalisers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicate topic shifts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code glosses</td>
<td>Parentheses</td>
<td>in political terms / in the case of NHS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain, rephrase or</td>
<td>Punctuation devices</td>
<td>Tax evasion: it deplored in others but not in oneself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exemplify textual material</td>
<td>Reformulators</td>
<td>in other words/that is for example/for instance…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exemplifiers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illocutionary markers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicitly name the act</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the writer performs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Announcements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer forwards to future sections in the texts</td>
<td>There are many good reasons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

43
A questionnaire was also used and demanded readers to read the selected texts, and then explain their decisions by writing open comments on evaluating the selected English or Persian texts. From each dataset, three texts were selected to be evaluated by the participants. The questionnaire was loosely adapted from Connor (1987 as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008) and Connor and Lauer's (1988, p.146) model (as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008, p. 101) for persuasive writing and contained three basic criteria for evaluating persuasive effect: rational appeals, credibility appeals and affective appeals. Consequently, the number of texts for persuasion comprised three texts in Persian and three texts in English (three opinion columns of each newspapers) with different indices of code glosses.

Table 2: Interpersonal Metadiscourse Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Macro-category</th>
<th>subcategory</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td>Epistemic verbs</td>
<td>May/might</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Express partial commitment</td>
<td>Probability adverbs</td>
<td>Probably/perhaps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To the truth-value of the text</td>
<td>It is likely</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic expressions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certainty markers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Express total commitment</td>
<td></td>
<td>Undoubtedly/clearly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to the truth-value of the text</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attributors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refer to the source of the information</td>
<td>'x' claims that…</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude markers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Express writers' affective values</td>
<td>Deontic verbs</td>
<td>Have to/needs to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>towards text and readers</td>
<td>Attitudinal adverbs</td>
<td>Unfortunately/remarkingly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive verbs</td>
<td>Attitudinal adjectives</td>
<td>It is absurd/it is surprising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commentaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help to establish</td>
<td>Rhetorical questions</td>
<td>What is the future of Europe, reader-writer integration or disintegration? through the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct address to reader</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dear reader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusive expressions</td>
<td></td>
<td>We all believe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personalizations</td>
<td></td>
<td>I do not want Diana (ironically for a Spencer) was not of the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asides</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Procedure

This study was based on a sample of 240 opinion columns which were selected from five English and Persian newspapers. *Etelaat, IRAN,* and *Hamshahrani* represented the Persian newspapers and *New York Times* and *Independent* represented the English press. From each English newspaper, 60 texts were selected during two months. But, for the Persian counterparts, the first twenty
issues of each newspaper during two months were selected for the analysis. Initially the opinion columns, either obtained directly from the electronic versions of the relevant newspapers or manually, were scanned and converted into Rich Text format. Then, word count was run on the corpus to have a rough estimate of the quantity of the data. Since the columns in Persian could not be converted into Rich Text, they were counted twice manually. Next, the texts were carefully read three or four times in order to identify the linguistic signals in focus and key signals that characterize code glosses. To analyze the data quantitatively, the frequency of the code glosses was calculated. About 20 percent of the data was analyzed for the inter-rater reliability and agreement was reached accordingly. Also, for the sake of intra-rater reliability, the data was analyzed two times within about one month interval. Having analyzed the data and presenting the frequencies, in order to see if the possible differences are statistically significant, chi-square analysis was administrated.

In the second phase of the study, a questionnaire was used in order to attain persuasion on the selected informants. Since, the total corpus consisted of 240 opinion columns with various lengths, 60 texts (30 Persian texts and 30 English ones) of almost the same length were selected as original in order to select three Persian texts and three English ones from among them, and then they were arranged based on the frequency of respective metadiscourse markers. Three texts in English and three texts in Persian were selected for subsequent judgment. One text in English and one in Persian included a high proportion of metadiscourse markers; also, one with a medium proportion, and one with a low proportion from each group of texts were selected. An additional reason for reducing the original corpus was found in the principles of feasibility and availability, since informants could only analyze a limited number of texts without the task becoming too demanding.

To avoid aprioristic influences on the informants, the texts were edited, omitting the names of the authors and newspapers and the titles of the columns. The readers were given a questionnaire in order to rank the texts from 1 to 5, 1 representing the least persuasive text and 5 the most persuasive. They were also invited to explain their decisions by writing open comments. The Persian texts were sent to Iranian informants. English native speakers received the texts through three of my friends who live in America, England, and Holland. After gathering the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English texts</th>
<th>Total meta discourse</th>
<th>code glosses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text 1</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persian texts</th>
<th>Total meta discourse</th>
<th>code glosses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text 1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 3</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
questionnaires, the scores given to the questionnaires by the informants' responses were analyzed and then the raw scores of the informants were computed through the SPSS program (version 13) for data analysis. Next, to see if the possible differences are statistically significant, a $t$-test analysis was administrated. Moreover, the responses of the informants to the questions in the questionnaire were qualitatively analyzed. The possible quantitative differences between the opinion columns were also qualitatively investigated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

On a general level, the quantitative analysis reveals that English texts used more code glosses than did Persian texts (English, n=842, Persian, n=749), but their difference was statistically significant. On the whole, the statistical analysis showed that the differences between two languages were statistically significant (see Table 5).

**Table 5: Code Glosses in English and Persian Newspapers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Textual Markers</th>
<th>Word Count</th>
<th>Code Glosses (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>92,214</td>
<td>842 (0.004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>81,152</td>
<td>749 (0.9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 5.436

Critical value = 3.8415

**Code Gloses in Persian and English Newspapers**

Regarding code glosses, Results display statistically significant differences with English writers using these explanatory devices much more frequently than do their Persian counterparts. A closer examination in the subcategories of code glosses discloses that punctuation devices were the most frequently used category in both sets of groups: English (n=354) and Persian (n=225). In fact, punctuation devices were given priority by newspaper columnists in both corpora and the statistically significant difference existed here. Other categories, though not significant, exhibited some differences across the two languages. After punctuation devices, exemplifier markers ranked second with both corpora showing a very similar number. On close examination, the study reveals that expressions like *for example* (be onvane mesal) and *for instance* (baraye mesal) are the most frequent resource in both corpora. The other exemplifier markers found are *such as* (Az ghabile) and *i.e.* (Yani). Parenthesis markers occupy the third place in terms of frequency of occurrence with Persian texts and the fourth place with English counterpart: (Persian, n=162; English, n=143). Regarding reformulator markers, Persian and English writers used an almost identical number of tokens (Persian, n=151; English, n=150). Within the linguistic preferences, English columnists opt for the expression *in other words*, closely followed by *namely* and *that is* while in the Persian data, the constructions *Yani* (namely), *be ebarat digar* (in other words) dominate with 125 instances.
Table 6: Code Glosses in English and Persian Newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total logical devices markers</th>
<th>parentheses (%)</th>
<th>punctuation (%)</th>
<th>exemplifiers (%)</th>
<th>reformulators (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>143 (16.98)</td>
<td>354 (42.04)</td>
<td>195 (23.15)</td>
<td>150 (17.81)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>162 (21.62)</td>
<td>225 (30.04)</td>
<td>211 (28.17)</td>
<td>151 (20.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>1.184</td>
<td>28.741</td>
<td>0.631</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differences</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
<td>p=0</td>
<td>p&gt;0.05</td>
<td>p=0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Critical value= 3.8415

On a general level, the quantitative analysis reveals that the texts written in Hamshahri and IRAN columns used a lower number of code glosses than Ettelaat. Chi-square analysis revealed that the differences were statistically meaningful. (Ettelaat, n=477, IRAN, n=162, Hamshahri, n=110). Within the English corpus, again, code glosses appeared to be only marginally different. Table 8 exhibits the related figures.

Table 7: Code Glosses in Persian Newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Textual Markers</th>
<th>Word Count</th>
<th>Code Glosses (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hamshahri</td>
<td>18,316</td>
<td>110 (0.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRAN</td>
<td>25,403</td>
<td>162 (0.63)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ettelaat</td>
<td>37,433</td>
<td>477 (1.27)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>315,912</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Critical value= 3.8415

Table 8: Code glosses in English Newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Textual Markers</th>
<th>Word Count</th>
<th>Code Glosses (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New York times</td>
<td>40,958</td>
<td>429 (0.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>51,256</td>
<td>413 (0.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>0.304</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Persuasion in English and Persian newspapers

Comparison of the English texts on persuasive effect

Table 9 provides the information about the informants' scores on persuasion for English text one (text with high index of code glosses) and text two (text with medium index of respective markers), and text three (text with low index of respective markers). The comparison of the means of text one and text two showed text two to be more persuasive.

As it is shown in Table 9, t-observed was calculated as (-7.300) and t-critical was (1.645) at the (df = 58). Therefore t-observed was much higher than the t-critical of 1.645 at the 0.05 level of significance. So, there was a meaningful difference between the two mean scores, and the t-value confirmed that text two was more persuasive than text one. Comparison of text one and text three revealed the latter to be more persuasive. A statistical t-test was also administered. The t-value of -6.467 observed for a degree of freedom 58 was greater than the t critical value of 1.645 at the
0.05 level of significant. Therefore, there was a meaningful difference between the two mean scores, and the \( t \) value confirmed that text three was more persuasive than text one.

Comparison of the texts continued for text two and text three. As it is shown in the following Table, \( t \)-observed was calculated as (-3.013) and \( t \)-critical was (1.645) at the (df = 58). Therefore \( t \)-observed was higher than the \( t \)-critical of 1.645 at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, there was a meaningful difference between the two mean scores, and the \( t \)-value confirmed that text two was more persuasive than text three.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Texts</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>( t )-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text 1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.2333</td>
<td>0.62606</td>
<td>-7.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.4667</td>
<td>0.68145</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.2333</td>
<td>0.62606</td>
<td>-6.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.0667</td>
<td>0.25371</td>
<td>-3.013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comparison of the Persian texts on persuasive effect**

The comparison of the means of Persian text one (with low proportion of the markers) and Persian text two (medium index of the markers) revealed text two to be more persuasive. The \( t \)-value of -6.467 observed for a degree of freedom 58 was significantly above the \( t \) critical value of 1.645 at the 0.05 level of significant. Therefore, there was a meaningful difference between the two mean scores, and the \( t \) value confirmed that text two was more persuasive than text one.

Comparing the mean score of text one (text with low density of the markers) to text three (one with high density of the markers) revealed the text three was more persuasive than the text one. A statistical \( t \)-test was administered. The \( t \)-observed was calculated as (-7.603) and \( t \)-critical was (1.645) at the (df = 58). Therefore \( t \)-observed was more than the \( t \)-critical of 1.645 at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, there was a meaningful difference between the two mean scores, and the \( t \)-value confirmed that text three was more persuasive than text one.

Comparing the mean score of text two (with medium index of the markers) to mean score of text three (with high index of the respective markers) showed that text three was more persuasive than text two. The \( t \)-value of 3.008 observed for a degree of freedom 58 was significantly above the \( t \) critical value of 1.645 at the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, there was a meaningful difference between the two mean scores, and the \( t \) value confirmed that text three was more persuasive than text two. Table 10 reveals the data related to the result of the persuasion effect of Persian texts on informants.
Table 10: Results of t-test for Persian texts on persuasive effect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Texts</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text 1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.7000</td>
<td>0.70221</td>
<td>-6.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.7667</td>
<td>0.56832</td>
<td>-7.603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>1.00344</td>
<td>-3.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.7667</td>
<td>0.56832</td>
<td>3.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text 3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>1.00344</td>
<td>3.008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The qualitative analysis of the questionnaire on persuasive effect

The informants' comments on the persuasive effect were also analyzed qualitatively. The English native speakers agreed on text with medium index of examples, facts, and comparison as the most persuasive text. In addition, they remarked the use of example, facts, and comparison can be an important way to convince people better. However, Persian native speakers chose the text with high proportion of these markers as the most persuasive text. They did not write any comments on the texts, they exactly wrote the descriptions which were given for each number in the questionnaire.

In general, there was a meaningful difference among English texts with different proportions of code glosses. The English native speakers chose the text with moderate index of discourse markers as more persuasive, followed by text with a high number of these markers. Text with a low index of discourse markers was considered as less persuasive by the English informants. These findings show that the English and Persian texts with high degree of code glosses are not more persuasive than the ones with medium or low degree of code glosses. These findings were in line with Dafouz-Milne's (2008) study. On the contrary, the Iranian informants chose the text with high density of code glosses as the most persuasive text, leaving texts with medium and low proportions of these markers in second and third places of persuasiveness. As a result, for Iranian readers, the higher degree of code glosses, the more persuasive the text will be. These findings contradict Dafouz-Milne's (2008) study in which the Spanish and English informants of her study chose the texts with a medium proportion of metadiscourse markers as more persuasive texts.

It can be concluded that circumlocution is a current figure of speech in Persian literature and one part of the circumlocution is redundancy, which seems it uses much more in Persian literature. In fact, redundancy is part of the aremonial feature of Persian. It seems Iranian people use redundancy in their speech and extend it to their writing. They used to talk much more around a topic and think by more explanation, they can convince the others better. In addition, the use of redundancy has become a habit in their daily life. In the following paragraph which is extracted from the data, the author used redundant phrases whose omissions may not cause any problem in comprehending the text. On the other hand, it seems English native speakers use conciseness in their writing.
CONCLUSION
This study has presented quantitative and qualitative research on the presence and persuasive function of code glosses in a corpus of Persian and English opinion columns. Regarding similarities, the study reveals that code glosses are present in the English and Persian texts. As Dafouz-Milne (2008) states that these similarities can be attributed to the newspaper-genre characteristics of opinion columns that seem to contribute to the national culture and exhibit certain uniformity across languages. Concerning differences, this study suggests that there is some variation across languages in the construction of opinion columns. For instance, the findings show that English authors use more code glosses than Persian writers. It is worth to note that English writers know that these texts address fairly broad audiences and also they are aware that these texts should include some explicit reading cues and examples in order to help audience to comprehend as intended.

As regards the analysis of persuasion, the findings suggested that texts with a balanced number of code glosses items were considered as the most persuasive by our informants, followed by texts with a high number of these markers. The texts considered to be less persuasive of all by our English informants were those with a low index of metadiscourse markers. On the contrary, Persian informants chose the text with high degree of respective markers as the most persuasive one. Texts with medium and low degrees of these markers occupied the second and third places of persuasiveness. In other words, it seems that our readers highly value texts that guide and show consideration towards the audience, by establishing a dialogic tenor without resulting too assertive or patronising.

The results gained from the present study are useful for columnists. In order to convince their audience, columnists should present the propositional material in a way that the audience find more convincing. Metadiscourse markers, especially code glosses can be useful in this way. Also, they should consider the following things when they write an opinion column: 1) Think about their audience. If they are trying to engage the public with new or interesting ideas, make sure they are connecting with the appropriate readers. 2) Do not assume everyone thinks like them. If you assume “everyone knows” something, then you are marginalizing people who may not know. This is your opinion. Stating it as fact limits your credibility. 3) Do not be formulaic. Read, listen and watch to make sure your opinion is relevant. There are many common topics that are stables to the opinion page, and it can be difficult not to regurgitate other people’s opinions. What is their angle? What makes their opinion more interesting than those we have heard before? 4) Be (a little bit) humble. Be willing to be corrected with an argument as equally substantiated as your own. The opinion page creates a dialog with an extensive and sometimes unexpected audience. If your writing employs grandiose statements, generalizations and crass language, you can respect the same attitude in return. 5) Don't be too humble. This is your opinion, and you chose to share it for a reason. If you seem halfhearted or unsure, it will be immediately obvious to the reader and you will have a hard time persuading them, Francis (2007).

The results of the study are useful for newspaper editors, because it makes them devote more
spaces to opinion columns to convince the audiences better. There are some important limitations in this study: a) the number of English and Persian newspapers was not equal, initially, three English newspapers (Independent, New York Times, and Washington Post) and three Persian newspapers (Iran. Hamshahri, and Ettelaat) were chosen, but because of the presidential elections, the link of Washington Post was cut, and I had to compare two English newspapers with three Persian ones. b). The second limitation was the difficult access to the English native speaker. The other limitation was the dynamicity of dimension of the notion of persuasion itself (Dafouz- Milne, 2008).

There are various textual reasons which were not analyzed in this study that play a decisive role in the judgment of persuasion (the topic, the type of newspaper, the number of newspaper, and the columnist). Thus, further studies could offer more insights into persuasion by using a larger corpus, focusing on different disciplines and genres and this may be involve other subjects. For example it would be interesting to contrast English teachers' and students' evaluations with that of Persian teachers' and students' evaluations in order to understand whether their view of persuasive text turns to be the same. There were some important limitations in this study: a) the number of English and Persian newspapers was not equal, initially, three English newspapers (Independent, New York Times, and Washington Post) and three Persian newspapers (Iran. Hamshahri, and Ettelaat) were chosen, but because of the presidential elections, access to the link of Washington Post was not possible, two English newspapers were compared with three Persian ones. b) The other limitation was the dynamicity of the notion of persuasion itself (Dafouz-Milne, 2008).

REFERENCES

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THE GENERALIZATION OF RELATIVE CLAUSE INSTRUCTION IN THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT
The experimental study intended to test the generalization of instruction of one form of relative clause to others in learning English as a foreign language. 150 students were given a pre-test of combining eighteen pairs of sentences, attaching the second sentence as a relative clause to the first one. After scoring the pre-test, chosen from Eckman's paper(1988) consisted of a sentence combining task which was to be preformed on eighteen pairs of sentences and the eighteen questions on the pre-test contain three pairs of sentences which are to be combined into resultant sentences containing a relativized subject, three into sentences with a relativized indirect object, and so on, 60 students who were found to have no knowledge of relative clauses in English were randomly assigned to four equal groups, three of which served as experimental groups and one as the control group. Each experimental group was given instruction on a particular type of relative clauses. The subjects were then given a post-test( chosen from Eckman's paper(1988). The task in the post-test was the same as in the pre-test but sentences were different to reduce the effect of the pre-test performance on the post-test performance. From the results of the experiment, it is argued that maximal generalization of learning takes place from structures which are typologically more marked to those structures which are typologically less marked, and not the reverse. Some implications of this interpretation are discussed.

KEYWORDS: Accessibility Hierarchy; Markedness Differential Hypothesis; Generalization Strategy

INTRODUCTION
The theory of language universals maintains that certain linguistic features are present in all world's languages. Universal grammar consists of a highly structured and restrictive system of principles. Associated with some of these principles are certain possibilities of variations, called parameters. As these parameters are fixed, a grammar is determined (core grammar), so that it can tell what languages have in common. These common features are known as statistical universal since they are established statistically by looking at as many languages as possible. An example is relative clauses (RC), one type of dependent clauses introduced by a relative pronoun referring to the main noun the clause depends upon. Keenan and Comrie (1977) found out interesting similarities in how languages combine main and relative clauses together. These
similarities depended on the kind of word in the RC that was used as a link to the main clause. This concept was called the Accessibility Hierarchy (AH). Six types of RCs make up the AH. They can be thought of simply as types 1 to 6:

*Type 1. Subjects Clause:* "The man who left was John."
*Type 2. Object clause:* "The car that he crashed was John's."
*Type 3. Indirect object clause:* "The person that he gave the cheque was John."
*Type 4. Object of preposition clause:* "The person to whom he gave the cheque was John."
*Type 5. Possessive clause:* "The man whose book I borrowed was John."
*Type 6. Object of comparison clause:* "The man than whom I am taller is John."

Complex structures in general and RCs in particular have been the target of several studies. These structures are revealing in the sense that they open new horizons to psycholinguistic research.

From their study of RC construction in a wide range of languages, about fifty of grammatical relations out of which relativization could take place. The proposed universal order which was labeled the AH was as follows:

\[
\text{SU} > \text{DO} > \text{IO} > \text{OBL} > \text{GEN} > \text{OCOMP}
\]
Subject  direct object indirect object  oblique  genitive  object of complement

According to this hierarchy it is easier to relativize subjects than relativizing other positons. By the same taken direct objects are easier to relativize than indirect objects and the pattern continues in the same way.

Eckman (1977) believed that different strategies used in the acquisition and comprehension of RCs may be due to some other factors such as the degree of difficulty of the aspects of the target language. Considering the assumption that human beings will learn to do things which are less difficult before they learn to do related things which are more difficult, he proposed the idea of markedness differential hypothesis (MDH). More importantly, however, the MDH suggests that it is the most marked aspects of a target language from which it should be possible for a learner to gain maximal generalization of his/her learning.

**The Significance of the Study**

Considering the grammatical and semantic functions of the RCs, the understanding of the relationship between words and the semantically defining or describing role of RCs for their antecedent nouns helps the students to interpret a text meaningfully. Naturally this will promote both the productive and receptive skills of the learners. So the acquisition of English grammar and RCs as one of its major components can be taken as a requirement for the development of all four skills in those students learning English as a second/foreign language.

For the successful teaching of RCs to students of English as a foreign language, teachers should come to an understanding of the processes involved in acquiring them. Generalization hypothesis proposed by Gass (1981,1982) which is a strategy applied by EFL and ESL students in the
acquisition of RCs can reduce the amount of time required to teach 6 types of RCs. Considering time as an important factor in the acquisition of English, teachers can take advantages of the process.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The question whether there is a natural route to language development or whether syntactic structures are acquired in a fixed sequence by children and adults has occupied the minds of many researchers (Krashen 1981, Cook 1985, Comrie 1981, Brown 2007). This question has arisen as a result of such a theory as nativism which is based on the assumption that in the languages of the world the possible grammars are limited by an innately determined set of schemata that result from the biological composition of the human mind. Burns and Richards (2012) argues that certain linguistic forms are more accessible or more salient to the child than others. Thus some structures are learnt sooner than others in a predictable way. This very predictability has provoked a lot of research in the area of first and second language acquisition.

Gass (1979) found that the difficulty for the EFL learners indeed seemed to follow the hierarchy with type 1 as the easiest type and type 6 as the most difficult, regardless of the learners first language. There were one major exception: type 5 (possessive clauses) was much easier than expected, coming between types 1 and 2 in term of difficulty, rather than after type 4. Data on English RC’s were gathered from 17 high intermediate and advanced about L2 learners enrolled in an English language training program at Indian University. The nine native languages of these learners were: Arabic, Chinese, French, Italian, Korean, Persian, Portuguese, Japanese and Thai. Her study also suggested that the areas of difficulty for these groups could be predicted on the basis of universal properties of RC’s rather than the basis of language specific properties.

Eckman and his colleagues (1988) divided thirty-six EFL students who were enrolled in English as a second language intensive program at the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee into four groups. All the students were from intermediate or low-intermediate proficiency levels. Each of the subjects was given a written pre-test consisting of a sentence combining task which was to be preformed on twenty-one pairs of sentences. Following the pre-test and the grouping, each group of students received instruction on relative clauses for one class hour. The first group received instruction on only subject relatives, the second on only direct object relatives, and the third group on only object of preposition relatives. The fourth group, the control group, received instruction on sentence combining techniques not related to relative clauses.

Two days after the instruction, the subjects were given the post-test. The results of the analysis of the post-test scores indicate that the group which scored the best was the one trained on the object of a preposition, with the object group next, subject group next, and control group last.

Nicholas (1995) pointed out that terrestrial languages follow the pattern of generalization presented by Eckman (1988) for the heads of RCs, first subjects, then direct objects, followed in order by indirect objects, possessors, and comparatives.
Cheung (2002) investigated the development of relative clauses in the interlanguage of native Cantonese learners of English within the framework of Keenan and Comrie's Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (1977, 1979). He also distinguished the features of Cantonese-English interlanguage which may be attributed to language transfer from those which may be considered as universal to second language acquisition.

As observed by Keenan and Hawkins (1987) on English newspaper texts, subject relative pronouns are much more common than direct object ones, themselves being more common than indirect object ones (which confirms Keenan and Comrie's Accessibility Hierarchy). For French relatives, Abeille et al (2002) presented the following results:

Relative pronouns: subject (qui without prep): 6291 (61%); direct object (que, qu'): 1565 (1, 2%);

genitive (dont): 1076 (10, 4%); locative (ou'): 782 (7, 6%); indirect object (prep + qui, quoi, lequel): 539 (5, 2%); others (0, 3%). Works on eye movement and understanding rates by Holmes and O'Regan (1981) have shown that que relative clauses are more difficult to process than qui relative ones. Their relative frequencies offer confirmation of this result and call for new experiments involving genitive relative clauses. They have presented that, contrary to English, French relative clauses tend to be attached high (on the first N in a N1 prep (det) N2 sequences), but that the preference is reverse for short relative clauses. Searching their corpus (where relative clauses, like all clauses, tend to be long, with an average of 11 words), they have found a similar preference: 52% relative clauses attach on the first N, in contexts where another N is a structural candidate, and the proportion is reverse for short relative clauses (length less than 6 words): 43%.

Herrman (2005) compared RCs occurring in different dialects of Britain, including the Celtic varieties of Scottish and Irish English. After checking cognitive hierarchies and theories such as Keenan and Comrie's AH (1977, 1979), he gave an overview of RCs in different regions of Britain without making any attempt at drawing another dialect map. Finally, he concluded that all the compared British dialects follow the AH.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

It has been argued that in the application of the generalization strategy, learners generalize the structure to other related structures when they are taught only some particular ones. This study determines whether Iranian students who are taught some types of RCs can generalize them to the others which they are not taught and whether such generalization, if any, follows a predictable pattern.

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study comprise 60 Iranian adolescents who were selected from among 150 females attending a foreign language center called Iran Language Institute. To feel firmly confident that the Ss had not received any instruction on the RCs before the study, the researcher gave them a written pre-test consisting of a sentence combining task. The Ss were asked to
combine eighteen pairs of sentences, attaching the second sentence as a RC to the first one. After scoring the pre-test sixty Ss who were found to have no knowledge of RCs in English were sampled as the Ss of the present study.

**Instrumentation**

**Pre-test**

The pre-test (Eckman 1988) given to the Ss consisted of a sentence combining task which was to be preformed on eighteen pairs of sentences. The eighteen questions on the pre-test contain three pairs of sentences which are to be combined into resultant sentences containing a relativized subject, three into sentences with a relativized indirect object, and so on. Therefore, for each type of relative into sentences with a relativized direct object, three clauses (6 types), three pairs of sentences were used. The different pairs of sentences were randomly ordered in the test booklet.

**Post-test**

Five days after the second session of the instruction, the subjects were given the post-test under exactly the same conditions as the pre-test (Eckman 1988). The task in the post-test was the same as in the pre-test but sentences were different to reduce the effect of the pre-test performance on the post-test performance. Because the time interval couldn’t make the researcher feel fairly confident that pre-test would have little or no effect, two different but parallel tests were administered as pre- and post-tests.

In order to find out whether the two tests are parallel, a pilot study was conducted with 20 Ss learning English in Shiraz Language Institute. Both tests were administered at the same time then each of them was scored. The mean of each set of scores was computed and a matched (paired) t-test was used to compare the means. The observed value of t was -0.24 which was not statistically significant at p< .0001. The results of the t-test was shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: the t-test for equality of means.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test Post-test 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Levene's test for equality of variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene’s test for equality of variances, F, which is the ratio of the variances of the two exams was shown in Table 2. The ratio of .98 was not statistically significant at P&lt; .0001.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Equal Variances assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equall Variances not assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reliability of the tests was calculated by using the Kuder-Richardson formula 20, also referred to as Cronbach’s Alpha. A measure of .94 was obtained for the reliability which was
significant at P< .0001. The tests were considered to be content valid by the advisor because the
content of them was selected appropriately to correspond to the content of the materials to be
tested and they were aimed at measuring the appropriate level of the Ss’ learning.

Scoring
Each of the pre and post-tests was scored on the basis of whether or not the students
produced the correct target sentence. Only errors relevant to the formation of the target
relative clause were counted. In fact, most of the errors did not involve miscombinations;
rather, the majority of errors involved the structure of the relative clause itself. Since
multiple errors on one sentence weren't counted, the maximum number of errors that any subject
could make on either the pre- or post- test was 18.

Procedure
After the pre-test was administered, the sixty subjects were randomly assigned to four
groups (three experimental groups and one control group). Each group consisted of fifteen
subjects. After grouping, each group received some instruction for two sessions as follows: the
first group received instruction on subject and direct object relatives, types 1 and 2, the
second on indirect object and object of preposition relatives, types 3 and 4, the third
group on possessive and object of comparison clauses, types 5 and 6. The fourth group,
the control group, was given a placebo lesson on sentence combining techniques that was
not relevant to relative clauses. Each group was given a brief explanation on modifiers and
told that they were going to be shown a technique for combining sentences or ideas using one
sentence to modify or further describe another. The students in each of the three groups were told
that for the purpose of that lesson they would be using the second idea (sentence) to modify the
first, and that it would have to be slightly changed in order to become part of the first sentence.
Part of the change would be to add a marker, that (for people and things), which (for things),
who/whom (for people). Then, in each of the classes, the teacher proceeded to write out quickly
on the board pairs of short sentences and a simple sketch illustrating each. These pairs were
interrelated and told a short story. These pairs of sentences were controlled so that those used
with the first group of students were appropriate for subject and direct object relativization, those
used with the second group were appropriate for indirect object and object of preposition
relativization, and those with the third group for possessive and object of comparison
relativization. Thus for each of the groups, all instruction and examples centered around only two
relative clauses types. The students were then instructed to find the phrases in each sentence pair
that referred to the same person or thing. They were shown how to substitute a marker for the
second co-referential element and move the now-changed second sentence to the correct position
in the first.

At this point in each class the students then did an oral exercise in which they listened to seven or
eight pairs of sentences, again telling a story (a new story). They were instructed to repeat each
sentence pair, first mentally combining them with a relative clause structure as they had just done
with the sentences on the board. Again the sentences were controlled so that the students were
working only with the relative clause types that were the focus of their group.
The third activity for each class was a written exercise. The students were again given pairs of sentences—another story—and instructed to rewrite each pair, putting the second sentence inside the first as a modifier. This was done individually, with the teacher walking around checking for problems and re-instructing when necessary. The sentences used in all three groups centered around the same stories, ensuring that the lexical content for the groups was nearly identical. The time interval, the teacher, and the method of the instruction for all groups were completely the same. They differed only according to whether the relative clauses that were to be formed involved the specific types of relative clauses which were instructed.

The subjects were given the post-test under exactly the same conditions as the pre-test five days after the second session of instruction. The task in the post-test was the same as in the pre-test but sentences were different to reduce the effect of the pre-test performance on the post-test performance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After scoring, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the differences between the pre and the post-tests (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III sum of square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected model</td>
<td>1868.387</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>467.097</td>
<td>140.798</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>2165.491</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2165.491</td>
<td>652.748</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRE</td>
<td>41.537</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>41.537</td>
<td>12.521</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>1827.194</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>609.065</td>
<td>183.591</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>182.463</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.318</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6437.000</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected total</td>
<td>2050.850</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P < .05

Table 3, the ANOVA table, summarized the estimates of populations $\sigma^2$ such as $S_{with.in}^2$ and $S_{between}^2$. Then a common-sense understanding of ANOVA, the comparison of the two estimates was presented as $F$ value. As shown in the table, pre-test was a source of variance in the study and the difference between the pre-test and the post-test was significant at the 0.05 level because the $F$ value was high enough that the null hypothesis can be rejected safely (12.521 > 2.78). The four groups were considered as another source of variance. Referring to table 7 and $F$ -distribution table, the difference between the groups in the post-test, the dependent variable, was
statistically significant too (183.591 > 2.78). Table 4 displays the results of the ANOVA conducted on the information of table 3. The MS (mean square) column gave the researcher the two variance figures, the MSB and the MSW, which made up the F-ratio. The degrees of freedom were given. The SS (sum of squares) column is the variability found between groups and within groups before they were divided by their respective degrees of freedom. The observed value of $F$ was compared with its critical value in the $F$-ratio table and it was concluded that the two estimates, $S^2_{within}$ and $S^2_{between}$, were not the same so there was treatment effect in the study (172.006 > 2.78).

**Table 4: The analysis of variance on pre-and post-test differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1828.183</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>609.394</td>
<td>172.006</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>198.400</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.543</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2026.583</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P &lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After analyzing the answers for each of the areas searched for in the study, the final results were recorded in tables 5 and 6.

**Table 5: Test of Between-Subject Effect**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III sum of square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected model</td>
<td>1868.387</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>467.097</td>
<td>140.798</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>2165.491</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2165.491</td>
<td>652.748</td>
<td>0.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Error</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6437.000</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected total</td>
<td>2050.850</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P &lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6: The Analysis of Variance on Pre and Post-test Differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>sum of square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1828.183</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>606.394</td>
<td>172.006</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>198.400</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>3.543</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2026.583</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P &lt; .05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the tables, pre-test was a source of variance in the study and the difference between the pre and post-tests were significant at the 0.05 level because the $F$ value was high enough that the null hypothesis can be rejected safely (12.521 > 2.78). As the results of the study of Eckman...
and his colleagues (1998), Cheung (2002), and Herrman (2005) indicated, the present study also found out that the difficulty for EFL learners indeed followed the AH proposed by Keenan and Comrie (1977) regardless of the learners' first language. But the exception of Grass's study (1979), type 5 coming between types 1 and 2 rather than after 4, was not observed in the present study.

The 4 groups were considered as another source of variance. Referring to table 3 and F-distribution table, the difference between the groups in the post-test, the dependent variable, was statistically significant too (183.591 >2.78). The MS (mean square) column gave the researcher the 2 variance figures, the MSB and the MSW, which made the F-ratio. The observed value of F was compared with its critical value in the F-ratio table and it was concluded that there was treatment effect in the study (127.006 >2.78). The results of the present paper support the idea of Burns and Richard (2012) that some structures are learnt sooner and easier than the others in a predictable way (Table 6). Also, the difficulty for the EFL learners to learn six types of relative clauses seems to follow a predictable pattern found by Gass (1979). He proved that there was a major exception in the hierarchy of learning relative clauses: type 5 (possessive clause) came between type 1 and 2 in terms of difficulty; however, the results of the current study indicated that Iranian students followed the exact accessibility hierarchy found by Eckman and his colleagues (1988).

CONCLUSION
The result of the study supported the hypothesis that the structure from which one will obtain maximal generalization is the relatively more marked structure than the less marked structure. Thus if one were forced to choose only one RC structure to teach, the structure must be the most marked one, type 6. But it would be incorrect to conclude, on the basis of the results of the present study alone, that the best way to teach RCs is to give instruction of only the most marked structure, that is object of comparison clause.

Moreover, structures should be graded in accordance with the Accessibility Hierarchy of Keenan and Comrie (1979) by authors when they are writing a textbook. The difficulty orders found in this piece of research, confirm the hierarchy found by the above-mentioned authors: subjects are more accessible than objects. Regarding this fact, textbook writers and teachers should provide students, particularly, at the lowest level, with more exercises on complex structures, if any to be used, whose head NPs stand at the lowest level of the Accessibility Hierarchy. Gaining this amount of knowledge from this study, teachers may design their courses and present their material in a more effective way.

Limitations of the Study
The results and findings of the study have methodological implications for further research examining L2 learning. To replicate the current paper, one may add other independent variables such as gender or age which were two limitations of the study. And then test for significance of each factor. Also the interaction of independent variables may be looked to find out which factor has the main effects and consequently is the most important one.
REFERENCES
The COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF USING LABEL EXTENDING, SUMMARIZING, AND STRIP STORY ARRANGEMENT TASKS ON EFL LEARNERS’ VOCABULARY RETENTION

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Islamic Azad university of Central Tehran Branch
Elham fallah 1984 @ gmail.com

ABSTRACT
The purpose of the present study was to examine the impact of three different story making tasks (label Extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement) on elementary English as a foreign language (EFL) Learners’ vocabulary retention. The participants of this study were 120 EFL learners who were selected from among 12 classes in a branch of Kish language school in Chalous based on their performances on Nelson. The participants were then divided into three experimental groups. One experimental group known as label extending was supposed to make a story based on a picture and a prompt sentence, another experimental group known as summarizing group was supposed to summarize a given story and finally the third experimental group known as strip story arrangement group was supposed to arrange a strip story. All the three experimental groups had to use the newly taught words in their final written drafts. All the participants took part in vocabulary retention post test after the treatment. The three groups’ performances on the post test were compared by one-way ANOVA and the results confirmed that there was not any significant difference among the effects of using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention. This study is of educational value to the teachers in terms of focusing on students’ collaboration and creativity in the classroom and shifting the attention from teacher-centered activities to learner-centered ones.

KEYWORDS
Label extending task, strip story task, summarizing task, vocabulary retention

INTRODUCTION
Candlin (1988) viewed vocabulary as an important component in language teaching in terms of organization of syllabuses, the evaluation of learner performance, and the provision of acquisition resources. Furthermore, vocabulary acquisition is crucial to students’ traditional language skills. Without enough vocabulary, listening, reading comprehension, and writing are inefficient. As Wilson (1986) mentioned, without grammar very little can be conveyed; however, nothing can be conveyed without vocabulary.

According to Ellis (1997), Knowing the words in a piece of discourse facilitates understanding which in turn allows the grammatical patterning to become more transparent. Ellis (1994) has
noted that lexical errors impede comprehension more than grammatical errors and that native-speaker judges lexical errors as more serious. Reading stories is a way of teaching EFL vocabulary. Garvie (1990) refers to the eloquent witness to the importance accorded to stories. Wodinsky and Nation (1988) investigated the potential contribution that graded readers could make to vocabulary learning and suggest that future research should be done to test to see if such learning and coping actually occurs and what factors influence learning. Different studies have been done on the effects of different types of story making on vocabulary retention; however, the comparative effect of using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention (in a written form) seems not to have been investigated before.

The usual approach to vocabulary learning is to present students with a list of words to be mastered, then present them in the context of a text, and then provide exercises to "reinforce" the vocabulary. Research, however, tells us that a great deal of vocabulary acquisition can take place through story hearing, read-alouds, and pleasure reading (Cho & Choi, 2008; Elley, 1991; Krashen, 2004; Mason & Krashen, 2004; Vivas, 1996; Wang & Lee, 2007). The goal of the previous related studies is to determine whether and how much vocabulary can be gained without presenting students with a list of words, and without supplementary exercises, using a method in which target words are presented in the context of a story.

In the present study, using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks may enable new information to be more processed and then retained for a longer time than any other activities designed to achieve the same objective. It also requires all students to use their creativity in label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks by catering for their self-esteem (e.g. by indicating that their participation is worthy).

Moreover, incorporating different story making tasks in the classroom in a cooperative form can shift the focus from teacher-centered activities to learner-centered ones. Besides, making stories encourages students to use their imaginations. Developing the imagination can empower the students to consider new and inventive ideas. It can also contribute to self-confidence and personal motivation as students envision themselves competent and able to accomplish their hopes and dreams. The results of this study may verify whether Iranian EFL learners are able to retain new vocabularies more efficiently by making stories.

The vocabulary of any language is huge, and its acquisition takes time, even for native speakers. From one point of view, vocabulary learning is quite simple. Teachers have to ensure that learners know the basics of the target language, its grammar, phonetics, spelling and vocabulary. Once this threshold is reached, learners are sufficiently autonomous to expand their vocabulary by wide reading, as the learner can take a new text and find it comprehensible and interesting. In this chapter, the review of the issues related to the topic is given under two main sections: the theoretical review of the concepts and definitions, and the practical review of some studies related to the topic of the present study.
What Does It Mean to Know a Word?

According to Simpson and Nist (1997) knowing a word means understanding a word upon recognition and providing appropriate and precise definition that fits the context. They likened knowing a word to an iceberg and believed that memorized definition is often located on the tip of the iceberg. Beneath the surface of the water is a much larger mass of ice which is more important and constructs the underlying proficiency.

Over the years lexical researchers have developed various criteria for understanding what is involved in knowing a word. An early definition divided vocabulary knowledge into two main categories: knowledge of word meaning (generalization, breadth of meaning, precision of meaning) and levels of accessibility to this knowledge (availability and application).

The Historical View Toward Vocabulary

One of the first aspects of the oral approach to receive attention was the role of vocabulary. Several large-scale investigations of foreign language vocabulary were undertaken in the 1920s and 1930s. This has led to the development of principles of vocabulary control, which were very influential in the teaching of English in following decades.

According to Celce-Murcia (2001), in past years vocabulary teaching received less attention because it was thought that vocabulary could simply be left to take care of itself. In the late 1970s and early 1980s and by the late 1980s and early 1990s, vocabulary studies were developing exponentially and vocabulary teaching was coming into its own.

Categorization

Most models of lexical knowledge distinguish between passive/receptive and active/productive vocabularies. Laufer and Nation (2001) proposed the first version of a measure of passive vocabulary fluency, the VORST (vocabulary recognition speed test). Using the VORST, they examined the relationship between fluency and vocabulary knowledge reflected in the passive vocabulary size score, and also the relationship between fluency and frequency of words being accessed.

Implicit and Explicit Learning in Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

If vocabulary learning requires a precise and effortful coordination of form and meaning, it may not optimally occur with an activity like extensive reading that allows the reader to bypass such precision and effort. Learner attention is another crucial variable. In incidental vocabulary acquisition, the learner’s attention is focused primarily on communicative meaning, not on form. Krashen’s input hypothesis strongly claims that acquisition occurs only when the learner’s attention is focused on meaning. According to Ellis (1995) Vocabulary learning requires attention to both meaning and form.

Story Telling

In order to provide successful language learning, Pesola (1991, p. 340) suggested that storytelling is “one of the most powerful tools for surrounding the young learner with language”. Including storytelling in the curriculum can improve the level of learning in these four language skills
In addition, storytelling is a creative art form that has entertained and informed across centuries and cultures, and its instructional potential continues to serve teachers. According to Isbell (2002), many stories that work well with children include repetitive phrases, unique words, and enticing description. As Morrow (2001) has pointed out, story recall allows children to revisit the tale and refine their understanding. It helps children develop concepts about words, print, and books as well as assessing students’ current language levels. According to McGee and Richgels (2000), story recall provides children with the opportunity to reorganize the sequence of events, to use the vocabulary of the story and to expand children’s comprehension of the world as well.

**Application of Stories in Teaching Methodologies**
The use of literature to teach second/foreign languages can be traced back to over one century ago. In the nineteenth century, second/foreign languages were taught with the help of the Grammar Translation Method. However, in the seventies, methods such as the Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and the Natural Approach did not utilize literature to teach second/foreign languages, and neither did the Notional-Functional Syllabus.

Instructors have realized that literature can be used to reinforce the skills and complement language teaching. Moreover, students can gain insight into literature by gaining entrance to a world familiar or unfamiliar to them due to the cultural aspects of stories, and taking a voyage from the literary text to their own minds to find meanings for ideas, leading to critical thinking.

**Benefits of Short Stories**
Researchers who advocate the use of short stories to teach ESL/EFL list several benefits of short stories. These include motivational, literary, cultural and higher-order thinking benefits.

**Practical Review**
In this section, some related studies conducted by different scholars are stated.

Yang, Chi Cheung Ruby (2009) conducted a case study of the use of short stories in a junior secondary ESL classroom in Hong Kong in a small class of 20 junior secondary school students in order to investigate if they become more interested and more confident in English by using short stories. The findings showed that using short stories can make students interested in learning English if interesting stories are selected and if they the language used meets the level of the students.

In another study, Ramirez and Belmonte (2007) examined the effects of using digital stories to improve listening comprehension with 220 six-year-old Spanish learners of English. Findings of the study were in favor of the experimental group. The result of the study raised interesting issues related to the use of technology in the context of foreign language learning.
RESEARCH QUESTION
To fulfill the purpose of the present study which was to see whether there were any significant
differences between using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks on
EFL learners’ vocabulary retention. The following question was raised:

Is there any significant difference among the effects of label extending, summarizing, and strip
story arrangement tasks on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention?

METHODOLOGY
In this section, the participants, instrumentation, procedure, design, and statistical analyses will
be described.

Participants
In this research, 91 out of 120 elementary students from Kish language center located in Chalous
were randomly selected through a homogenizing test of Nelson 050D after being piloted with 43
subjects with the same characteristics. The main participants’ scores fell one standard deviation
above and below the mean. They were almost equally divided into three experimental groups in
the form of three intact classes.

The participants’ age range was between 18 to 22, and all of them had already covered the basic
levels of the book series “Total English”. The participants’ English learning experience was at
least one year. They had English classes for six hours per week.

Instrumentation
The instruments used in this study are sequenced as follows:
1. A homogenizing test of Nelson
2. Vocabulary retention post test (Achievement test)
3. Instructional materials (both in written and pictorial forms)
4. Written tasks

Procedure
The procedure of the study is sequenced as follows:
1. The homogenization test of Nelson 050D was piloted with 43 subjects who had the same
characteristics as the other subjects of the study (all of them were elementary female). This test
was given to the subjects in order to measure its reliability and have a ruler to choose the
participants of the main study. It involved 50 multiple choice grammar items and the time
allocated to it was 35 minutes. Each item was weighed by a single credit with no negative points
for wrong answers. The reliability of the nelson was 0.895. No items were discarded. The mean
and standard deviation of the pilot group was calculated (mean= 27.3953; SD=9.2147).

2. After piloting the Nelson test, it was given to 120 participants at the beginning of the
course in order to choose the participants of the main study. The time allocated to this test was 35
minutes and was in the form of 50 multiple-choice grammar questions. Each item was weighed
by a single credit with no negative points for wrong answers. The reliability of the Nelson test was 0.718. Besides the mean and standard deviation were calculated (mean = 28.1750, SD = 6.9749). Those students who fell one SD below and above the mean and who turned out to be 91 were considered as the main participants of the study. Then a teacher-made vocabulary test involving 70 items on the new words from the books “Steps to Understanding English” and “Anecdotes in American English” written by L.A. Hill which were used as the materials for treatment was given to the 91 participants who fell one standard deviation above and below the mean based on the Nelson test in order to establish that the 70 new vocabularies were unknown to the students. When a participant wrote the exact synonym or definition for each vocabulary, that item would be omitted from the test. The time allocated to this test was 35 minutes and it was administered to the participants two days after the administration of Nelson test. Each item was weighed by a single credit with no negative point for wrong answers. The researcher omitted 10 items from the test. The 91 participants were then divided into three experimental groups.

3. In the treatment stage, three different story making tasks including label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement were practiced in the three experimental groups. In all experimental groups, each session started as follows:

First of all the students were taught 60 new words in twelve sessions and in one semester. The teacher used to write some new words on the board for each session. She had to teach some aspects of the words including parts of speech, pronunciation, and synonyms. She also had to elicit some sentences which contained the new vocabularies from the students to make sure that all the subjects had grasped the required information related to the vocabularies. Then she moved to the second stage which was in fact the dividing point of the three experimental groups. In one experimental group namely, strip story arrangement group, the teacher used to split some sequenced sentences of a story which involved the new vocabularies already taught to the participants and wrote them on the board then asked the subjects to rearrange them in their personal drafts.

In another experimental group namely label extending group, instead of providing a split story, the teacher used to stick a picture illustrating a scene of funny characters on the board and provided a prompting sentence of a story then asked the participants to continue the story based on the new words they were taught some minutes before. Finally in the third experimental group namely summarizing group, the teacher asked the participants to summarize a short story including the same new vocabularies. In all three groups, the students were allowed to work collaboratively during the process of doing the tasks for the sake of removing the boredom, but they had to do the final job individually. They also received feedback on their final drafts by the teacher.

4. Finally, a vocabulary retention post test was given to the students one week after the end of the course.

The post test included 60 items on the new words covered during the course. This test was exactly the same teacher made vocabulary test minus the 10 known vocabularies. The means of
the post tests of the three experimental groups were compared together to reject or maintain the null hypothesis.

**Design**

The design of this study is Quasi experimental. Besides, label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks are the independent variables of this study. The dependent variable is the vocabulary retention. The participants of this study were elementary females; therefore, the subjects’ proficiency level, age and gender are the control variables of this study.

**Descriptive Statistics of the Proficiency Test Piloting**

As the first step, Nelson was piloted. The test included 50 questions on grammar. The test had a total score of 50 and the administration of the test took 35 minutes. This test was administered to a group of 43 elementary EFL learners at Chalous branch of Kish Air language school bearing almost the same characteristics as the target sample. No items were discarded from the test.

Following the piloting of the test, the mean and standard deviation of the raw scores and the reliability were calculated. The mean and the standard deviation of this administration were found to be 27.3953 and 9.2147, respectively. Figure 1 below shows the histogram of the participants’ scores on the pilot study of Nelson.

![Histogram of the Scores Obtained on Nelson – Pilot Study](image)

*Figure 1: Histogram of the Scores Obtained on Nelson – Pilot Study*

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the Nelson in the pilot phase.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Valid N (listwise)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>27.3953</td>
<td>9.2147</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows the reliability of the test scores gained by the participants in the Nelson piloting phase. The Cronbach alpha came out to be .895.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Descriptive Statistics of the Proficiency Test (Homogenization)**

The researcher used the piloted test as an instrument for homogenizing the participants of the study. The standard general proficiency test (Nelson) was administered among 120 elementary learners. These participants were already placed at the mentioned level according to the placement test of the language school. However, to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects, only 91 participants of the study from among 120 candidates whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean on this proficiency test were chosen. The descriptive data (Table 3) of this standard test for those 120 candidates are demonstrated below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL 120</td>
<td>9.00</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>28.1750</td>
<td>6.9749</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Considering the results, the mean of the scores for the 120 subjects came out to be 28.1750 and the standard deviation came out to be 6.9749. Therefore, those participants whose score fell one standard deviation above and below the mean, were those who participated in the main study. This resulted in 91 participants who were randomly divided into the three experimental groups. The reliability of Nelson in this actual administration for homogenization of the participants was estimated as well (Table 4). An index of .718 reassured the researcher of the reliability of this test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>.718</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Dividing the Participants into the Experimental Groups**

From among the 120 students who took the test, the researcher selected the 91 who scored between 21.20 and 35.14 on the test and then randomly divided them into three experimental groups.

**Post-test (Vocabulary Achievement Test)**

Once the treatment was completed, the researcher administered a vocabulary achievement test serving as a post-test among the three groups of experimental. The test included 60 items on the new words covered during the course. This test was exactly the same teacher made vocabulary test minus the 10 known vocabularies.
Descriptive Statistics of the Vocabulary Post Test

The test was administered at the end of the treatment to the 91 participants of the study in the three experimental groups. Table 5 below displays the descriptive statistics for this administration in all groups with the means being 31.50, 28.03, 25.64 for the three experimental groups, respectively.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of the Experimental Groups’ Total Scores on the Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Skewness Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>31.5000</td>
<td>12.26082</td>
<td>2.23851</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>0.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Label extending</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>31.5000</td>
<td>12.26082</td>
<td>2.23851</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>0.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.0333</td>
<td>10.83889</td>
<td>1.97890</td>
<td>0.302</td>
<td>0.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrangement</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25.6452</td>
<td>7.46346</td>
<td>1.34048</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>0.421</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figures 2, 3 and 4 display the distribution of scores for each of the three experimental groups, respectively.

**Figure 2:** Histogram of the label extending Group’s Scores on the Post-test

**Figure 3:** Histogram of the summarization Group’s Scores on the Post-test
Testing Hypothesis 1 of the Study

The first null hypothesis of the study stated that:

$H_{01}$: There is not any significant difference among the effects of using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention.

To test this hypothesis, an ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the three experimental groups.

Note has to be taken that in order to be able to run ANOVA, the normality of the distribution of scores on post-test within each group had been checked (Table 7) and since the three values .920 (.393/.427) for the narration group and .707 (.302/.427) for the summarizing group and .824 (.347/.421) for the arrangement group fell between -1.96 and 1.96, running ANOVA was legitimized.

As the other condition for running ANOVA, homogeneity of variance was also checked by Levene's test (Table 8) and the $\rho$ value did not become significant ($\rho = .089 > .05$), and thus, homogeneity of variance was assumed. The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 6 and the results of ANOVA are demonstrated in Table 10.

### Table 6: Test of Homogeneity of Variance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.089</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.484</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As Table 7 demonstrates, the highest mean score was obtained by the label extending group, then the summarizing group. The lowest mean score was obtained by the arrangement group. However, to check whether the differences were significant or not ANOVA was run.

As Table 8 indicates, the ANOVA results showed that not enough evidence was observed to reject the null hypothesis ($F(2, 88) = 2.459, \rho = .091 > .05$) meaning that there is not any significant difference among the effects of using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention.

**Discussion**

Interpretation of the findings of the study with regard to the related literature is given in this part. The effects of story making on vocabulary retention are first addressed.

Based on the statistical analyses, not enough evidence was observed to reject the null hypothesis yielding that there is not any significant difference among the effects of using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention. However, the findings do not imply that the three different story making tasks did not have any influence on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention since the participants of the study performed well on the vocabulary achievement test compared to the beginning of the course.

The findings of the study are in line with Lao and Krashen (2000) who presented the results of a comparison between a group of students that read literary texts and a second group that read non literary texts at a university in Hong Kong. The group who read literary texts showed improvement in vocabulary and reading comprehension. In the present study, elementary students also benefitted from story making tasks as a kind of literary activity.
Young (1996) points out to the use of children’s stories to introduce critical thinking to college students. In order to provide successful language learning, Pesola (1991) views storytelling as one of the most powerful tools for surrounding the young learner with language. Wilson (1997) believes that the curriculum can improve the level of learning in the four language skills.

CONCLUSION
As it was stated in the previous sections, not enough evidence was observed to reject the null hypothesis claiming that there is not any significant difference among the effects of using label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks on EFL learners’ vocabulary retention. It means that the three different story making tasks had almost the same effects on the vocabulary retention of the three experimental groups.

Pedagogical implications
Findings related to the present study may have some implications for teachers in that incorporating label extending, summarizing, and strip story arrangement tasks in the classroom can shift the focus from teacher-centered activities to learner-centered ones. It also requires collaborative work and creativity among students.

The findings have also some implications for syllabus designers. Murdoch (2002) believes that if stories are selected and exploited appropriately, they will provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at different levels of proficiency.

Suggestions for further study
Regarding the limitations of this study and the importance of some issues discussed fully throughout the study, some gaps and new ideas are found which can give good insights and pave the way for future studies:
1. This study investigated the impact of story making conditions on vocabulary retention of elementary EFL learners. Other language proficiency levels can be studied.
2. Other studies can compare other story making tasks, e.g. finding the main plot of the story, personalizing the stories and so on.
3. Other studies can investigate or compare the impact of story conditions in an oral mode.
4. The present study was confined to female students. Other studies can be carried out in coeducational or male settings.
5. The present study was confined to a private language school. Other studies can be carried out in public schools.
6. Other studies can focus on collecting qualitative data as well as quantitative one.
7. Other studies can investigate the impact of the three story conditions using a control group.

Limitations of the study
Like many other studies, the present study suffered from some limitations. The present study was confined to a private language school in Chalous. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to EFL students in public schools. The researcher had to work just with
female students which will probably decrease the generalizability of the study to the males or coeducational situations.

REFERENCES


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CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF MALE AND FEMALE CANDIDATES’ ERRORS IN WRITING AND SPEAKING MODULES OF IELTS

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ABSTRACT
This study was set out with the aim of investigating the errors of IELTS candidates in writing and speaking modules in order to know the source or the cause of the errors. To this end, sixty IELTS candidates from Pardis Danesh Institute, Tehran, Iran, who took part in a mock IELTS test participated in the present study. To achieve the aforementioned purpose the obtained data were analyzed to identify the type and frequency of the grammatical errors as well as cohesion and coherence errors made by the participants. Moreover, a comparison was made among male and female candidates to find out the differences between the type and the frequency of their errors. In order to discover grammatical errors of the learners, the researchers followed the steps identified by Corder (1981), and in order to analyze the cohesion and coherence errors, they used Halliday and the Prague School of Linguistics’ topic structure analysis approach to coherence, and Halliday and Hasan’s approach to cohesion. The results indicated that inappropriate choice of noun is the most frequent error which is occurred in participants’ performance regarding the grammatical analysis of the data. Furthermore, the analysis of cohesion and coherence errors indicated that candidates have more problems regarding the fluency of their utterances. And finally, data analysis revealed that although there is no great difference among male and female candidates regarding the total number of errors, male candidates made more errors than females on the whole. The findings of the present study can have implications for researchers, teachers, and learners in order to develop understanding of the second language acquisition process. Therefore, they can benefit the results by being aware of the learners’ most frequent errors in the process of language learning and focus their attention on the features that may help the learners to have fewer errors in the production of the second language and assist them to become more successful language learners.

KEYWORDS: Error Analysis, Cohesion, Coherence, Grammatical Errors, IELTS Test.

INTRODUCTION
Error analysis in particular is one of the aspects of second language learning processes which has received much attention from researchers. Early researches on error analysis were focused on
collecting and classifying errors. It is unavoidable to make error in language acquisition, and making error is not seen as something negative or destructive, rather they are significant in that they are evidence of how learners acquire language. They occur when the learner is unable to self-correct, and deviates target language system (Brown, 1987).

Error Analysis is valuable and helpful in second language learning because it is a reliable indicator of the problematic areas to learners, teachers, syllabus designers, test developers, and textbook writers. Remedial exercises can be designed to focus more attention on the ‘trouble shooting’ areas (Keshavarz, 1999). It is a type of linguistic analysis that is concerned with the errors learners make. It involves a comparison between the errors made in the target language and that target language itself (Ellis, 2008). It is an activity to identify, classify and interpret the errors made by someone in speaking or in writing and it is carried out to gain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or in writing English sentences. Early on, researches focused on learners’ errors, developing procedures for identifying, explaining, describing, and evaluating them. These studies revealed that learner’s errors are systematic and that they reflect the stage of the development that a learner has reached (Corder, 1967; Corder, 1974; Ellis, 2008). An important finding was that learners seem to go beyond the available input, producing errors that show they actively construct rules, which although not target like, guide their performance in the second language.

Error analysis provides teachers and researchers with a priceless source of information. It offers information on learners' errors which in turn helps teachers to correct learners' errors and also enhances the effectiveness and usefulness of their teaching. Michaelides (1990) declares that the systematic analysis of learner's errors can be of countless value to all those involved, i.e., learners, teachers, test developers, and the researchers. For teachers it can offer a clear and reliable picture of her/his learners’ knowledge of the second language.

**Statement of the Problem**

The importance of second language learners' errors has been contended by numerous studies. According to Corder (1974), learners' errors are significant in three ways. First to the teacher, it can reveal how far the learner has progressed and what remains to be learnt. Second, they provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, and what strategies or procedures the learner is employing in his discovery of the language. Thirdly, they are indispensable to the learner himself, because we can regard the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn.

Despite the increase in scholarship devoted to error analysis (Ahmadvand, 2008; Brown, 2006; Chen, 1996; Cotton & Wilson, 2008; Darus, 2009; Jabbari & Fazilatfar, 2012; Nezami, 2012; Ying, 1987), analyzing the candidates’ errors in writing and speaking modules of IELTS have received relatively little attention and also researchers did not account for the effect of gender on learners’ errors. And also, there has been little research on errors in written English compared with the studies that have concentrated on reading and phonology even within the limited field of error analysis. The study to be done is supposed to shed light on the issue of error analysis, and on the second language learning process.
Purpose of the Study

Based on the literature, the study of error is of paramount importance for researchers, teachers, and learners in order to develop understanding of the second language acquisition process. There is a need for students to recognize the significance of errors which occur in their writing and speaking, to fully grasp and understand the nature of the errors made. The present study will be carried out with the aim of identifying the errors of IELTS candidates in writing and speaking modules in order to know the source or the cause of the error and how the students can learn from their mistakes in order that they will not make some errors repeatedly.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Errors comprise a significant portion of a learner’s language performance and they provide important insights into the processes of second language acquisition. Explanation of errors will have to be multi-dimensional and include factors beyond the observable characteristics of the errors (Cotton & Wilson, 2008; Darus, 2009; Jabbari & Fazilatfar, 2012; Nezami, 2012). Researchers indicate that errors are caused by competence factors (lack of knowledge of the rules) rather than performance factors (fatigue and inattention). Corder (1967) defines errors as systematic deviations which occur due to the learner’s still developing knowledge of the second language rule system; errors are considered as any deviation from a selected norm of language performance. There are different types of errors: global errors, local errors, developmental errors, interlingual errors, ambiguous errors, and grab bag errors (Ellis, 2008; James, 1985; Lee, 1980). Global errors are errors that affect overall sentence organization and they may significantly hinder communication, while local errors affect a single element in a sentence; previous studies revealed that errors which significantly hindered communication were of a certain type (Global errors) and those that did not hinder communication were of another type (Local errors). Global errors violate the whole structure of an utterance and for this reason may make it challenging and difficult to process.

Developmental errors are errors similar to those made by children learning target language as their first language. On the other hand, interlingual errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner’s native language. Ambiguous errors are those that can be classified equally well as developmental or interlingual, so they are either developmental or interlingual. And finally, those errors which are neither developmental nor interlingual are called grab bag errors (Darus, 2009; Ellis, 1994; Lee, 1980; Olsson, 1973; Richards, 1985; Wiley, 2010). Furthermore, Corder made a distinction between non-systematic and systematic errors. Nonsystematic errors appear in learners’ native language. Corder names these ‘mistakes’ and asserts that they are not vital to the process of language teaching and learning. He uses the term ‘errors’ for the systematic ones, which happen in a second language.

Definition of Error Analysis

Error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that is concerned with the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison between the errors made in the target language and that target language itself (Ellis, 2008). It is an activity to identify, classify and interpret the errors made by someone
in speaking or in writing and it is carried out to obtain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or in writing English sentences.

Carl James, in his Errors in Language Learning and Use, describes Error Analysis as “the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language” (James, 1998). He states that error analysis will investigate what people do not know and how they try to cope with them. Corder states that Error Analysis is different from ‘performance analysis’ in that the “performance analysis is the study of the whole performance data from individual learners, whereas the term EA is reserved for the study of erroneous utterances produced by groups of learners” (Corder 1975 cited in James 1998). It is crucial to make a distinction between error and mistake. To recognize errors and mistakes, the consistency of learner’s performance should be checked. Corder, (1967) introduces a criterion that helps to make such a distinction: it is the self-correction criterion. A mistake can be self-corrected, and modified, but an error cannot. Errors are ‘systematic,’ and are occurred repeatedly without being organized by learners. The researchers choose to work on learners’ errors and not their mistakes.

Importance of Error Analysis

At first sight, focusing on learners’ errors rather than their success may seem unusual and odd. However, focusing on errors can be useful in that they are an indicator of learner language, raising the central question of ‘why do learners make errors?’; error analysis is also useful for teachers to know what the problematic areas are in order to give remedial instructions. And finally, making errors may in fact help learners to learn when they monitor and self-correct the errors they make (Ahmadvand, 2008; Brown, 2006; Darus, 2009; Ellis, 1994; Lee, 1980; Olsson, 1973; Richards, 1985; Wiley, 2010).

In second language learning, as Corder observes, the learners’ errors are indicative of the state of the learners’ knowledge, and of the ways in which a second language is learned. Corder (1974) distinguishes three types of error according to their systematicity: Pre-systematic, Systematic, and Post-systematic errors. Other experts like Dulay and Burt (1974) classified the errors into three broad categories: Developmental, Interference, and Unique errors. Ellis (2008) argues that classification of errors helps us in diagnosing learners’ language problems at any stage of their development. Corder (1967) says that the presence of errors indicates that language learning is taking place. He points out that errors can give significant understanding into how a learner learned a language. The reasons and sources behind errors are manifold. Cooper (1977) states that “language deviations are not random but systematic and reflect an implicit hypothesis to the nature of language being learned”.

Procedures of Error Analysis

James (1998) identifies four stages for error analysis. The first stage is error detection which spots the error itself. The second stage is error location in which the informer locates the error. The following stage is error description and the learner’s language system is described. And finally, the last stage is error categorization or classification. Corder (1974, cited in Ellis 1994) suggests a complex way of getting to the problems that analysts face when trying to identify errors. Ellis states that the proposed procedure “[…]acknowledges the importance of
‘interpretation’ and distinguishes three types: normal, authoritative, and plausible”. The distinctive types displayed refer to different interpretations of errors made by the analysts. Corder (cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 46) identifies five steps in error analysis which includes: collection of a sample of learner language, identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors, and evaluation of errors. After collecting an authentic and reliable sample of learner language, the analyzer must identify the errors. To identify errors, learners’ sentences are compared with what seem to be the normal or correct sentences in the target language which correspond with them. Sometimes this is fairly straightforward. When all the errors have been identified, they can be depicted and described. In this stage errors are described whether they are overt or covert, and then they are classified into different types. There are numerous ways for categorizing errors. One way is to classify errors into grammatical errors. Another way might be to try to identify the general ways in which the learners’ sentences differ from the target-language sentences. Classifying and describing errors are of great help to diagnose and detect learners’ language learning problems at different stages of their development (Ellis, 1997). An overt error is easy to identify because the sentence is not well-formed and there is an obvious deviation in its form, but covert errors appear in sentences which are superficially well-organized and well-formed (Corder, 1971).

The first two steps in error analysis, identification and classification, are preliminaries to the much more demanding task of explaining why errors occur. In this step sources of errors are examined. Learners’ errors can have several sources like transfer of first language knowledge into second language, overgeneralization, omission, and interlingual causes. The final stage in error analysis is error evaluation which is done with the aim of helping learners learn second language. General and local errors are distinguished here; some errors can be considered more crucial and serious (global errors) than others because they are more likely to hinder communication. Teachers, syllabus designers, and test developers will want to focus their attention on these errors.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study is seeking to answer the following questions:
RQ1. What are the most frequent grammatical errors made by IELTS male and female candidates?
RQ2. What are the most frequent cohesive and coherence errors made by IELTS male and female candidates?
RQ3. Are there any significant differences regarding types and frequencies of errors among male and female candidates?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Sixty IELTS candidates who took part in a mock IELTS test participated in the present study. For the purpose of the current study, the participants’ performances on Task 2 of the writing module along with section 3 of the speaking module of the mock IELTS test were selected. The
participants were from Pardis Danesh Institute in Tehran. Some of the participants took part in the mock IELTS test in October 2013 while the others took part in the aforementioned test in January 2014. Their age range was 20-35. The participants were 30 males and 30 females.

**Instrumentation**

The data for the present study was the IELTS candidates’ performance on Task 2 of the writing module along with section 3 of the speaking module of the mock IELTS test. The writing sections were analyzed by the researchers using error analysis methodology. Moreover, the speaking part was recorded and transcribed by the researchers followed by error analysis to realize and calculate the frequency of the errors made by the participants.

**Data Collection Procedure**

Data collection procedure started in October 2013 and is ended in February 2014. Sixty IELTS candidates were chosen from Pardis Danesh Institute, Tehran, Iran. First the participants took part in a mock IELTS test. Then the researchers collected their performance on the task 2 of the writing module and section 3 of the speaking module. Afterwards the researchers analyzed the content of the participants’ writings. At first, they analyzed the data to discover grammatical errors of the learners by following the steps identified by Corder (1981, cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 46) in order to recognize the errors and frequency with which they were made by the participants. Subsequently in order to analyze the cohesion and coherence of the participants’ performance on task 2 of writing module, the researchers uses Halliday and the Prague School of Linguistics’ topic structure analysis approach to coherence, and Halliday and Hasan’s approach to cohesion. The same procedure was carried out for analysis of the section 3 of the speaking module.

**Data Analysis Procedure**

For analyzing the collected data, the researcher followed the steps identified by Corder (cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 46) which includes: Collection of a sample of learner language, Identification of errors, Description of errors, Explanation of errors, and Evaluation of errors.

**Grammar Analysis**

To know the description of the grammar errors in the students’ writing and speaking, the researchers identified the grammar errors, and classified them into 6 aspects: Verbs, Nouns, Conjunctions, Articles, Pronouns, and Prepositions. The following table shows the classification of the grammatical errors which have been used in this study:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>Missing, Tense, Singular/Plural, Incorrect Positive Form, Incorrect Negative Form, Gerunds, Infinitive, Participles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>Missing, Singular/Plural, Inappropriate Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunctions</td>
<td>Missing, Misplaced, Inappropriate Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>Missing, Superfluous, Inappropriate Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns</td>
<td>Missing, Superfluous, Inappropriate Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>Missing, Superfluous, Inappropriate Choice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cohesion and Coherence Analysis

For analyzing learners’ coherence and cohesion errors, the researcher uses Halliday and the Prague School of Linguistics’ topic structure analysis approach to coherence, and Halliday and Hasan’s approach to cohesion. Topic structure analysis (TSA) is an approach to analyzing coherence. It has been used to identify different categories of thematic progression, the most common being sequential progression where the rheme of one sentence becomes the theme of the next (a-b, b-c, c-d), and parallel progression where the theme of one clause becomes the theme of the next or subsequent clauses (a-b, a-c, a-d). Alternatively, in extended parallel progression, the first and the last topics of a piece of text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression (a-b, b-c, ad). Topic-based analysis involves analyzing the ways in which topics evolve and change over a stretch of text (Cotton & Waltson, 2008). Analysis of cohesion must include an approach which identifies the explicit lexical and grammatical items which bind a text together. The most influential approach to cohesion to date was developed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) who identified five distinct categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion (Cotton & Waltson, 2008).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the present study are reported in three parts. The first part of this section deals with the result of the grammatical analysis of the errors in the students’ writing and speaking and calculation of the frequency with which they occur. The second part deals with the frequent cohesive and coherence errors made by IELTS male and female candidates. Finally, the third part consists of the differences regarding types and frequencies of errors among male and female candidates.

RQ1: Grammatical analysis of the errors in the students’ writing and speaking performance on a mock IELTS test

The researchers identified the grammar errors, and according to Corder (cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 46), classified them into 6 features: Verbs, Nouns, Conjunctions, Articles, Pronouns, and Prepositions. Each of these categories consists of some subcategories which were analyzed and the frequency of their occurrences in the participants’ performance was calculated and reported in the Table 1.

Table 1 represents the observed errors made by participants and the frequency with which they were attended to. The errors in each category are arranged from the most frequent to the least frequent one. On the whole, 948 errors in the writing and speaking performance of the participants were observed in the data. As the table presents, the error category which was most frequently attended to was the Noun category in which the subcategory of Inappropriate Choice was the most frequent error made by participants that was identified in about 14% of the errors. Making singular/plural error in category of Nouns occurred 135 times. Missing Nouns and Missing Conjunctions were the next two error categories which were identified in students’ performance. These four error types were the ones that were presented the most in the data. All in all, most of the errors occurred in the category of Nouns. The second category in which the most errors were recognized was Verbs. Prepositions and Conjunctions were also among the errors.
that have been observed the most in the analyzed data. The rest of the errors are listed in the table. As it can be seen, Incorrect Negative Forms is attended to less than other errors.

**Table 1: The observed Grammatical Errors Made by the IELTS Candidates**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. Nouns</td>
<td>Inappropriate choice</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> They can (create) their food.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Singular/plural</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> They care about their (child.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> Get much (more) time than before.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Verbs</td>
<td>Tense</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> many years ago there (are) small restaurants.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gerunds, Infinitive, Participles</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> The only thing they can do (to resolving) this problem is raising the cost of food.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Singular/Plural</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> The teachers (wasn’t) kind.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> Fast food (is) usually very delicious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect Positive Form</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> To teach them how (can they) have a healthy diet.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Incorrect Negative Form</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> She (don’t) have to cook.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Prepositions</td>
<td>Inappropriate Choice</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> It’s better (to) children to rely on themselves.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Superfluous</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> Characters of children determined (in) before 7 years old.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> It’s hard to learn all (of) them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Conjunctions</td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> The reality is (that) the real junk foods are fast foods.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Inappropriate Choice</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> They start their school (and) their age is not good for starting school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Misplaced</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> If we ask (and) them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Articles</td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> They have to go to (the) restaurant.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Inappropriate Choice</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> To play (an) musical instrument.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Superfluous</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> (a) small groups of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Pronouns</td>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> The people must know that (they) must change this condition.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Inappropriate Choice</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><em>E.g.</em> Everyone could publish (their) beliefs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Superfluous</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*Education, in Iran’s context, (it) is an essential part of people’s life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>948</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RQ2: Analysis of Cohesive and Coherence Errors Made by IELTS Male and Female Candidates

According to topic-based structure analysis method (Watson, 2004), at the first the analyzed texts were broken into 3 units; introduction, body, and conclusion. Then in each unit, the researchers investigated the sentence structures, dependent, independent clauses, incomplete and paralleled structures, and ellipted words and sentences. In the second stage, the key concepts in each text were identified based on topic-based method; words with interactional functions (e.g., I guess) and textual functions (e.g., reasoning) were recognized. In the next stage, the relationships between key concepts were detected and linked together based on the degree of the concept relatedness. Finally, the overall cohesion and coherence were measured to find out the comprehensibility and acceptability of the text. In order to analyze the candidates’ coherence errors, Halliday’s topic structure analysis was utilized and the sequential theme-rheme progression was identified. In the analysis of the performance of the students in the writing and speaking tests, 6 types of cohesion and coherence errors were identified and categorized by the researchers. The extracted errors included:

1. Fluency: It is assessed based on the candidates’ errors such as mispronunciation, substitution, self-correction, using of hedges and omissions. It is also refers to the comprehensiveness and appropriateness of their utterances.
2. Cohesive devices: It refers to the linking words or phrases in a sentence which make the text coherent. The examples of cohesive devices are however, in conclusion, hence, at last, eventually, finally, rarely, normally, at first, moreover, and further. Each one of these examples can be used to begin a sentence or to link together the sentences.
3. Conveying the Message: It refers to the clarity, being to the point, simplicity and intelligibility of the utterances and sentences.
4. Logical progression: It refers to the choice of words and sentences considered to be logical and reasonable according to the condition and situation in which they are performed.
5. Background knowledge and Experience: It refers to the personal experiences, bringing examples and what a person already knows about the topic.
6. Theme-rheme Progression: It refers to the sequential progression where the rheme of one sentence becomes the theme of the next (a-b, b-c, c-d), and parallel progression where the theme of one clause becomes the theme of the next or subsequent clauses (a-b, a-c, a-d).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Cohesive devices</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Conveying the Message</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Theme-Rheme Progression</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Logical Progression</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Background Knowledge and Experience</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>364</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 demonstrates the observed cohesion and coherence errors made by IELTS candidates and the frequency with which they were attended to. 6 types of errors were distinguished and categorized by the researchers. The errors are arranged from the most frequent to the least frequent one. In general, 364 errors of cohesion and coherence in the writing and speaking performance of the participants were identified in the data. As it is presented in the table, the error which was most frequently attended to was the Fluency which was recognized in 25% of the errors. Making error in usage of cohesive devices (linking words or phrases), occurred 79 times. Conveying message and Logical progression were the next two error categories which were identified in students’ performance. These four error types were the most frequently occurred errors discovered in the participants’ performance. The rest of the errors are listed in the table. As it can be seen, the background Knowledge and Experience is attended to less than other types of errors.

RQ3: A Comparison of the Observed Errors and Frequencies of Errors among Male and Female Candidates

To answer the third question of the present study regarding the difference concerning the types of errors made by male and female candidates, the researchers compared male and female candidates’ errors and the result is presented in table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Error Category</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Grammatical</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cohesion &amp; Coherence</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Grammatical</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cohesion &amp; Coherence</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>1312</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is shown in table 3, male candidates made more grammatical errors than females, while female candidates made more cohesion and coherence errors. As it is obvious from the data represented in table 3, on the whole male participants made 695 error types while females made 617 types of errors. Totally, 1312 error types were identified in candidates’ performance in which 40% of grammatical errors were male candidates’ errors. On the other hand male participants made less cohesion and coherence errors than females and 15% of errors were made by females in the category of cohesion and coherence.

Discussion

As it is stated by Corder (1981), errors made by learners are significant and can provide us with important information in three ways, first of all it is important for teachers regarding the fact that error analysis can disclose how far the learners has progressed and what still remains to be learned. Secondly, the researchers will be provided by evidence of how the language is learned or acquired and what type of strategies and processes used by the language learners in discovery of the language. Finally, they are essential to the learner himself, because we can consider the making of errors as a device the learner uses in order to learn. Moreover, as it is mentioned before, according to Ellis (2008) classification of errors helps us in recognizing and analyzing learners’ language problems at any stage of their development.
Besides, studying errors is of supreme significance for teachers, researchers, and learners in order to expand their understanding of the second language acquisition process. This study also aimed at identifying the errors of IELTS candidates in writing and speaking modules in order to be acquainted with the source or the cause of the error and how the students can learn from their mistakes in order that they will not make some errors repeatedly. Furthermore, the current study considered the role of gender in making errors and to see if there exist any difference regarding types and frequencies of errors among male and female candidates.

As it was indicated in the results of the grammatical analysis of the data, the error category which was most frequently attended to was the Noun category in which the subcategory of Inappropriate Choice was the most recurrent error made by participants. One probable reason for this result can be due to educational system in Iran in which the teachers and administrators yet pursue traditional approaches for grammar teaching, and despite all innovations in this field they still follow the steps and principles of GTM by using deductive approaches for teaching grammatical rules and forget to pay enough attention to pragmatic approaches and the language use which seems to play an important, essential role in learning a second language.

Another reason can be the cultural differences and the effect of first language culture, learners’ unfamiliarity with the pragmatic of the target language and L1 interference that lead the learners to use inappropriate nouns in specific situations, which make their utterances unintelligible and unacceptable. Moreover, in the context of Iran’s educational system, nouns usually decontextualized and represented to the learner without indication of an appropriate context in which they can be utilized.

This result is not compatible with Murrow’s inference (2004), in which the result of the study revealed that errors relating to use of Verbs far outweighed any other category. Moreover, it concluded that Confusion between parts of speech, for example adjectives used as adverbs, was the next most common error. In addition, the result revealed that the second category in which the most errors were recognized was Verbs in which the subcategory of Tense occurred the most in participants’ performance. This result is in line with Hourani’s deduction (2008), in which he analyzed the common grammatical errors in the English writing and concluded that students find a difficulty when and how to use the tense and the form of the verb more frequently than other types of errors. So far, many studies have been conducted regarding the role of coherence and cohesion in pragmatics (Wolska, 2008; Witte & Faigley, 2008; Dontcheva-Navratilova & Povolná, 2009; Toolan, 2013), there seems that there is a need for inclusion of pragmatic instruction in the classrooms in order to have more comprehensible and coherent utterances.

The second part of data analysis regarding the cohesion and coherence error analysis demonstrated that the error which was most frequently attended to was the Fluency. This can be because of the lack of opportunities to practice the language in real context and not having enough exposure to language in use in language classes, this can happen because English in Iran is considered as a foreign language rather than a second language and outside the classrooms students will not be provided by enough chance to practice what they have learned in order to become more fluent. More prominently, as it was stated most of the language institutes still
follow traditional approaches to teaching English which focuses on accuracy rather than fluency and as a result learners may be less fluent than accurate.

Also, the result indicated that students have problems regarding conveying the message appropriately and logical progression of their utterances. This can be due to students’ lack of awareness of pragmatics. This result is well-matched with Povolna (2012), who argued that pragmatic awareness approach to teaching intended to develop a gradual awareness of the difference between the foreign-language-learners’ performance and that of capable users of the language, that is to say native speakers of English. Tomlinson (1994, cited in Povolna 2012), also believed that as a result of pragmatic awareness challenging features of suitable language use can be recognized and their acquisition facilitated.

Eventually, the third part of the result section which is a comparison of the observed errors and frequencies of errors among male and female candidates demonstrated that as a whole male candidates made more errors than females, on the other hand female candidates although have less errors concerning the total number of errors but they have more cohesion and coherence errors than males. This can be because of the fact that females according to Holmes (1995), and McMillan (1977) intended to have more accurate utterances and Women’s language is more indirect, less blunt, and has more prestigious forms. Also, as it is stated by Lackoff (1975) and Holmes (1995), Women used more hedges and tag questions than men which may cause this error type. Besides, Since 1970s many scholars such as Deborah Cameron, Penelope Eckert, Janet Holmes, Deborah Tannen, Robin Lakoff, and others began research in language and gender and concluded that men and women use language differently. The result of this section is in line with Saeed, Ramazan, Gujjar & Iqbal’s inference (2011), who concluded that women being better language learners than men.

Like all other studies, this study also suffers some shortcomings. The main shortcoming of this study can be the limited number of participants. With larger population and analyzing more learners’ performance, other problems and differences among participants can be distinguished which is worth taking into account. Besides, the participants were not homogenized and the researchers did not consider the possible differences in participants’ background knowledge, their age, and level of language proficiency which may lead to dissimilar outcomes. Moreover, since the participants took part in a mock IELTS test, they may not represent their best performance because they have considered it just as a preparatory examination not a real one. The analysis of the genuine IELTS examination may supply us with a different result which is worth considering.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS
The present study sought to investigate the errors of IELTS candidates in writing and speaking modules in order to know the source or the cause of the error. The study aimed to analyze and identify the frequent grammatical errors made by male and female candidates who took part in a mock IELTS examination. Moreover, the current study attempted to examine the most frequent cohesive and coherence errors made by aforementioned participants. Likewise, this study was
conducted to indicate the possible differences regarding types and frequencies of errors among male and female candidates.

The results of the current study indicated that inappropriate choice of noun is the most frequent error which is occurred in participants’ performance regarding the grammatical analysis of the data. Also, the result revealed that students have more problems in producing correct forms of nouns, verbs, prepositions and conjunctions. On the other hand, Incorrect Negative Forms is observed less than other errors.

Furthermore, the analysis of cohesion and coherence errors indicated that candidates have more problems regarding the fluency, comprehensiveness and acceptability of their utterances. Moreover, the last part of the data analysis revealed that there is no great difference among male and female candidates regarding the total number of errors although male candidates made more errors than females on the whole. Besides, data analysis showed that females made more cohesion and coherence errors than male candidates.

The findings of the present study can have implications for candidates, teachers, test developers and researchers. Being acquainted with the areas that they may have more difficulties and problems, candidates can concentrate on those areas and try to improve their abilities and knowledge concerning these problematic features. This can raise their awareness concerning the challenges of the language learning process. Teachers can also make use of this information in order to become aware of the second language acquisition process. They will be acquainted with the problems and difficulties that the learners may face in the process of language learning and it make them effective teachers who can equip the learners with a more efficient instruction so that the learners become aware of the significant criteria that a proficient speaker attends to while performing on writing and speaking tests.

In addition, the result of the present study can be utilized by test developers as a guide according to which they can focus on these analyzed areas in which students may have more or less problems and develop their tests according to the learners’ needs. Moreover, researchers can also benefit the results of the current study by providing them with information about the learners’ most frequent errors in the process of language learning and focus their attention on the features that may help the learners to have less errors in the production of the second language and assist them to become more successful language learners.

Several studies can be performed to further examine the type and frequency of the errors made by candidates. Initially, the same study can be replicated with more participants or with another framework as a base for data analysis. Also, it is worth considering role of other factors such as participants’ background knowledge and their level of language proficiency, also the strategies and styles employed by the participants while performing on the tests can be taken into account. Besides, other factors such as participants’ personal characteristics, their anxiety and motivation can be considered as significant issues that may affect their performance.
Finally, as it is stated by Corder (1981), learners’ errors are significant not only for the teachers and researchers but also they are indispensable to the learners themselves, because it is believed that learners use making of errors as a device in order to learn.

REFERENCES


LOGICAL MARKERS IN NEWSPAPER OPINION COLUMNS

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ABSTRACT
The present study aimed to identify the distribution of logical markers according to cross-cultural or cross-linguistic preferences. The corpus of this study consisted of 240 opinion columns of three Persian newspapers (IRAN, Hamshahri and Ettelaat) and two English ones (New York Times and Independent). Different logical markers were highlighted in the texts and classified based on the Dafouz-Milne’s (2008) taxonomy of metadiscourse markers. The results showed that logical markers are present in English and Persian newspapers' opinion columns, but there are variations as to the distribution. The results have implications for columnists and gives them ideas on how to logical markers effectively to convince their audience by presenting the propositional material in a way that the audience find more convincing. It can also be useful for Persian students of English who have to pass courses on journalistic texts at university and it is necessary for them to know different kinds of metadiscourse markers.

KEYWORDS: Logical markers; cross-cultural; cross-linguistic

INTRODUCTION
In written genres, writers try to guide and direct readers through the text. Newspapers, especially the opinion columns have a wide audience. So columnists try to persuade their readers to share the writer's views using certain features called discourse markers. Logical markers as a kind of metadiscourse marker helps readers to comprehend the text better. They express semantic and structural relationships between discourse stretches and help readers to interpret pragmatic connections by explicitly signaling additive (and, further more), adversative (but, however), consecutive (so, therefore), and conclusive relationships (finally, in sum).

Although metadiscourse markers have been studied in a number of different contexts, little attention has been given to news discourse, and especially to logical markers which can help to persuade readers in English and Persian opinion columns. Newspaper columns are some of the most adequate examples of persuasive writing (Connor, 1996, as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008).

Logical markers are used to help readers decode messages, share the writer's views, and reflect
the particular conventions that are followed in a given culture and play a crucial role in the construction and attainment of persuasion. Textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers contribute toward the overall persuasiveness of a text (Dafouz-Milne, 2008). There is no study on logical markers in Persian newspapers. The present study provides insights into the use of logical markers by using a large corpus of English and Persian opinion columns.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Newspaper opinion columns

Mass media is a term used to denote a section of the media specifically designed to reach a very large audience such as the population of a nation. Mass media has become one of the principal means through which people gain access to a large part of our information about the world, as well as to much of our entertainment. Newspaper is a kind of mass media. "Newspaper discourse is one of the most persuasive writing in all countries, setting standards for written persuasion" (Connor, 1996, as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008, p. 96). Shams (2007) believes that newspapers educate by going beyond basic facts in the in-depth analysis of columns, commentaries and editorials; and they provides a print marketplace for advertisers and prospective customers.

The online and print editions of newspapers share some defining features. First, newspapers are made of diverse content. In addition, they feature editorials, letters to the editor, movie listing, horoscopes, comics, sports, film, interview, recipes, advice column, opinion column, classified advertisement, and a host of other material. Second, newspapers are conventionally packaged. Both the print and online versions are organized according to the content. Third, newspapers are local. Fourth, more than any other medium, newspapers serve as a historical record, and fifth, newspapers are timely (Dominick, 2009).

Newspapers vary in terms of circulation. Circulation is the total number of a newspaper distributed to subscribers and vendors in one day. Some newspapers are nationally published; some are published locally. Some newspapers are published twice a week, once a month, four times a year, or even less often. However, most newspapers are published every day (daily newspapers). Also newspapers differ in focus. General-circulation newspapers print materials of interest to a broad audience, while special-interest papers target a more specific audience (Shams, 2007).

Newspapers offer their readers an opportunity to express their opinions on current events. Columns refer to a series of articles by the same person appearing on a regular basis in a newspaper and present the person's personal opinion on different issues. They are views behind the news written by people who take an interest in explaining behind-the-scene events. Singular voice (they use the personal "I") is used in columns. Columnists are either staff members of the newspaper or syndicated columnists who write for different newspapers. They may talk about their personal interests and personal agenda. They also have their own styles. Some try to be funny; others are very serious and use a very formal style (Shams, 2007).
All news is subjective. Personal columns make this subjectivity overt. Personal columns work when the voice speaks in particularly original tones. They may be witty, controversial, culturally eclectic, conversational, whimsical, ironic, confessional, authoritative, subversive, and irritating. The reader enters into a kind of relationship with the writer. Personal column styles, language, and tones are also appropriate to their newspapers. There are many forms of personal columns. They may be straight opinion or involve a small amount of journalistic research (Keeble, 1998). One of the major columns of newspapers is opinion column. They target a wide audience and are among the most persuasive writing in all countries (Reah, 1998).

When reading an editorial or an opinion column, it is helpful to imagine that the writer is engaged in a debate with his or her readers. The writer is trying to persuade readers or convince them that a certain point of view is the correct one. There are, however, important differences between editorials and opinion columns. An editorial is generally written on behalf of the entire newspaper. It represents the point of view of not just the writer, but of the newspaper at large. In reality, of course, not everyone at the paper will agree with any given editorial. But in principle, an editorial speaks for the newspaper as an institution, not just the person who has written it (Petroce, 2008).

Columnists need to use the propositional material in a way that their audience will find most convincing and attractive; Moreover, writers have to create a credible textual persona or ethos and develop an appropriate attitude towards their readers and the claims they present, if they want to be successful in persuading their readers. Metadiscourse markers play a crucial role in the construction of this textual persona (Dafouz-Milne, 2008, p. 96).

**Logical markers**

Metadiscourse markers are a kind of cohesive devices that help to establish relationships between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). They shape the writers’ arguments to the needs and expectations of their target readers. Metadiscourse helps organize, engage the audience, and signal the writer’s attitude. It is the author's overt or covert presence into the discourse to inform and to shape the reader's thoughts (Crismore, 1984, p. 280). Coherence relations that hold together different parts of the discourse are partly responsible for the perceived coherence of a text. Coherence is achieved by different means. According to Taboada (2006) discourse markers guide the text receiver in the recognition of those relations. In order to be successful, the writer needs to operate at two levels: the level of text (discourse) in which the writer supplies information about the subject of the text, and the level of metatext (metadiscourse) in which the writer does not add any propositional material but helps readers organize, classify, interpret, evaluate, and react to such material.

A variety of metadiscourse taxonomies have been proposed (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Dafouz, 2003; Hyland, 1998; Vande Koppel, 1997). Most of these taxonomies organize the linguistic units under the functional headings of textual discourse - the organization of discourse - and interpersonal metadiscourse - the writer’s stance towards both the content in the text and the potential reader.
Dafouz-Milne (2008) studied both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers. She included the following macro-categories: hedges, certainty markers, attributors, attitude markers, and commentaries. She further divided the category of hedges up to three subcategories: epistemic verbs, probability adverbs, and epistemic expressions. The results showed that hedges were the most common category of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in both British and Spanish texts. Dafouz-Milne concluded that the critical factor in producing a successfully persuasive text is to skillfully combine both expressions that weaken the argument (i.e; hedges) and those that strengthen it (i.e; attitudinal markers or certainty markers).

Logical markers as a category of textual metadiscourse markers express semantic and structural relationships between discourse stretches, and help readers interpret pragmatic connections by explicitly signaling additive, adversative, and conclusive relationships in the text. Vande Kopple calls them connectives which function as signposts to guide readers that construct appropriate representations in memory. They help show readers how the parts of texts are related to one another (Vande Kopple, 1997, p. 2).

In academic writing, there are terms or phrases that express the logical relationships between different things. These important signposts serve as signals for the meaning of the text and the writer uses them to organize the text in order to make his point clear. These words are called linking words, connectors, discourse markers or signal words. Linking words (also called transitional devices, logical connectors or connecting words) help the reader follow the logical meaning and structure of the text (Vande kopple, 1997).

Hyland and Tse (2004, p. 168) categorize logical markers in terms of transitions and frame markers. Dafouz-Milne (2008, p.97) states that logical markers express semantic and structural relationships between discourse stretches. Characteristically, connectives are not syntactically integrative elements in the clause; they are peripheral to it. Connectives serve to make that relationship obvious so that the reader may interpret it in accordance with the writer's intended meaning (Rahman, 2004, p. 45). Martin and Rose (2003, p. 110) state that "conjunctions serve as logical connections between figures, adding them together, comparing them, sequencing them in time, or explaining their causes, purposes or conditions".

A few studies have been done on logical markers. Dorgeloh (2004) examined the use of sentence-initial and in Modern English written language as compared to Early Modern English. He argued that the function of the discourse marker and in interactive discourse applies to connecting written sentences as well, and the reluctance with which it is used today in most written registers has not evolved entirely by chance. Results showed that the use of sentence-initial conjunction varies largely across genres. Findings also have relevance for the relation between discourse coherence and discourse type. While and potentially supports speaker continuity both at an ideational and at a pragmatic level, a written discourse type defined by a pragmatic function, such as the argumentative or expository type prevailing in modern science, apparently requires connections to be more explicit and semantic in kind. At various stages in the analysis, it has become obvious that quantitative data are not always sufficient to determine the discourse function of a particular linguistic phenomenon.
Yeung (2009) investigated the meaning and use of *besides* by studying expert corpora, dictionary definitions, and examples, as well as comparing and contrasting the experts' use with that of the Hong Kong Chinese learners of English. Yeung believes that the use of connectives has always been a trouble spot for Second Language Learners of English. There may be various reasons for this, one of them is the lack of awareness of how *besides* functions as a discourse marker. The study showed that connectives should be understood not only in terms of their semantic meanings but are better grasped through an appreciation of their pragmatic and stylistic functions in actual contexts of use.

Waring (2009) studied the adverb *also* with the aim to investigate the intricate operation of *also* in actual interaction. The actual interaction dealt with in this article pertains specifically to the institutional contexts of graduate seminar and television forum, where the central activity concerns the exchange of ideas or pursuit of positions. The supplementary data set included seven sessions of roundtable discussions on current affairs. He focused on the semantic features of *also* (i.e. additive and likewise) which are strategically deployed to accomplish different interactional goals in either a disjunctive or a disaffiliative environment. He showed that the additive feature of *also* can be activated to function in a disjunctive environment to achieve the appearance of coherence, and accordingly, to legitimize one's speaking rights. In addition, the semantic meanings of *also* are strategically employed to build coherence and to modulate the force of one's contribution in specific sequential environments. He stated that *Also* functions at the level of discourse.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study attempts to answer the following questions:
1. To what extent are logical markers used in Persian and English opinion columns?
2. Is there any significant difference in using logical markers in Persian and English opinion columns?

**METHODOLOGY**

In this study, logical markers in opinion columns of English and Persian newspapers are compared in order to explore how these markers are distributed according to cross-cultural or cross-linguistic preferences.

**Dataset**

The corpus in this study consisted of five newspapers, three Persian newspapers (*Ettelaat*, *Hamshahri*, and *IRAN*) and two English ones (*New York Times* and *Independent*) all of which were chosen according to their status and the political and rhetorical influence they exert in their respective national cultures. The opinion columns of these newspapers which covered social and cultural, economics, and politics topics were investigated. Generally 240 columns were analyzed: One hundred-twenty opinion columns of the Persian newspapers which were published during January and February 2009 and 120 opinion columns of the English newspapers published during January and February 2009 were selected. This quantity was assumed to be adequate to allow the researcher to make valid generalizations.
Instrumentation

A contrastive analysis was made between the opinion columns of Persian and English newspapers in the use of logical markers as pragmatic devices. Dafouz-Milne taxonomy (2008) was used as the theoretical framework for the selection of these two metadiscourse devices which covers the functional division of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse. This division has offered a variety of subcategories covering both the pragmatic functions of metadiscourse markers and the linguistic devices used to carry out such functions. Opinion columns are a subgenre of persuasive texts (Van Dijk, 1988, as cited in Dafouz-Milne, 2008) and their final aim is to convince the audience by means of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers.

Procedure

A sample of 240 opinion columns from five English and Persian newspapers was selected for the study. The selected Persian newspapers were Ettelaat, IRAN, and Hamshahri and the English press was New York Times and Independent. To reduce the impact of time and possible changes in the writing styles, the English and Persian columns (120) published between January and February 2009 were selected. From each English newspaper, 60 texts were selected during two months. But, for the Persian counterparts, because there were three newspapers, the first twenty issues of each newspaper during two months were selected for the analysis.

The electronic version of the English newspapers and the hard copy of the Persian newspapers were used. Initially, the opinion columns, either obtained directly from the electronic versions of the relevant newspapers or manually, were scanned and converted into Rich Text format. Then, word count was run on the corpus to have a rough estimate of the quantity of the data. Since the columns in Persian could not be converted into Rich Text, they were counted twice manually. Next, the texts were carefully read three or four times in order to identify the linguistic signals in focus and key signals that characterize logical markers. To analyze the data quantitatively, the frequency of the two categories across each dataset was calculated. About 20 percent of the data was analyzed for the inter-rater reliability and agreement was reached accordingly. Also, for the sake of intra-rater reliability, the data was analyzed two times within about one month interval. Having analyzed the data and presenting the frequencies, in order to see if the possible differences are statistically significant, chi-square analysis was administrated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The quantitative analysis reveals that the texts written in Persian used a higher number of logical markers than did the texts in English (Persian, n=7087, English, n=4879). While Persian and English both relied more on logical markers for coherence, Persian managed to overtake English in the use of logical markers. On the whole, the statistical analysis showed that the differences between the two languages were statistically significant (Table 1). The fact is that the difference between the two languages may show that Persian tends to go greater lengths establishing coherence in the text, hence providing more guidance for the readers to comprehend the purpose of the text.
A closer investigation of the two languages is possible if the subcategories of the respective metadiscoursal elements are also taken into account. As Table 2 shows, the two languages differ in the way they prioritize the respective subcategories. English capitalizes maximally on the ‘additive’ (61.74%) and minimally on the ‘conclusive markers’ (0.66%). Persian also uses ‘additive’ (82.4%) as the first priority, which is more frequent than its English counterpart. In fact, Persian texts abound in the use of additive markers (n=5842) to link ideas.

As a general rule, it seems that both languages find ‘additives’ central to text's persuasiveness. Also, Persian texts use conclusive markers as the last priority which is slightly less frequent than its English counterpart. English texts almost make greater use of conclusive elements. Furthermore, it is revealed (Table 2) that English and Persian assume the second place for adversatives. But English writers use these markers more frequently than Persian ones, so the English texts prefer the use of adversatives (n=1412) to construct arguments. Also, both corpora used consecutive markers as the third priority, and Persian texts used more consecutive markers than English ones. The analysis, generally speaking, shows that the differences between the Persian and the English writers involve the use of all logical markers with greater distinction in the use of additives and adversatives. The chi-square analysis revealed that the difference was significant for the respective markers. On a general level, the quantitative analysis reveals that the texts written in Ettelaat used a high number of logical markers than the texts in Hamshahrī and IRAN (Ettelaat, n=3828, IRAN, n=1876, Hamshahrī, n=1383).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total logical devices markers</th>
<th>Word count</th>
<th>Additive (%)</th>
<th>Adversative (%)</th>
<th>Consecutive (%)</th>
<th>Conclusive (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>92,214</td>
<td>2989 (61.74)</td>
<td>1412 (29.16)</td>
<td>408 (8.42)</td>
<td>70 (0.66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>81,152</td>
<td>5842 (82.4)</td>
<td>742 (10.46)</td>
<td>471 (6.6432)</td>
<td>32 (0.45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differences</td>
<td></td>
<td>p&lt;0.05</td>
<td>p=0</td>
<td>p&lt;0.05</td>
<td>p=0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Critical value= 3.8415

As a general rule, it seems that both languages find ‘additives’ central to text's persuasiveness. Also, Persian texts use conclusive markers as the last priority which is slightly less frequent than its English counterpart. English texts almost make greater use of conclusive elements. Furthermore, it is revealed (Table 2) that English and Persian assume the second place for adversatives. But English writers use these markers more frequently than Persian ones, so the English texts prefer the use of adversatives (n=1412) to construct arguments. Also, both corpora used consecutive markers as the third priority, and Persian texts used more consecutive markers than English ones. The analysis, generally speaking, shows that the differences between the Persian and the English writers involve the use of all logical markers with greater distinction in the use of additives and adversatives. The chi-square analysis revealed that the difference was significant for the respective markers. On a general level, the quantitative analysis reveals that the texts written in Ettelaat used a high number of logical markers than the texts in Hamshahrī and IRAN (Ettelaat, n=3828, IRAN, n=1876, Hamshahrī, n=1383).
Within the English corpus, again, variations were observed in using logical markers in *New York Times* and *Independent*, and this variation was statistically significant. Table 4 exhibits the related figures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Textual Markers</th>
<th>Word Count</th>
<th>Logical markers (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New York times</td>
<td>40,958</td>
<td>2256 (5.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent</td>
<td>51,256</td>
<td>2623 (5.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td></td>
<td>27.606</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The quantitative analysis reveals that on a global level, both English and Persian texts in this corpus include a great number of logical markers. The presence of logical markers is natural since these items function as connectors providing cohesion to the texts because without these connective devices, texts would be unreadable. Comparing the total number of logical markers by both sets of writers, the study found that Persian texts use more logical markers than English ones. The fact that the difference between the two languages is more salient in the use of logical markers may show that Persian texts tend to establish more coherence in the texts, so they provide more guidance for the reader to comprehend texts better.

In spite of this quantitative difference, there is nevertheless an interesting difference in the distribution of logical subcategories included in this study. Statistically speaking, the difference in the use of the first two subcategories (i.e., additive and adversative markers) is considerable. The analysis showed that the Persian texts had a significantly greater number of additive discourse markers than the English texts. The results for the Persian writers may show Persian rhetorical conventions, which seem to favor a progressive argumentation strategy, building up evidence of the same type, clause by clause, and hence, the need for many additive markers.

Note the following examples – from the Persian and the English data – and notice the argumentation involved in the English sample.

**1) Persian:**
Banabarin vazifeye arab va keshvarhaye mosalman ast ke a faghat be khatere anche dar ghaze rokh dadeh, balke be khatere hefze amniyat, mvzze motefavet *va* behtar az gozashte etekhaz konnad *va* in vahdate kamel tamamiye javame arbi *va* eslam ra dar yak didgah moshtarak mitalabad; melati ke bayad dar moghabele in dardha *va* khatarat beistad *va* dar asase esteratezhee khod tajdide nazar konad ta chashm andazi jedi ra baraye moghabele ba tajavozate ehtemali tarsim konad *va* bedanad ke amniyate eslam ra dar khatar ast.

**2) English:**
Who owns this hotel? The struggle for hegemony over the modern Arab world is as old as Nasser’s Egypt. But what is new today is that non-Arab Iran is now making a bid for primacy — challenging Egypt and Saudi Arabia. Iran has deftly used military aid to both Hamas and Hezbollah to create a rocket-armed force on Israel’s northern and western borders. This enables Tehran to stop and start the Israeli-Palestinian conflict at will and to paint itself as the true protector of the Palestinians, as opposed to the weak Arab regimes.
English writers seem to favor a progressive argumentation strategy, building up evidence of the same type, word by word, and hence, the need for many additive markers. But comparing the use of additive and adversative markers in the two corpora, it was found that both text types rely on more additive markers than adversative markers to link ideas (e.g and/va, moreover/alave bar in, furthermore/alave bar in …). Persian texts use the additive connector va more than other additives, and English texts use the additive connector and more than other additives. A grammatical explanation of the high presence of additive markers in the Persian and English corpora could be the average length of sentences; English and Persian writers prefer to produce longer sentences conjoined by additive markers. The two examples below extracted from the data exhibit how English and Persian writers use the additive markers in order to make long sentences. The English writer uses the additive marker and to join the phrases in a progressive argumentation.

(3) English:  
Obama shot back at a Virginia meeting of House Democrats — the very lawmakers who had saddled the package with party favors and shipped it off to the hostile Senate. He accused the Republicans of having “false theories of the past” and “phony arguments,” of playing “petty politics” and “gamesmanship” and just plain “nit-picking.” He seemed hostile and snaky. It wasn’t a good look for a man who promised to change the tone in Washington.

The Persian author constructs his rationale listing a set of reasons that head in the same direction by means of additive markers: and/va, in addition to/alave bar in, also/ hamchenin. Comparing the second subcategory (adversative markers), English texts included more adversative markers than their Persian counterparts.

(4) Persian:  
(…) in siyasat mitavanad chand tasir bar eghtesad keshvar begozaran, hazineh tamamshodeh kalaha dar keshvar ra kahesh midahad ke be kahesheh nerkhe tavarom khahad shod val sababe afzayesh taghaza baraye niroye kar va afzayesh forsathaye shoghli jadid dar keshvar mishavad ke be kaheshe nerkhe bikari komak khahad nemid. Alave bar inha in siyasat mitavanad afzayesh dastmozdha ra ba afzayeshes bahrevari motanaseb konad ke yek siyasate zede tavaromi mahsub migardad.

Regarding consecutive markers, Persian writers build more on consecutive devices than the English ones, but the difference was not significant. The frequent consecutive marker which was used by English writers was so which was followed by therefore and the more frequent one which was used by Persian writers was banabarir. The example below extracted from the data show how the English author builds his argument on the Obama's response to the economic crisis using a contrastive approach and consequently employing the adversative marker but.

(5) English:  
(…) So far the Obama administration’s response to the economic crisis is all too reminiscent of Japan in the 1990s: a fiscal expansion large enough to avert the worst, but not enough to kick-start recovery; support for the banking system, but a reluctance to force banks to face up to their losses. It’s early days yet, but we’re falling behind the curve.
In the above example, the Persian author could use the conclusive marker *behar hal* (in any case) instead of *va* (and). This shows that the Persian authors interested in additive markers, even sometimes, use this marker in a wrong place.

CONCLUSION

This study has presented quantitative and qualitative data on the presence of logical markers in a corpus of Persian and English opinion columns. Regarding similarities, the study reveals that logical markers are present in both English and Persian texts, although there are variations regarding their distribution. As Dafouz-Milne (2008) states that these similarities can be
attributed to the newspaper-genre characteristics of opinion columns that seem to contribute to the national culture and exhibit certain uniformity across languages. Concerning differences, this study suggests that there is some variation across languages in the construction of opinion columns. The findings showed that Persian writers used more additive markers than English ones and concerning the second subcategory of logical markers, i.e. adversative markers, English writers used more of these markers than Persian ones. As Dafouz (2003) proposed differences in the use of additive and adversative markers may be due to the way cultures construct argumentative texts. Persian authors add justification to the original idea via additive markers. In contrast, the English authors make a higher use of adversative markers in order to contrast the pros and cons of an argument which is stated in an opinion column.

In this study, logical markers in opinion columns of international and Persian newspapers have been studied. The results gained from the present study are useful for columnists. Opinion column is a kind of persuasive writing, so the columnists should be able to convince their readers that her or his opinions are correct. In order to convince their audience, they should present the propositional material in a way that the audience find more convincing. Metadiscourse markers, especially logical markers can be useful in this way.

There are some important limitations in this study: a) the number of English and Persian newspapers was not equal, initially, three English newspapers (Independent, New York Times, and Washington Post) and three Persian newspapers (Iran. Hamshahri, and Ettelaat) were chosen, but because of the president elections, the link of Washington Post was cut, and two English newspapers with three Persian ones were compared.

There are various textual reasons that were not analyzed in this study (the topic, the type of newspaper, the number of newspaper, and the columnist). Thus, further studies by using a larger corpus could offer more insights into the use of logical markers. Logical markers can also be studies focusing on different disciplines and genres and this may involve other subjects.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF SELF DIRECTED LEARNING STRATEGIES ON INTROVERT VS. EXTROVERT IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
The present study investigated the effect of self directed learning (SDL) strategies on introvert and extrovert Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' reading comprehension. To this end, 20 extrovert and 20 introvert students were selected from among a total population of 75 intermediate EFL students based on Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) (1964). Twenty students were also put into the third group as the control group. While in the control group we focused on Teacher Directed Learning (TDL), in the experimental groups we focused on explicit teaching of SDL strategies, in the course of teaching reading. The IELTS Reading Test was administered as the pretest and posttest before and after the study, which took 16 sessions in six weeks. The results of the study showed that the experimental groups outperformed the control group. It was also shown that SDL strategies had a more significant impact on introvert – rather than extrovert - students' reading comprehension. We hope that language teachers try to consider the personality types of their students in the course of pursuing their teaching objectives.

KEYWORDS: Self directed learning strategies, reading comprehension, extrovert, introvert

INTRODUCTION
In today world classes learners are different and so have different goals and learn in different ways (Brown, 1987). Therefore, teachers may not have the sufficient knowledge to handle all these differences. Handling such classes exacts techniques and strategies. One way to solve this problem could be allowing the learners to accept the responsibility of their own learning which, according to Hiemstra (1994), could lead to autonomy. It is in such a context that language-learning strategies (LLSs) have emerged as a means of achieving learner autonomy in the process of language learning (Benson & Voller, 1997; Oxford, 1990). A number of researches have shown the significant contribution of language learning strategies to effective language learning (Cohen & Weaver, 1998; Oxford, 1996). The belief is that learners need to act independently in order to improve their informational needs. Recently, the significance of self-directed learning (SDL) strategies, which are part of (language) learning strategies, is coming to vogue.
Merriam and Caffarella (1999) confirm that SDL has been a major focus of adult education since last decades.

Over the last few decades, we have witnessed an influential shift within the field of education, in general, and language teaching and language learning, in particular resulting in greater stress on learners and learning process in lieu of on teachers and teaching products. Furthermore, today, as Richard and Rodger (2001) also confirm, teaching method is not considered as the most important factor in determining the success or failure of language teaching and learning. The belief is that language teachers should try to make their students less dependent on the teachers and reach a level of autonomy (Tamada, 1996; Wenden, 1991). Therefore, it is suggested that teachers take advantage of the differences in today students' learning styles and personality types for contributing to more successful learning. Emerging developments in the field of L2 teaching and learning such as distance learning, andragogy and SDL emphasize the role of the independent learner in the language learning process.

SDL has its roots in adult learning. By distinguishing learning by adults from learning by children, Knowles (1968) made a great contribution to the concept of SDL. Based on the concept of andragogy, SDL has been described as a process in which individuals take responsibility for their own learning, try to realize their own learning needs, and set goals. In such process, as Knowles (1975) put it, learners should also make decisions on resources and learning strategies and assessing the value of the learning outcomes. In their study, Costa and Kallick (2003) described self-directed learners as those who are self-managing, self-monitoring and self-modifying.

From among the factors which cause individual differences, personality types are the most important one. According to Kirby (1984) the term personality type was started to use when researchers tried to find the ways to match teaching methods and instructional materials to the need of each learner. Numerous studies (Pintrich, Roser, & Degroot, 1994; Wigzell & Al-Ansari; 1993) have found that personality types influence academic achievements. Personality is generally conceived of as composed of a series of traits such as extroversion/introversion, neuroticism/stability, and it is typically measured by means of some kind of self-report questionnaire (Ely, 1986; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964). Studies have revealed that the most eye-catching personality dimension attracting researchers’ focus in the L2 field has always been extroversion/introversion (Dorneye, 2005). According to Heaven (1998) as opposed to extroverts, introverts seek ideas from internal sources such as brainstorming, personal reflection and theoretical exploration. Before starting any kind of activities, introverts prefer to think about it, to work alone and enjoy solitary studying. Eysenck (1965) believes that while extroverts hate reading or studying by them, introverts are enthusiastic about books rather than people, and they enjoy planning ahead.

This study investigated the relationship between SDL strategies and introvert-extrovert Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. We believe that by knowing students' personality types, teachers are able to guess students' needs in English and can decide to select some specific activities and avoid some other unnecessary activities. The rationale behind the study was that...
the personality of learners constitutes a major factor contributing to success or failure in language learning. To cite an example, Naiman, et al. (1978) investigated learners’ personality factors and found out that in "good language learners," extroversion is helpful in learning the language. However, as Ellis (2008) put it, it is somewhat surprising to find that the research that has investigated personality factors and L2 learning is quite scanty and, in many ways, unsatisfactory.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

No one can deny the significant contribution of reading ability to academic, career, and life success in today world context of information. As Akyol (2006:29) put it, reading is a complex dynamic process that makes nonverbal communication between writer and reader possible. According to Rivers (1968), reading is an important skill for English language learners as it contributes effectively to language learning, especially in countries where language learners do not have the opportunity to communicate with native speakers in person but have access to the written form of that language. On the other hand, the major purpose of most of those who are involved in the field of language teaching/learning, whether they are working on reading or any other skills, is to facilitate the process of teaching/learning. It is in such a context that, nowadays, the focus of researchers has been shifted towards the importance of learners' personal differences and their possible influence on the learning process and accordingly, on learning results.

One of the main objectives in foreign language learning area is to enhance awareness about students’ personal differences. As noted and as Brown (2000) also confirms, this is because the success of second language learning is due not only to cognitive factors but also to affective and personality factors of the learners, among which personality is of greater importance. It is in such a context that the paramount importance of personality factors such as introversion and extroversion has come to light in recent years (Dornyei, 2005). They play an important role in the overall performance of language learning in general and in reading comprehension performance in particular.

Findings of researchers show that considering personality factors in planning and presenting education can improve learning processes. However, besides to personality factors, the instructional options of teachers also play a crucial role in developing language learning in general and reading comprehension in particular. One of the most significant of such options is the explicit teaching of SDL strategies, chief among which are metacognitive strategies. This study addresses this area.

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

As Grabe (2004, p19) believes “reading comprehension implies processing efficiency, language knowledge, extensive practice in reading, cognitive resources in working memory to allow critical reflection, appropriate purposes for reading, and strategic awareness”. Language learning strategies are special activities taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more
enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations (Oxford, 1990). Most of language learning strategies assist learners to take responsibility in their learning process and learn independently. It is in lieu of such importance attributed to learning strategies that SDL strategies have recently received much attention of researchers. Exploration of these strategies has helped learners use processes to improve their skills in a L2 or FL. According to Oxford (1997), these strategies can be affected by variables like motivation, attitude, gender, learning styles, and personality type like extroversion and introversion. As it will be described, utilization of SDL strategies has been found to contribute effectively to learners’ performance in language learning.

Busch (1982) explored the relationship between introversion-extroversion and English language proficiency of 105 adult school and 80 junior college learners in Japan. A Japanese version of EPI and a nationally standardized English test, consisting grammar / vocabulary, reading, aural comprehension, and dictation, were used to collect the data. In general, no significant relationship was found between extroversion and language measures. Only, pronunciation, a subcomponent of the oral test, was significantly and negatively correlated with extroversion.

Lightbown and Spada (2006) state that many classroom teachers believe that in second or foreign language learning, extroverts are more successful than introverts, particularly in their communicative ability. In a study, Dewaele and Furnham (2000) found that extroversion is inextricably linked with fluency in second language (L2) production. Also, based on the findings of several studies, extroverts were found to be superior to introverts in short-term memory. Among them is the finding of Eysenck (1981) that to retrieve information from long-term memory introverts need more time than extroverts do. Eysenck believes that this difference could be driven from the overarousal of the introverts. He concluded that introverts would not get the advantage in conducting the tasks that involve processing of several items of information.

Ehrman and Oxford (1995) did a study investigating the relationship between personality type and language learning strategies with a larger sample. This study also showed that extroverts are different from introverts because of using more social strategies. Furthermore, Ehrman and Oxford (1990) found an important relationship between extroversion/introversion and learner strategies of 20 adults learning Turkish as a foreign language. They found that extroverts preferred social strategies such as asking for clarification, and functional practice strategies such as seeking practice opportunities outside of class while introverts preferred to learn alone and avoid social contacts and spontaneous situations. Ehrman and Oxford mentioned that “users of social strategies tend to be open about their thoughts and feelings and… they are realistic and down-to-earth in their learning” (p.375).

Wakamoto (2000) studied the relationship between extroversion/introversion and language learning strategies of 222 Japanese EFL learners. He found that functional practice strategies and socio-affective strategies significantly correlated with extrovert learners. He also found that with introverts, he could see no preferred language learning strategies. He concluded that extrovert learners will ask for clarification more readily than introverts, so they improve their
chances for input needed for developing an interlanguage. The results of analyses of Gan's (2008) study showed that communication strategies correlated with extroversion although this correlation did not reach the significance level. In this study Gan tried to investigate the impact of extroversion on pronunciation, communication strategies, vocabulary and language patterns of L2 learners in Hong Kong. He concluded that extroverts seemed to employ communication strategies more than introverts.

Wakamoto (2007) examined the impact of extroversion/introversion and associated learner strategies on English language comprehension. He found that extrovert Japanese EFL learners used socio-affective strategies more frequently than introvert ones. Millot and Cranney (1973) in a study on relationship between personality type and learning style in reading comprehension found a significant link between personality types of introversion, intuition and perceiving and learning style. In another study, Kiany (1997) investigated the relationship between extroversion and English proficiency of 237 Iranian postgraduate students studying in English-speaking Countries. He used Persian version of EPQ; and TOEFL, IELTS, MCHE, and cloze tests. The results of his study showed a negative and a significant relationship between extroversion and TOEFL subcomponent of reading comprehension. That is, he found that more extroverted learners tended to have lower scores on the reading comprehension. This study also showed that introverts performed better than extroverts at least in receptive proficiency tests and general academic achievement.

In another study by Phongnapharuk’s (2007), 25 students, who registered in the first semester of an English reading and writing course, were selected. The study involved the use of applied metacognitive strategies via CALL to enhance English reading and writing abilities. Phongnapharuk found a significant correlation between metacognition, as one of the important elements of SDL strategies, and students’ English reading abilities. Later, Wichadee (2007, 2011) attempted to investigate this issue by (1) providing a learning contract which required learners to take the responsibility of their own learning, and (2) developing a SDL instructional model in order to improve reading ability of undergraduate students. He reported that the learning contract and his SDL model helped the students significantly improve their reading ability. In the two latter studies students were embroiled in planning, monitoring, and evaluating their own learning. These studies, then, suggest that there is a direct relationship between SDL and reading comprehension. Needless to say that a number of other researches in the related literature show positive relationships between SDL and reading comprehension (Khodabandehlou et al., 2011; Kim, 2010; Zarei & Gahremani, 2010; Meshkat & Hassanzade, 2014).

But research on the relationship between SDL strategies and reading comprehension with respect to personality type is not sufficient. In the present study we addressed this gap in the related literature in a hope to put our findings into teaching practice of second language in order to facilitate the development of second language reading comprehension teaching. The present research, as such, investigated the effect of explicit teaching of SDL strategies on introvert vs. extrovert Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension.
RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to identify the effect of self-directed learning strategies on introvert vs. extrovert Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension, the following research questions were raised:

Q1: Do Self-directed learning strategies have any effect on Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
Q2: Do Self-Directed learning strategies have any effect on introvert Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
Q3: Do Self-directed learning strategies have any effect on extrovert Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
Q4: Do Self-directed learning strategies have more effect on introvert than extrovert Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension?

Based on the above questions, the related null hypotheses were formulated as well.

METHODOLOGY

Design
In the present study while SDL is the independent variable, reading comprehension is the dependent variable. Introvert and extrovert personality traits are also as moderator variables. Due to the fact that two groups receive treatment while the other group (control group) does not receive such treatment and that we have pretest and posttest before and after the study, the design of this study is a pretest posttest control group design, which is a scientifically sophisticated method. It provides a method of investigation to derive basic relationships among phenomena under controlled condition or, more simply, to identify the conditions underlying the occurrence of a given phenomenon.

Participants
Sixty male and female intermediate EFL learners studying English in Parsian Language Institute in Lamerd, Fars, in Iran participated in this study. All the participants were native speakers of Persian and their age ranged between 15-20 years. These participants were selected through conducting the IELTS Reading Test from among a total population of 75 learners in the same language school. It should be noted that the number of the females was more than the male students (34 female students and 26 male students). Then, they were randomly divided into three groups: one control (n=20) and two experimental (group 1, 20 introverts; group 2, 20 extroverts).

Instrumentation
To accomplish the objectives of this study, two tests (pre and posttests) and a questionnaire regarding personality type were administered.

Testing Materials
The IELTS Reading Comprehension Test
Seventy five students were assessed through an IELTS reading comprehension test before the study in order to have 3 homogenized groups of 20 participants each, based on their scores in the
pretest. The same IELTS test was given after the study, after a 16-session practice, to see the impact of TDL and SDL strategies on the control and experimental groups. The test was similar both in format of the questions and their level for the three groups. The test consisted of 3 parts with a total of 13 questions:

Part A: included 4 items that participants were supposed to choose the most suitable heading for each section/paragraph from the list of headings.
Part B: included 5 multiple-choice questions for the participants to answer.
Part C: included 4 items for the participants to identify True/False/Not Given alternatives.

Learners had 25 minutes to answer the questions. It should be mentioned that this test was used for two reasons: Firstly because it is internationally valid, reliable and easy to administer. Second, because there are raters who can reliably and validly score students’ reading skill, since experienced teachers who specifically teach IELTS perpetration courses develop an ability to “guess” students mark with an acceptable degree of precision. Each subject was rated by three different raters, prior to and after the treatment sessions.

Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI), (1964)
Eysenck personality inventory questionnaire was used in the present study. This measure is an internationally reliable instrument which has been translated and validated in Iran (Kiany, 1997). The EPQ is an established and popular personality test with a world-wide usage. The test consists of 90 Yes/No questions, which measure psychological factors of Extroversion (E), Neuroticism (N), and Psychoticism (P). It also has a Lie (L) scale which aims at identifying possible faking on the part of the subject. Twenty one items are related to Extroversion. However, the whole questionnaire was taken by the subjects to avoid violation of the reliability and validity. The Yes/No answers were supposed to be given based on the usual way of acting or thinking of an individual. The researcher used the Farsi version in order for the respondents to answer the questionnaire more accurately. The answer key and the standard rating scales and procedures were also provided in the battery.

Instructional Materials
Interchange3, 3rd edition
The main text book used in this research was interchange 3 by Jack C. Richards with Jonathan Hall and Susan Proctor. This textbook was used in Iran Parsian institute in Lamerd for intermediate learners and it consists of 16 units which are divided into four terms. The main purpose of this book is to integrate reading, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, listening, speaking, and writing. Every unit of this book also contains a reading comprehension text.

Selected Reading Books
These books contain reading pages of different genres and are graded from elementary to upper-intermediate level, using the syllabus devised by Linda Lee and Eric Gundersen. Since the level of students in this study is intermediate, intermediate level was chosen. The main texts used in this research included various reading texts suitable for intermediate learners. They consisted of 15 reading texts which were taught during 16 sessions in one semester. The main
content of these texts was learning reading texts and the purpose was to learn and practice texts with various topics such as foods, communication, friendship etc. The content of the passages was the same for three groups. In experimental groups, these texts were taught to the learners by resorting to various SDL strategies.

**Procedure**

In the first step, the IELTS reading comprehension test was piloted with 20 students with similar characteristics to that of the main participants of the study in order to confirm its reliability. Then the test was implemented for the purpose of homogenizing the sample of the study and to make sure that the study enjoys homogeneous participants with respect to their English language reading comprehension. That is, sixty participants whose scores fell one Standard Deviation (1SD) below and above the mean were selected, out of 75, as the main participants of the study. After selecting the main participants, an attempt was made to figure out their personality type. The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire was administered and the results were analyzed. The EPQ distinguished the extrovert and introvert participants resulting 36 extroverts and 24 introverts. The participants, then, were randomly assigned into two experimental groups (20 extroverts and 20 introverts) and a control group (n=20).

While the control group underwent instruction on TDL over 16 sessions, the students in the experimental groups underwent instruction on SDL. The classes met three times in a week, each session lasting for 90 minutes. The groups were under the supervision of the same instructor. In the treatment period, SDL strategies, taken from Abdullah (2001), were used, as in the following:

The teacher assisted the participants in realizing their learning needs, setting their learning goals, applying appropriate strategies, and evaluating their learning outcomes. Throughout the course, the teacher tried to highlight the students’ awareness of their responsibilities in the course of learning. During the course of experimentation the participants in the experimental groups were encouraged to participate in making decisions about what is to be learned, when and how it should be learned, and how it should be evaluated. The teacher avoided correcting the students’ local errors in order to encourage SDL among them. This strategy led them to feel secure during learning. Afterwards, the teacher tried to encourage students to monitor their own learning. She made it possible by requiring them to reflect on what they did. The teacher also tried to help them to think about their needs and abilities. They were also encouraged to choose appropriate skills and strategies for their learning. The students were said to alter their learning strategy if the strategy at hand had failed.

The fact is that when we assisted students to expand awareness about their own thinking and learning processes, we were helping them think about the effectiveness of the strategies they use in reaching the goals they have set. This way, we were contributing to their metacognitive strategies. Block (2004) believes that, the use of a long-term metacognitive strategy of planning what is to be done, monitoring our progress, and evaluating the results is an effectual way of helping students take more control of their own thought and feeling processes. In order to encourage SDL in our reading classes (experimental groups), we asked learners to read and
underline unknown words without looking up the meaning in dictionary; use contextual clues to guess the general meaning; skip unnecessary unknown words; and break them up into root, prefix and suffix. We also showed them how good readers interpret their reading and what they do when they do not comprehend. We explained that good readers do not move directly through a text without stopping to consider whether the text makes sense based on their own background knowledge, or whether their knowledge can be used to help them understand confusing or challenging materials. They draw on prior knowledge and experience to help them understand what they are reading and are thus able to use that knowledge to make connections. By teaching students how to connect to text they were able to better understand what they were reading. Accessing prior knowledge and experiences is a good starting place when teaching SDL strategies, because every student has experiences, knowledge, opinions, and emotions that they can draw upon.

Finally, in order to measure the participants' reading comprehension ability after the treatment, all of the participants were given the same IELTS Reading test as the posttest.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
First we wanted to see if TDL has influenced the reading comprehension of the participants in the control group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 (a): Paired Samples Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 (b): Paired Samples Correlations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 E1&amp;E2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 (c): Paired Samples Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paired Differences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair E1–E2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E1: The reading comprehension of the participants in the control group before the study.
E2: The reading comprehension of the participants in the control group after the study.
As p-value (0.131) in Paired Samples Test is more than 0.05, the assumption of the equality of the average of the reading comprehension of the students in the control group before and after the study is not rejected. This means that the reading comprehension of the students in the control group do not have significant difference before and after the study. As it is shown in Table 1, there is no significant difference in the average of the reading comprehension of the participants in the control group before and after the study.

At this stage we wanted to see if SDL strategies have influenced the reading comprehension of the introvert participants in the first experimental group.

Table 2 (a): Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1</td>
<td>13.0000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.24443</td>
<td>.72548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F2</td>
<td>16.2500</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.83174</td>
<td>.40959</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 (b): Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F1 &amp; F2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.753</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 (c): Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F1–F2</td>
<td>-3.25000</td>
<td>2.22131</td>
<td>.49670</td>
<td>-4.28960</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F1: The reading comprehension of the introverts in the experimental group before the experiment.
F2: The reading comprehension of the introverts in the experimental group after the experiment.

As p-value (0.000) in Paired Samples Test is less than 0.05, the assumption of the equality of the average of the reading comprehension of introvert students in the two groups before and after the study is rejected. This means that the reading comprehension of the introverts in the two groups have a significant difference before and after the study. Also with regard to the fact that the difference between the average of reading comprehension of the introverts in the two groups before and after the study is negative so it could be concluded that the average of the reading comprehension of the introverts after the experiment has been more than that of before the experiment (Table 2). To put it another way, SDL strategies have had positive impact on the reading comprehension of the introvert students.

Finally, we wanted to see if SDL strategies have influenced the reading comprehension of the extrovert participants in the second experimental group.
Table 3 (a): Paired Samples Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>14.4500</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.43818</td>
<td>.54519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>15.7000</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.62546</td>
<td>.36346</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 3 (b): Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>T1&amp;T2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 ©: Paired Samples Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T1-T2</td>
<td>-1.25000</td>
<td>1.86025</td>
<td>.41596</td>
<td>-2.12062</td>
<td>-3.7938</td>
<td>-3.005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T1: The reading comprehension of the extroverts, in the second experimental group, before the experiment.
T2: The reading comprehension of the extroverts, in the second experimental group, after the experiment.

As p-value (0.0007) in Paired Samples Test is less than 0.05, the assumption of the equality of the average of the reading comprehension of extrovert students in the two groups before and after the study is rejected. This means that the reading comprehension of the extroverts in the two groups have significant difference before and after the study. Also with regard to the fact that the difference between the average of reading comprehension of the extroverts in the two groups before and after the study is negative so it could be concluded that the average of the reading comprehension of the extroverts after the experiment has been more than that of before the experiment (Table 3). To put it another way, SDL strategies have had positive impact on the reading comprehension of the extrovert students.

But as we consider the data more closely, it becomes evident that the difference in the average of the reading comprehension of extrovert students is less than the difference in the average of the reading comprehension of introverts, in the two groups before and after the experiment. This means that SDL strategies have had more positive impacts on introverts rather than extroverts. That is to say introverts have gained more benefits out of explicit teaching of SDL strategies in their reading course.

Discussion
The results of the present study are in contrast with the findings of researchers like Nikoopour and Amini Farsani (2010) which showed that learners with extrovert and introvert personality types did not show any significant difference regarding the use of language learning strategies. But
our findings are in congruent with the findings of a number of other researchers (Wigzell & Al-Ansari; 1993; Pintrich, Roser, & Degroot, 1994; Kiany, 1997; Dwyer, 1998). However, besides to personality factors, the instructional option (i.e., explicit teaching of SDL strategies) we focused upon in this study played a crucial role in developing reading comprehension of the participants. This is also in parallel with the findings of a number of other researches in the related literature that showed positive relationships between SDL and reading comprehension (Kim, 2010; Zarei & Gahremani, 2010; Khodabandehlou et al., 2011; Meshkat & Hassanzade, 2014).

In our study, we noticed that the more self-directed the reader, the more successful s/he has been. That is to say, introverts were generally better readers than extroverts. While extroverts seemed to hate reading or studying by them and preferred social strategies such as asking for clarification, and were more willing to be involved in discussion based and general activities, introverts preferred activities which required careful attention for comprehension. They preferred to think about the texts at hand, and enjoy solitary studying by learning alone and by avoiding social contacts. They liked planning ahead, monitoring their progress, and evaluating the results. In sum, they were in the habit of taking more control of their own learning.

CONCLUSION
The present study investigated the effect of self directed learning (SDL) strategies on introvert and extrovert Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. It was found that:

SDL strategies have significant effect on Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension.
SDL strategies have significant effect on introvert Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension.
SDL strategies have significant effect on extrovert Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension.
SDL strategies have more significant effect on introvert rather than extrovert Iranian EFL learners’ reading comprehension.

The results of this research show that considering personality types like extroversion / introversion in planning and presenting education can improve learning processes and consequently reading comprehension achievement meaningfully. Furthermore, the results show that introverts seemed to have taken full advantage of SDL strategies in their reading comprehension course. It seemed that they were willing to be more self directed.

We believe that by knowing students' personality types, teachers are able to guess students' needs in English and can decide to do some useful activities and avoid some other useless activities. We suggest teachers to pay more attention to the significance of explicit teaching of particularly SDL strategies in the course of teaching reading comprehension. We would also like to suggest researchers to investigate the effectiveness of SDL strategies with regard to other skills and subskills.

Finally, it should be mentioned that as with any other study, this inquiry too had few research limitations. First, this study was conducted at Parsian institute in Lamerd, in Iran. Second, the
sample were narrowed down to merely one institute’ students. Thus, more researches are needed in similar situations to support the findings and to find more about self-directed learning strategies impacts on the students' performances. Third, our time was limited; maybe more time was needed to have more accurate and comprehensive results. Forth, our sample was limited to 60 EFL Learners only. Fifth, self-directed learning strategies could be applied to different language skills and subskills, whereas it was limited to merely EFL learners’ reading comprehension in this study.

REFERENCES


EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL TEACHER’S CRITICAL THINKING AND THEIR SPIRITUAL INTELLIGENCE

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ABSTRACT
This research was conducted to investigate the relationship between English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers’ critical thinking and their spiritual intelligence among 70 Iranian EFL teachers with respect to gender. The objective was to find out whether critical thinking ability has any significant relationship with teachers’ spiritual intelligence. The 70 EFL teacher (35 females, 35 males) aged between 23 and 40 years old with a range of between 1 and 17 years of teaching experience from private language institutes or public schools in Shiraz, Iran, were administered SISI-24, the Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory developed by D. King (2008) and Honey’s Critical Thinking Questionnaire developed by Honey’s (2004). The results obtained through using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation showed that there were significant positive correlations between teachers’ spiritual intelligence and critical thinking. The results of multiple regressions showed that SI, CSE and CET can predict CT. Furthermore using T-Test, it was found that with respect to gender, teachers were significantly different on their scores on SI and female teachers’ SI levels were higher than males’, however there were no significant differences among male and female participants' CT. Besides demonstrating the benefits of utilizing critical thinking and spiritual intelligence to create a safe environment for student learning, this study also highlights the roles of these variables in language teaching.

KEYWORDS: Spiritual Intelligence (SI), Critical Thinking (CT), EFL Teachers

INTRODUCTION
Undoubtedly teachers are influential factors in educational contexts which can effectively motivate learners, produce interesting and pleasurable learning activity and moreover increase the students’ academic achievement, as Campbell (2000) indicated one of the influential key factors in the process of language teaching and learning is teacher. In line with the importance of teachers, individuals who think critically can ask appropriate questions, gather relevant information efficiently and creatively, sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world that enable him to live and act successfully in it (Center for Critical Thinking, 1996a).
Furthermore with the development of technical society, educational system needs more effective and creative teachers who can think critically, since critical thinking poses essential questions about the nature of knowledge and reasoning. As Freeley and Steinberg (2000) stated critical thinking is "the ability to analyze, criticize, and advocate ideas; to reason inductively and deductively; and to reach factual or judgmental conclusions based on sound inferences drawn from unambiguous statements of knowledge or belief".

Robert Ennis (Norris & Ennis, 1989) defines critical thinking as "rational reflective thinking concerned with what to do or believe". According to this definition we can conclude that the capacity to bring reason is deeply interconnected with our beliefs and actions. However critical thinking doesn’t lead to success unless it covers virtually any situation and to figure out the logic of whatever is happening in that situation.

In current literature, issues related to human’s interior or underlying potentials of mind and consciousness are partially neglected in educational contexts. Following the exciting results of studied about Multiple Intelligences (MI) and Emotional Intelligence (EI), Spiritual intelligence (SI) is emitting new demands in educational contexts. Zohar and Marshal (2000) entitled “SQ: the ultimate intelligence” defined SQ as the intelligence with which we ask fundamental questions and with which we reframe our answers. Emmons (2000) illustrated SQ as the adaptive use of spiritual information to facilitate everyday problem solving and goal attainment. Spiritual intelligence can be described as a set of adaptive mental capacities that based on non-material and transcendent aspects of reality, specifically those which are related to the nature of one’s existence, personal meaning, transcendence, and heightened states of consciousness (King, 2008).

On the other hand, there are many investigations that confirm the effectiveness of critical thinking on different aspects of second or foreign language learning, however these research mostly focus on learners performances such as their language proficiency or skill development. Moreover the previous studies on teacher’s critical thinking reveal that there is a significant positive relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ critical thinking ability and their pedagogical success. According to these studies high levels of critical thinking are related to high levels of teacher success as evaluated by EFL learners. It means that more successful EFL teachers are the ones who have benefited from critical thinking abilities. The more critical thinking the EFL teacher is the more successful he/she in his/her teaching career. (Birjandi, 2010; Ghaemi, 2011).

However the available literature in Iran is admittedly low on empirical research on the relationship between EFL teachers’ critical thinking and spiritual intelligence. As such, the scarcity of research in this area necessitates undertaking a precise study in this area.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Critical Thinking**

Our actions to a large extent are affected by the quality of our thought. Critical thinking is a way of thinking about different issues or situations which analyzes or assesses thinking by questioning and clarifying the problems. Paul (1985) defines critical thinking as “learning how to ask and answer questions of analysis, synthesis and evaluation”. Dr. Steven Brookfield (1987) stated that
critical thinking involves two interrelated processes: “identifying and challenging assumptions, and imagining and exploring others.” He also added that “Critical Thinking involves recognizing and researching assumptions that undergird thoughts and actions.”

Although Siegel (1988) defines critical thinking as “the educational cognate of rationality”, and a critical thinker as one who is “appropriately moved by reasons”, he explains about a concept of critical thinking which involves a critical spirit. According to him, critical thinking indicates dispositions, personality inclinations, habits of the mind, and traits of character (Siegel, 1988, 2003).

Facione (1990) defines critical thinking as “purposeful, self regulatory judgment which results in the interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference as well as the explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which judgment is based”.

Critical thinking can be considered from different perspectives. If we want to look at critical thinking as a cognitive process we can refer to Diane Halpern (1996) definition:

“Critical thinking is the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal directed. The kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihood, and making decisions when the thinker is using skills that are thoughtful and effective for the particular context and type of thinking task.”

CT also has been viewed as more than cognitive perspective. Pithers and Soden (2000) assert that critical thinking encompasses a number of abilities such as identifying a problem and the assumptions on which it is based, focusing the problem, analyzing, understanding and making use of inferences, inductive and deductive logic, and judging the validity and reliability of assumptions and sources of data.

Rudd, Baker, and Hoover (2000) expanded these definitions and asserted that critical thinking is a “reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely”. Scriven and Paul (2004) defined critical thinking as, “that mode of thinking - about any subject, content, or problem - in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them.”

Ricketts and Rudd (2004) describe three dimensions of critical thinking disposition:
- Cognitive Maturity: students’ predisposition to looking for opportunities to use reasoning; anticipating situations that require reasoning; and confidence in reasoning ability.
- Engagement: students’ predisposition to be intellectually curious and desire to know the truth.
- Innovativeness: students’ predisposition to being aware of the complexity of the problems; being open to other points of view; and being aware of their own and others biases and predispositions.
Radhakrishnan (2009) stated the characteristics of a critical thinking teacher as below:

- He asks pertinent questions to see whether his students have learned or not.
- He assesses statements and arguments.
- He is able to admit a lack of understanding or information.
- He has a sense of curiosity.
- He is interested in finding new solutions for becoming teaching problems.
- He is able to clearly define a set of criteria for analyzing ideas.
- He is willing to examine beliefs, assumptions, and opinions and weigh them against facts.
- He listens carefully to others and is able to give feedback.
- He sees that critical thinking is a lifelong process of self-assessment.
- He suspends judgment until all facts have been gathered and considered.
- He looks for evidence to support assumption and beliefs.
- He is able to adjust opinions when new facts are found.
- He looks for proof.
- He examines problems closely.
- He is able to reject information that is incorrect or irrelevant.

Previous research reveals that students’ perceptions and interpretations of the academic environment have a certain disposition towards their approaches to learning, and this in turn affects their learning outcomes (Entwistle & Tait, 1990). Young (1980) also believed that if teachers use appropriate instructional methods and curriculum materials, students will improve their critical thinking skills.

Ruminski and Hanks (1995) put emphasize on teachers’ ability to think and teach critically. They asserted that teachers should have a clear concept of critical thinking before they become involved in the process of teaching and evaluation.

**Spiritual Intelligence**

Psychologist Robert A. Emmons in 1999 studied SI. He, who had been studying personality traits and examining virtues applied Gardner’s criteria of identifying intelligences and organized neurological, developmental, evolutionary and psychological evidence. He reviewed the empirical literature in the psychology of religion and concluded that SI is a distinct intelligence. Emmons listed five core characteristics of SI:

1. The capacity to transcend the physical and material.
2. The ability to experience heightened states of consciousness.
3. The ability to sanctify everyday experiences.
4. The ability to utilize spiritual resources to solve problems.
5. The capacity to be virtuous.

He emphasized the relevance of spirituality and its importance for mental health and subjective well-being. In a research done on emotional intelligence Goleman (1995) stated that one’s success is related to high emotional and spiritual intelligence. As Danah Zohar (2000) said in the book *Connecting with our Spiritual Intelligence*, “It provides a context for our actions, as well as the way we assess whether one course of action or one life-path is more meaningful than another.
SQ is the necessary foundation for the effective functioning of both IQ and EQ. It is our ultimate intelligence.”

Spiritual intelligent or spiritual quotient is a set of abilities people use to apply, manifest, and embody spiritual resources, values, and qualities to enhance daily functioning and wellbeing (Amram, 2007).

There has been done some research on this issue which addresses students’ actions towards their surroundings. According to Nafis (2007) with a good and pure soul, students will be able to keep good attitudes and able to practice a lingual well as this will enable them to control themselves from doing things that are wrong in term of values and norms which could influence a well behaved norm. Saidy et al, (2009) claims that Spiritual Intelligence is seen as a factor that influences students’ language skills and the awareness of the needs to enhance secondary students’ language skills through emotional and spiritual balance should be given emphasis in the current educational system. Hassan (2009) asserted that students with high levels of SQ are more confident in taking an action and more sensitive towards their surroundings.

On the other hand, some researchers believe that spirituality should be part of language teaching. Palmer (1999, 2003) suggested that spirituality should be part of a classroom teacher’s training and practice. McGreevy and Copley (1999) presented a number of guidelines for doing so, including a focus on the arts, making the classrooms and school a place of beauty, taking time to ponder profound issues and questions that students want to address, and involving students in service learning projects. Kessler (2000) introduces seven gateways to the soul that teachers can use as part of their classroom practice. Each of the pathways Kessler identified received attention from other researchers.

According to King’s (2008) model of spiritual intelligence, SI is as a set of mental capacities which contribute to the awareness, integration, and adaptive application of the nonmaterial and transcendent aspects of one’s existence, leading to such outcomes as deep existential reflection, enhancement of meaning, recognition of a transcendent self, and mastery of spiritual states and it has four main components: (1) critical existential thinking, (2) personal meaning production, (3) transcendental awareness, and (4) conscious state expansion.

Critical Existential Thinking (CET) is the ability to ponder critically on different meanings, purposes, and other existential or metaphysical issues. And existential thinking is commonplace in definitions of both spirituality and spiritual intelligence (Zohar & Marshall, 2000). Personal Meaning Production (PMP) is the capacity to engender personal meaning and purpose in physical and mental experiences. Transcendental Awareness (TA) is the ability to go beyond personal limitations, and be aware of transcendent dimensions of the self, of others, and of the physical world. Conscious state expansion (CSE) is the capacity to expand the state of consciousness and to reach pure consciousness.

With regard to above mentioned issues and the growing interest and prominence of both CT and spiritual intelligence and the scarcity of research in this area the present study was undertaken to
see whether Iranian EFL teachers’ critical thinking is related to their spiritual intelligence. To this end, the present study aims to; first, investigate the relationship between SI and CT, second, to investigate whether there are any differences in teachers on SI and CT scores with respect to gender.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In order to achieve the purpose of the study the following research question was posed:

Q: Is there any significant relationship between EFL teachers' critical thinking and their spiritual intelligence?

Based on the above-mentioned research question, the following null hypothesis was raised:

H0: There is no significant relationship between EFL teachers' critical thinking and their spiritual intelligence.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The participant in this study consisted of 70 EFL teacher (35 females, 35 males) aged between 23 and 40 years old with a range of between 1 and 17 years of teaching experience. The participants were selected from private language institutes or public schools in Shiraz, Iran. The institutes were chosen based on accessibility.

**Instruments**

**SISI-24**

SISI-24, the Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory, is a 24 item questionnaire developed by D.King (2008) that contains 4 factors / Subscales: Critical Existential Thinking (CET), Personal Meaning Production (PMP), Transcendental Awareness (TA) and Conscious State Expansion (CSE). Responses are provided on a 5-point continuous likert scale anchored by 0 (Not at all true of me) and 4 (Completely true of me). In order to eradicate possible misunderstandings or confusion on the side of the subjects, the translated version of the SISI-24, the Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory was used to collect information on students' spiritual intelligence. The questionnaire’s reliability and validity were satisfactory according to a research conducted by Raghibi (2010), the questionnaire’s reliability coefficient was 67% and its Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 89%. The overall reliability for SISI for this study using Cronbach's Alpha turned out to be 0.82.

**Critical Thinking Questionnaire**

Alongside the spiritual intelligence questionnaire, the translated version of Honey's (2004) critical thinking questionnaire was administered to the participants to evaluate the skills of analysis, inference, evaluation, inductive reasoning and deductive reasoning. The questionnaire included 30 multiple choice items followed by five alternatives consisting of never, rarely, sometimes, often, and always. The reliability of the questionnaire according to Naieneni (2005) was .86 by. The overall reliability for Critical Thinking Questionnaire for this study using Cronbach’s Alpha was 0.84.
Procedure
To gather the required data, the following steps were taken. The participants were EFL teachers who were working in Shiraz public schools or language institutions. Firstly all the teachers were provided with an oral description of the objectives of the test and the two questionnaires. To avoid any misunderstandings, the researcher used the translated versions of the two questionnaires. Then they were given the Honey's Critical Thinking Questionnaire, to evaluate teachers’ critical thinking ability, along with the Spiritual Intelligence Self-Report Inventory, to measure teacher’s spiritual intelligence. The teachers were requested to select the most appropriate answers to the questions. The questionnaire administration took approximately 15 minutes. Teachers were asked to fill out the questionnaires at home in their free time and submit it to the researcher within a week. Having collected the two completed questionnaires, the researcher analyzed the data and extracted the results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Descriptive statistics
In this section, the results of the study are presented and discussed. The descriptive analysis of the participants' SISI-24 and Honey's critical thinking questionnaire are presented in Table1. As the table indicates, the participants were 70 English teachers. The minimum and the maximum scores on SISI are 53 and 93 respectively. The overall mean and SD of the participants on SISI are 75.71 and 11.00 respectively. The participants’ scores ranged from 56 to 110 on Critical Thinking Questionnaire. The overall mean and SD of the participants on Critical Thinking Questionnaire are 86.81 and 11.91.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SI</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>53.00</td>
<td>93.00</td>
<td>75.7143</td>
<td>11.0085</td>
<td>121.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70</td>
<td>54.00</td>
<td>56.00</td>
<td>110.00</td>
<td>86.8143</td>
<td>11.91308</td>
<td>141.922</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results illustrated in Table 2, the mean scores for SI subscales utilized by participants are 22.21 (TA), 21.27 (CET), PMP (16.20), CSE (15.72).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SI and CT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In order to test the relationships between teachers SI and CT, a series of Pearson Product-Moment Correlations was run (table 3). The results indicated that there were significant positive correlations between CT and SI (r = .92, p &lt; 0.01) and CT and SI subscales: CT and TA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(r = .277, p < 0.05) and CT and CSE (r = .542, p < 0.01) and CT and CET (r = .923, p < 0.01) and CT and PMP (r = .675, p < 0.01).

Table 3: Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CT</th>
<th>SI</th>
<th>TA</th>
<th>CSE</th>
<th>CET</th>
<th>PMP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.92*</td>
<td>.277*</td>
<td>.542*</td>
<td>.923*</td>
<td>.675*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

To analyze the data further, Regression Analysis was conducted (table 4). The results indicate that teachers’ total score of SI (β = .855, t = 4.556, p < .01), CSE (β = -.167, t = -2.378, p < .05), and CET (β = .360, t = 3.318, p < .01) are positive predictors of the dependent variable (CT).

Table 4: Regressions Coefficients(a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>26.089</td>
<td>3.765</td>
<td>6.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>.926</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>4.556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA</td>
<td>-.347</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>-.116</td>
<td>-1.557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSE</td>
<td>-.636</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>-.167</td>
<td>-2.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PMP</td>
<td>-.480</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>-.124</td>
<td>-1.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CET</td>
<td>.757</td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>.360</td>
<td>3.318</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a. Dependent Variable: CT)

The results revealed that the model containing scores of CT test can predict 86 percent of the teachers’ spiritual intelligence. In this part of research R^2 = 0.86, indicating that 86% of the variance in CT is explained by the independent variable SI (table 5). The R value is 0.84 which indicates the correlation coefficient between teachers’ CT and spiritual intelligence.

Table 5: Regression Analysis Model Summary for SI Predicting CT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a. Predictors: (constant), SI
b. Dependent Variable: CI)

Teacher Differences on SI and CT with Respect to Gender

To explore whether there were significant SI and CT differences among teachers with respect to gender, a series of independent t-test analyses was conducted (table 6). The results indicated that, with respect to gender, teachers were significantly different on their scores on SI (t
Table 6: Comparison of Means, Standard Deviations and T-Values of Teachers on Their SI and CT Subscales Scores by Gender (N = 70)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male (N = 35)</th>
<th>Female (N = 35)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
<td>66.7714</td>
<td>5.20794</td>
<td>84.6571</td>
<td>7.33622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>77.1714</td>
<td>7.12694</td>
<td>96.4571</td>
<td>6.76645</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Critical thinking has been one of the prevailing concepts in language teaching. According to Halpern (2003) Critical thinking is one of the cognitive abilities that "increase[s] the probability of a desirable outcome... the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions". Today the importance of critical thinking is acknowledged in different educational fields, According to Schafersman (1991) all education must involve not only ‘what to think’, but also ‘how to think’.

Asking questions, inventing new ways of teaching, creating effective techniques and adapting your knowledge in new situations and circumstances in teaching context require a critical teacher. According to Nunan and Lamb (1999) Critical thinking teachers are ones who are capable of monitoring, critiquing and defending their actions in planning, implementing and evaluating language programs. On the other hand spirituality is an integral part of our life which affects human development in numerous fields. We expect teachers to create a safe environment for students’ learning.

For the relationship between CT and SI the results showed that spiritual intelligence had a significant relationship with CT and the variation in teachers’ spiritual intelligence can be explained by taking their CT into account. Therefore, the researcher was able to reject the null hypothesis of the study which stated that there is no significant relationship between EFL teachers’ critical thinking and their spiritual intelligence. Teachers ‘total score of SI, CSE and CET were positive predictors of CT. More specifically, the multiple regression analysis demonstrated that two of the four components of spiritual intelligence as defined by King (2008), namely ‘Critical Existential Thinking’ and ‘Conscious State Expansion’ are significantly positively correlated with CT scores. The size of this correlation indicates that generally high levels of critical thinking are related to high levels of spiritual intelligence as evaluated by EFL learners. Or the more critical thinking the EFL teacher is the more spiritual intelligent in his career. This is hardly surprising since both teachers’ critical thinking and spiritual intelligence addresses numerous questions of ‘how’s, ‘what’s and ‘why’s. The questioning ability of teachers helps them improve their teaching effectiveness (Richards, 1990). All the findings from the previous studies have revealed that critical thinking plays an important role in teachers’ success. A study done by Ghaemi (2011) revealed that there is a significant relationship between EFL teachers’ critical thinking and their teaching success.
According to Scriven and Paul (2004) critical thinking is “that mode of thinking - about any subject, content, or problem - in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them.” According to this definition critical thinking refers to one's internal world as an individual, i.e., people’s internal or spiritual values.

On the other hand both critical thinking and spiritual intelligence address human ability in solving problems. According to Rudd, Baker, and Hoover (2000) critical thinking is a “reasoned, purposive, and introspective approach to solving problems or addressing questions with incomplete evidence and information for which an incontrovertible solution is unlikely”. Emmons in 1999 defines spiritual intelligence as the ability to utilize spiritual resources to solve problems.

With respect to gender, teachers were significantly different on SI, with females reporting higher SI levels, however there were no significant differences among male and female participants' CT.

CONCLUSION
The findings of the present study confirm the important role of critical thinking and spiritual intelligence in language teaching. It is concluded that those EFL teachers that have higher levels of SI are more critical thinkers. The current study revealed that almost 86 percent of those teachers who benefited from CT abilities have higher spiritual intelligence. The present study also investigated the role of gender on teachers’ spiritual intelligence and critical thinking ability. It was found that female teachers’ SI levels were higher than males’, however there were no significant differences among male and female participants' CT.

The relationship between CT and spiritual intelligence suggests that teachers’ ability to analyze, creative and deduce, and solve problems is related with how deeply they think. Spiritual experience enables a teacher to cope with demanding situations in teaching and choose creative new solutions.

The study underlines the importance of critical thinking and spiritual intelligence in English language teaching. The results also imply that more work needs to be done towards measuring the relationship between both SI and CT in ELT. Future research should focus on measuring a larger and more representative and diverse sample of the EFL teacher population, among middle, and high school level teachers. This may find differences in spiritual intelligence and critical thinking among different teaching levels. Concerning the importance of spiritual intelligence in all aspects of life, it is necessary for teachers to increase their information about spiritual intelligence and ways to develop it particularly among students in ELT context.

Although the researcher has made a lot of attempts to minimize the pitfalls of this study, there are some limitations: the population of this study was limited to one city, only Shiraz. Hence, it might not be the true example of EFL teachers and thus the results cannot be generalized thoroughly. The other limitation was that the population of the research was small, only 70 EFL teachers so it was not appropriate to generalize the researches’ results to other groups.
REFERENCES


THE ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION OF SILENT WAY ON THE BASIS OF KARDS MODEL

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ABSTRACT
This study addressed critically the question: why is it that a method like silent way hasn't become so popular among language teachers? To find answer to this question, Silent Way has been evaluated on the basis of KARDS (knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing, seeing) model modules and parameters. KARDS model has been proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2012) as an exclusive alterative modular framework which seeks an education plan for a global society and calls for restructuring of language teacher education to incorporate process-based multidirectional cyclical modules aimed at preparing teachers to be 'strategic thinkers, exploratory researchers and transformative intellectuals. To achieve the goal of the study, we have reviewed Silent Way in details in order to see whether the modules and parameters of KARDS model are satisfied by using this method in education plan or not. At the end, we have come to the conclusion that most of the parameters are not satisfied or are partially satisfied. The findings of the studies led us to some worthwhile insights in teaching language. The most striking one is that clearly we have shown in what respects silent way cannot fulfill the requirements of teaching language for a global society. Another insight coming from the study can be the consideration of this study as a model for language teachers to evaluate the way they teach language in their particular context. Finally, the positive aspects of silent way that were in compliance with KARDS model were also mentioned; therefore, teacher can take them into consideration and use them if they are appropriate for their own situation.


INTRODUCTION
"Why should I speak when my student can?"
"Tell me and I forget, Teach me and I remember, Involve me and I learn"

The above mottos remind us a method of language teaching introduced by Caleb Gattegno in the early 1970s. This method is called "Silent Way" which is well known for the use of colored
sticks called cuisenaire rods and for the approach to the teaching of initial reading in which sounds are taught by colors.

This method, however, was not used for a long time; moreover, was not even widely used at its own time. The question that arises here is why is it that the methods like silent way appear and then disappear within a short period of time. To put it in another way, what rationale lies behind the fact that some methods do not receive lots of appeal and attention among language practitioners? To seek the answer a critical view at the principles and assumptions of the method is called upon. To have a critical view at any method, a kind of sophisticated theoretical framework or scientific theory and model is undoubtedly necessary. The kind of framework that, according to Zeicher(2005), must consider not only issues such as teachers' knowledge, skills, dispositions, cognition, and beliefs but also factors such as educational, cultural and ideological movement as well as major swings in the political pendulum.

The need for having a comprehensive framework is also emphasized by Kumaravadivelu (2012). He states, “if there is a need for comprehensive framework for teacher preparation in the field of general education, which has witnessed substantial exploration and expansion in the last fifty years, then, clearly, the need for such a framework in the relatively nascent field of second and foreign teacher education is even greater” (p. 2).

Now that we live in a post method era, there is a plausible need to choose an up to date framework satisfying the accounts mentioned above and accounting well for the evaluation of the method in question. For this reason, Kumaravadivelu's (2012) KARDS model, which will be elaborated in details later in this study, is adopted.

After the specification of the model, now for the evaluation of the method in question with a critical view, it is required that we review silent way in details. In what follows, some of the aspects of Silent Way (SW) drawn from different teaching books are mentioned.

**SILENT WAY**

**Basic premises for SW**

First of all, as its name implies, the method is based on the premise that teacher should be silent as much as possible and the learners should be encouraged to produce language as much as possible. This is because it is believed that silence makes students to concentrate on what is to be learned. Furthermore, The SW assumes that learners work with resources and nothing else, as they are solely responsible for what they learn. On the top of all that, teaching here should be subordinated to learning.

**Learning hypotheses**

Some hypotheses about how learning can be best taken place are in favor of SW. One of which is that learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned. Another hypothesis is that learning is facilitated by accompanying...
(mediating) physical objects. And finally, learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

**Goals of the Silent Way teacher**

The goals which this method sets for teachers to achieve are: 1. at the end the Students are able to use the language for self-expression. 2. The students develop independence from the teacher; develop their own criteria for correctness. Or to put it in another way, they become independent by relying on themselves. Thus, to achieve this end, the teacher should give them only what they absolutely need to promote their learning.

**Characteristics of the teaching process**

The teacher sets up situations that focus on the structures of the language. These structures are introduced through a language-specific sound-color chart. And they are also constantly reviewed and recycled. Another characteristics associated with SW is that pronunciation is seen as fundamental.

**Nature of student-teacher interaction**

Although the teacher is silent, He is still very active by setting up situations to force awareness, listening carefully to students’ speech, and silently working with them on their production through the use of nonverbal gestures and the tools he has at his disposal. Besides, Student-student verbal interaction is desirable (students can learn from one another) and is therefore encouraged.

**How to deal with feeling of students?**

When their feelings interfere, the teacher tries to find ways for the students to overcome them. Through feedback sessions at the end of the lessons, students have an opportunity to express how they feel. It is hoped that a relaxed, enjoyable learning environment will be created.

**How to accomplish evaluation?**

Although the teacher may never give a formal test, he assesses student learning all the time. Since “teaching is subordinated to learning,” the teacher must be responsive to immediate learning needs. The teacher’s silence frees him to attend to his students and to be aware of these needs.

**The syllabus**

The syllabus that SW proponents follow is Structural syllabus in which Language items, the imperative, numeration, and prepositions of location are of great importance.

**Instructional materials**

Using special objects and materials is a special feature of Silent Way. Color-coded pronunciation charts (Fidel charts) are one of the materials that is specific to this method. The Fidel is a set of charts presenting all the possible spellings of each sound of the language which was originally created for teaching native speakers to read with Words in Color. Color-coded vocabulary wall charts, Colored rods, a pointer, Reading/writing exercises are among other instructional materials...
used in this method. Further, the method makes use of color association to help teach pronunciation; there is a sound-color chart which is used to teach the language sounds.

**Types of learning & teaching activities**
The teacher models a word, phrase, or sentence and then elicits learner responses. Learners then go on to create their own utterances by putting together old and new information. Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses. Teacher modeling is minimal, although much of the activity may be teacher directed.

**Principles**
Silence in SW is considered as a tool to help students to foster autonomy, or the exercise of initiative and to learn how to accept responsibility for their own learning. The teacher’s silence encourages group cooperation as well. The teacher should give only what help is necessary in order for the students to rely on each other and themselves and develop their own inner criteria for correctness as a result. The teacher who is responsible for creating an environment that encourages student risk taking and facilitates learning, also works with the students while the students work on the language. In addition, Teacher provides non-repetitive and motivating practice. He also provides meaning through direct perception, not through translation. He is yet a neutral observer, neither pleased by correct performance nor discouraged by error.

Since errors show the teacher where things are unclear, they are important and necessary to learning. At the beginning and early stages of learning, making errors seems natural; therefore, the teacher needs to look for progress, not perfection. The teacher can gain valuable information from student feedback. Learning takes place in time and at different rates by students. The elements of the language are introduced logically, expanding upon what students already know. Some learning takes place naturally as we sleep. Students will naturally work on the day’s lesson then. The skills of speaking, reading, and writing reinforce one another. The teacher creates a relaxed atmosphere of mutual cooperation and has to take into account students' individual needs and varying levels of competence.

Additionally, a successful learning involves commitment of the self to language acquisition through the use of silent awareness and then active trial. Besides, In Silent Way learners are expected to acquire “inner criteria” and become independent, autonomous and responsible.

Finally, language and culture in silent way are perceived as inseparable; therefore, in teaching the item of target language, the culture associated with that target language should be considered and taught.

**The Silent Way respects**
The silent way respects the learners and their learning processes before anything. This is because students have already mastered professional in their native language and are treated as sophisticated language learners. Another thing the method respects is the impacts of teaching upon learning. That is to say, the Silent Way techniques are designed to allow teachers to intervene without interfering with the learning processes. The other thing respected by the
method is the language being learned - The materials and techniques are designed to bring students into contact the totality and complexity of the new language. Yet, they have to be used in specific way that provides opportunities for working analytically on every pinpointed issue.

KUMARAVADIVELU’S KARDS MODEL
In his book named as Language Teacher Education for a Global Society, Kumaravadivelu calls for a move as restructuring of language teacher education to incorporate process-based multidirectional cyclical modules aimed at preparing teachers to be ‘strategic thinkers, exploratory researchers and transformative intellectuals’. The rationale for such a move, according to him, is globalization which embodies economic, cultural, and educational dimensions.

In line with this move, in the report titled as Transforming teacher education (Alliance, 2008), it is mentioned that notwithstanding their origins, commonalities and differences, all systems of teacher preparation must rethink their core assumptions and processes in the new global context.

To understand the fast-evolving global context and consequently develop language teacher education plan for a global society, five interconnected globalizing perspectives, and the shifting assumptions that these five perspective demand have to be taken into account. These perspectives are: Post-national, Post-modern, Post-colonial, Post-transmission, and Post-method perspective. The first three are related to historical, political and sociocultural developments; the last two to language teacher education. In what follows, each perspective is discussed very briefly.

From the post-national perspective, the Nationalism is being severely challenged by economic and cultural globalization, creating a global cultural consciousness and resulting in the Shifting assumption that educational issues also can be touched globally.

Postmodernism acknowledges complexity and diversity. In other words, instead of looking for one unifying truth, it recognizes a multiplicity of narratives. Individuals are then entitled to construct their own self, and we have here something we call identity formation. The Shifting assumption that emerges from this perspective is questioning ideology, power, knowledge, class, and things like that.

What Post-colonial perspective emphasizes is that Languages like English, French, and Spanish which are of global and colonial nature tended and were considered to be world’s lingua franca formerly. Therefore, there was the threat of linguistic and cultural imperialism. The shifting assumption of this perspective is that many countries have built programs for foreign language education devoid of their cultures, to preserve their own linguistic and culture heritage.

Post-transmission perspective criticizes transmission models as information-oriented, and not enquiry-oriented; hence, designed to transfer a pre-determined, pre-selected and pre-sequenced body of knowledge. The shifting assumption this perspective calls upon is that we should enable
Finally, post-method perspective attacks the concept of method. To this perspective, this concept is limited in a way that it makes teachers enslaved by the rigidity of methods guidelines and methodological paradigms. Nowadays, therefore, we don't have to look for alternative method, but we have look for an alternative to method. The Shifting assumption on the basis of this perspective is that the goal of teacher education is to transform classroom practitioners into strategic thinkers, teachers and researchers.

The five global perspectives mentioned above are related to a set of operating principles that can govern the processes and practices of L2 teacher education. They are: Particularity, Practicality, and Possibility.

The principle of particularity is based on the hermeneutic philosophy of situational understanding, which claims that a meaningful pedagogy must be constructed on a holistic interpretation of particular situations, and that it can be improved only by improving those particular situations. All pedagogy, like politics is local. “Language teacher and teacher education plan must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers, teaching a particular group of learners, pursuing a particular set of goals, within a particular institutional context, embedded in a particular socio-cultural milieu” (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 538).

The relationship between theory and practice is focused broadly by the principle of practicality, and the teachers’ skill in monitoring their own teaching effectiveness is addressed narrowly by this principle. The harmful dichotomy between theory and practice gives rise to the misconception that theorists produce knowledge, teachers consume knowledge. By contrast, teachers must be enabled to develop the knowledge, skill, attitude & autonomy necessary to construct their own context-sensitive theory of practice.

The principle of possibility is drawn from critical pedagogy and opposes language teacher education programs that merely transmit a dead body of content knowledge; instead, it favors those that raise sociopolitical consciousness among all the participants so that they can form and transform their personal and social identity.

KARDS model proposed by Kumar seems an excellent and plausible response to those language teacher education plans which cannot meet the challenges of globalization, and as an answer to the need of restructurings language teacher education. This model is modular in nature and consists of five modules: Knowing, Analyzing, Recognizing, Doing, and Seeing. Each modular is discussed as follows.

**Module 1: Knowing**

The term Knowing is employed here instead of knowledge to exert considerable emphasis on the ways of knowing indicating that knowing is a process; knowledge is a product.
Knowing, implying teacher’s knowledge consists of a three-fold frame of reference: teacher’s Professional knowledge, teacher’s Procedural knowledge and teacher’s Personal knowledge.

**Teacher’s Professional knowledge**

With respect to teacher’s Professional knowledge, the teacher must know fundamental concepts of language, language learning, and language teaching.

Knowledge about language itself entails knowledge of language as a system (phonological, semantic, syntactic system of language), language as discourse (deals with the cohesive nature of connected texts), and language as ideology (deals with a critical analysis of language; its social, political, cultural and ideological meanings; and seeing how it is exploited in the service of power).

Knowledge about learning deals with knowing about psycholinguistic grounds like **Input** (oral/written corpus of target language, by 1. Native speakers, 2. Simplified language by teachers, textbooks, NNSs, 3. peers). **Intake** (collecting and analyzing spoken and written interlanguage produced by learners). **Intake factors** (facilitate L2 development and consist of: 1. Individual factors like age and motivation, 2. Strategic factors like learning strategies, 3. Educational factors like language policies and planning). **Intake processes** (language learning mental operations). **Output** (corpus of learners’ well-formed as well as deviant utterances).

Finally, knowledge about language teaching mostly concerns with knowledge about methods of language teaching. The established methods primarily adhere to two basic approaches to language teaching: Use through usage and usage through use. The former heavily focuses on language as a system, and the syllabus and curriculum designer adherent to this approach carefully select a set of grammatical structures and vocabulary items, and sequence them according to their perceived difficulty level. The assumption here is that grammatical competence ultimately leads to communicative competence, and language learning is more intentional than incidental. The later, on the other hand, considers language learning as more incidental than intentional; therefore, communication and meaningful interaction are primary.

**Teacher's procedural knowledge**

Procedural knowledge relates to management skills and strategies for planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating classroom events and activities. There are several aspects to the management of classroom language learning, the most important of which are topic management and talk management. The first mainly involves managing the structure of information exchange, which in turn involves the type of questions asked and responses expected. The information structure in most language classes follows what is called the IRF sequence, that is, the teacher initiates (I), the learner responds (R), and the teacher provides appropriate feedback (F). In most traditional classes talk sequence predominates. To move away from this rigid formula, teachers are advised to ask referential questions which seek new information and permit open-ended responses from students, rather just display questions which allow learners only to display a closed set of language used. Teachers can closely link their talk management with topic management.
Topic management relates to the content of classroom talk. Normally, teachers confine themselves to discussing the topics included in the prescribed textbook. However, going beyond them and encourage students to initiate topics of their interests is likely to increase their motivation to participate in classroom interaction.

**Personal knowledge**
Teacher’s individual observations, experiences, reflections, and interpretations gathered over a period of time. Unexplained and unexplainable understanding and awareness of what constitutes good teaching that is accumulated by teachers, which has been termed differently by different scholars. For example, Van Manen (1997) names this cumulative awareness as teachers' *sense-making*, teachers' *sense of plausibility* is utilized by (Prabhu, 1990), and Hargreaves (1994) calls it *ethic of practicality*.

Therefore, teachers are expected to have the ability to critically recognize, reflect, review, and reinvent their own identities, beliefs and values.

**Module 2: Analyzing**
L2 teachers must develop the knowledge and skills necessary to analyze and understand learner Needs, motivation, and autonomy.

**Learner Needs**
A needs analysis should be done to discover: What language learners have to learn (their needs), what learners like to learn (their wants), and what they have not yet learned (their lacks). It can be done through questionnaires, interviews, observations, placement tests.

**Learner motivation**
Because of expanding global cultural consciousness, L2 learners are no longer integratively motivated. Non-English speaking world learns and uses English for communicational purposes because English is now seen more as a communicational tool, than as a cultural career. Based on Self- Determination Theory in cognitive psychology, intrinsic motivation functions as an important energizer of behavior. So, motivation is now being conceptualized & theorized to address changing realities.

**Learner Autonomy**
Learner autonomy is the ability to take charge of one’s own learning. Learners can play an active role in topic / talk selection. Learners should develop critical awareness of the cultural constructions, ideologies and social positioning to effectively exercise their agency and develop their own voice.

**Module 3: Recognizing**
Success in teaching depends also on teacher’s recognizing his/her Teaching Self. The teaching self is the inner self teachers bring with them to the practice of everyday teaching. It is accomplished through recognizing: Teacher Identities, Beliefs, and Values.

*Teacher identities*
Identity is the degree of individual’s agency in determining a sense of self.

Teacher identity shapes teacher’s perceptions about what constitutes teaching, and learning. Teacher education must help teachers become aware of the possibilities & strategies for personal/ and professional identity transformation.

Teacher beliefs
Teacher knowledge is filtered through teacher beliefs. Teacher education must help teachers to analyze their beliefs, and to critically reflect on them. Beliefs can be analyzed through teacher narratives, autobiographical reflections. Language teacher beliefs: Concepts such as “best method” and “good teaching” should be abandoned in favor of the recognition of diversity in teachers and the idea that “best teaching” is “the individually best”.

Teacher Values
Values are beliefs with a moral and ethical slant. A teacher is a moral agent. Teachers face dilemmas and conflicts in dealing with agendas pursued by political and religious entities, or by administrators and students. Interrogating the teaching self: Self-observation, self-analysis and self-reflection can help teachers construct their self-image of who they are as persons and who they are as professionals.

Module 4: Doing
Teacher education program must prepare teachers who are successful in Teaching, Theorizing, and Dialogizing.

Teaching
Teaching with two goals: Maximizing learning opportunities and Mentoring personal information. Things should “get learned”, rather than “get taught”. Language teaching is more than teaching language. Teachers should be sensitive to linguistic, cultural and educational demands of the global society.

Theorizing
Pedagogic knowledge must emerge from the practice of everyday teaching. Teachers should keep their eyes and ears open, and notice what works and what doesn’t, with what groups of learners, for what reason, and think about what actionable changes are necessary and possible. The thinking teacher is no longer perceived as someone who applies theories, but as someone who theorizes practice. Tools: action research, case study, classroom interaction analysis.

Dialogizing
Teacher development is a dialogic construction of meaning. A community of teachers is a community of inquiry, which is a community of knowledge builders. The interlocutors in this community practice and work collaboratively to enhance their knowledge and enrich their experience. Different points of view are respected and treated as a resource of reciprocal critique and learning.
Module 5: Seeing

Despite the great importance of that people simply see the things as they are conventionally there, and that is also this module in teaching, little attention and consideration it has received in the field of education and TEOSL. The traditional view of seeing that is prevalent in educational circles is something which everybody else can see. Moreover, they trust what they see. This way of seeing is mostly based on familiarity, experience, and commonsense. It is embedded in human propensity. It therefore requires extraordinary capacity to stop seeing the things that are conventionally there to be seen. The task of teacher regarding seeing is to have critical engagement in relation to what happens “There”, e.g., in the classroom. Kvernbeck (200, p. 361) distinguishes two other kinds of seeing apart from traditional view of seeing, which is termed as seeing in. In what follows three kinds of seeing ordered based on the level of perception are defined:

Seeing-in: Superficially looking at things as they appear.
Seeing-as: Making sense of the experience of current observation.
Seeing-that: Demanding a critical interpretation of what we see.

To see what happens in the classroom we have to consider: Learner perspective, Teacher perspective, and Observer perspective.

Learner perspective
Learners have a role in evaluating teaching acts. Learners are stakeholders of the classroom enterprise. Learners can provide valuable feedback, on an on-going basis. The more teachers gather learner feedback, the better and more productive their intervention will be.

Teacher perspective
Teacher can be considered as manager, acculturator, as professional. Teacher helps STs become accustomed to cultural beliefs and practices of the target language community. Teacher’s view of what constitute a good language class, which refers mostly to class cohesiveness, that is, class functioning effectively as a group.

Observer perspective
Observers may be teacher educators, master teachers, cooperating teachers, supervisors, peers. Observation ensures collaboration among colleagues. Its nature should be meaningful, rewarding, non-threatening feedback aimed at professional development. Teachers see their work in new and critical ways, and engage in self-reflection. No one is marginalized, no one is privileged.

EVALUATION OF SILENT WAY BASED ON KARDS MODEL

Knowing
Professional Knowledge
Professional knowledge relates to the fundamental concepts of language, language teaching, and language learning. Knowledge about language in turn entails knowledge of language as a system, as discourse, and as ideology. In terms of language as a system, silent way has a considerable...
emphasis. It has a structural syllabus; focuses on patterns of sounds, vocabulary teaching, and syntactic system of language. What is more, teachers in silent way should have a good knowledge of systems and subsystems of language.

However, this method does not go beyond structure; and therefore, language as a discourse does not receive considerable attention. The teacher focuses on prepositional meaning, rather than communicative value. The students discover how to produce grammatical sentences no matter whether or not they are appropriate in a context. Teachers here do not necessarily need to know about the functional grammar, speech act, coherent relationship and other discoursal features of language.

This method, as mentioned earlier, considers language and culture inseparable. The teachers are not free to take into consideration their cultural, political, and ideological meanings. Hence, what the teachers have to know about and present is just the culture of the language they are supposed to teach. With regard to knowledge about language learning it was said that in this method the students receive body of language through various sources (e.g. oral and written corpus), then they are expected to work on input through discovery learning or problem solving and internalize them (intake & intake factors). In the end, they are supposed to produce language (output). Finally, a silent way teacher is supposed to have a great knowledge of cognitive psychology, information processing and second language acquisition.

Regarding knowledge about language teaching, the approach to language teaching used in silent way is “use through usage”. A set of grammatical structures and vocabularies items are selected and sequenced based on the perceived difficulty level. Therefore, the teachers are trained to teach the learners in accordance with this approach, and the knowledge about how to teach using the alternative approach, namely, ‘usage through use’ is not necessary.

**Procedural knowledge**

Procedural knowledge is about knowing how to manage classroom learning and teaching. This knowledge plays a crucial role in silent way. The teacher has to set up a classroom environment in which learners become autonomous, independent, and responsible. Moreover, students’ verbal interaction is encouraged and at the same time, ” listening carefully to students’ speech, and silently working with them on their production through the use of nonverbal gestures and the tools he has at his disposal should be done as well. Taking all these into account and controlling the class simultaneously require the teachers to have a great deal of information so as to mange classroom language learning effectively.

**Personal knowledge**

All the teachers using silent way are trained to follow the same route (the principles and procedures of silent way, structural syllabus, and etc.) and reach the same destination (the goal of silent way). In this respect no room remains for the personal knowledge of the teachers. However, personally, I think, here the teachers can use their personal knowledge to implement the principles of silent way more effectively. In addition, they also have idiosyncratic procedural personal knowledge in creating the effective environment for learning.
Analyzing

Learner needs
In silent way, the teacher should give the learners only what they absolutely need to promote their learning. Therefore, the teacher should be able to do a need analysis to find out how far the learner has progressed toward the goals of silent way and what remains for him to learn. That is why in this method the teacher has to assess students’ learning all the time although through informal test. Here the teacher has to know that the students have varying needs; varying needs in the sense that they are different in how well or how fast they learn. Hence, the necessities and the lacks are considered here, but the students’ wants are disregarded. This failure to be sensitive to learners’ wants, according to Kumar (2012) has lead to a phenomenon in Asian countries, where a vast number of learners from poorly-staffed, badly-equipped government-run state schools flock to private language centers that have mushroomed in cities so that they can gain much needed English communicative abilities.

Learner motivation
Learners of silent way are said to be highly motivated in the sense that mastery of linguistic skills are seen in the light of an emotional inner peace resulting from the sense of power and control brought about by new levels of awareness. Silent Way learning claims to "consolidate the human dimensions of being, which include variety and individuality as essential factors for an acceptance of others as contributors to one's own life" and even moves us "towards better and more lasting solutions of present-day conflicts". Discovery learning is considered as the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards.

Learner Autonomy
Here learners are considered autonomous in the sense that they have free will to choose among any set of linguistic choices, the ability to choose intelligently and carefully is said to be the evidence of autonomy and responsibility. However, the autonomy that is defined by kumar, as we have seen above, is not fully satisfied in this method. The students are not allowed to make decision about what to teach and how to teach. The syllabus is already pre-established and must be structural syllabus; therefore, the students have no control over what they learn and are not encouraged to develop their own agency.

Recognizing
The constituent elements of Recognizing are teacher identities, teacher beliefs, and teacher values. All these three elements are actually disregarded in silent way because the role of the teacher as a technician or facilitator is pre-established. Be silent as much as you can. some of these pre-determined principles of silent way might be in conflict with teachers values and beliefs but they have no choice.

Doing
Teaching
Teaching as a subcategory of doing in the language classroom chiefly entails maximizing learning opportunities and mentoring personal transformation. Regarding maximizing learning opportunities, a silent way teacher should be able to create a situation in which Student-student
verbal interaction is desirable (students can learn from one another). The teacher’s silence encourages group cooperation. The elements of the language are introduced logically, expanding upon what students already know. However, the utilization of learning opportunities is limited by pre-determined syllabus, textbooks, and things like that.

With regard to mentoring personal transformation, this method advocates commitment of the self to language acquisition through the use of silent awareness and then active trial. It also views learning as a problem-solving, creative process, and discovering activity in which the learner is a principal actor rather than a bench-bound listener. However, here there is problem solving expected to be done by students but not problem posing. That is to say, it is always the teacher who proposes a problem, and the students have to solve. The reverse is not happened and the students are not supposed to pose a problem. Moreover, the learners' commitment is used in learning units of language as system not political, social, etc. Therefore, there is no critical pedagogy.

Theorizing
Teachers here are consumers of the scholars’ theories. Theory of language and theory of learning of this method are already established and the teachers have to follow.

Dialogizing
Students in silent way can have a verbal exchange to express their self, their feeling and experiences. But this cannot be regarded as a dialogic exchange in which there is an interaction between meanings, between belief systems, between voices, etc.

Seeing

Learner perspective
Learners are considered as problem solvers which are cognitively active in shaping what they learn.

Teacher perspective
Stevick defines the Silent Way teacher's tasks as (a) to teach, (b) to test, and (c) to get out of the way. Here teacher has no voice about what to teach and he has to stick to structural syllabus.

Observer perspective
No room is assigned for a critical observer in silent way. Teachers try to follow what they have learnt as a good way of implementing silent way principles, and the observers when assessing the teachers just tick the items on a check list that satisfy the principles and guidelines of the method at best.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION
If now we come back to our question why is it that a method like silent way does not receive lots of attention, we can find our answer through considering the results obtaining from our critical analysis of this method. We have seen that most of the grounds of silent way are not compatible
with the modules and sub-modules of KARDS model. In other words, most of the parameters of the KARDS model that we have elaborated are not satisfied or are partially satisfied when adopting silent way as an educational plan. To illustrate the point, Assume that an education plan sets out to train the teachers based on silent way principles, assume further that the trained teachers implement what the method wants from them(not possible in all contexts though) and the goals the method pursue are being achieved. Yet, many requirements that a plan needs to tackle the challenge of globalization remain unfulfilled.

In addition to what have been mentioned before, what the silent way suffers more from concerns with the application of operating principles presented by Kumar that can govern the processes and practices of L2 teacher education. These Principles are: Particularity, Practicality, and Possibility. It is not clear whether it can be use for beginner or advanced adult or children, large number of students or a few students. In some situations it is not possible to provide the tools.

Therefore, this method cannot count for particular group of teachers, teaching a particular group of learners, pursuing a particular set of goals, within a particular institutional context, embedded in a particular socio-cultural milieu.

The evaluation that we have done is expected to bring about some precious insights for language teaching. First of all, we have shown in what grounds silent way cannot satisfy the modules and parameters of KARDS model and consequently the needs of globalization. Another insight coming from the study can be the consideration of this study as a model for language teachers to evaluate the way they teach language in their particular context. Finally, the positive aspects of silent way that were in compliance with KARDS model were also mentioned; therefore, teacher can take them into consideration and use them if they are appropriate for their own situation.

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THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT DEMANDS OF OUTPUT TASKS ON EFL LEARNERS' USE OF LISTENING STRATEGIES, LISTENING COMPREHENSION, AND NOTICING OF LANGUAGE FORM

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ABSTRACT
This study explored the effect of different demands of output tasks on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' use of listening strategies, listening comprehension, and noticing of language form. The purpose of this study was to investigate how different demands of output tasks including: listening for memorization, listening for summarization, and listening for visualization have different impacts on learners' listening strategies while listening, listening comprehending, and grammar noticing. In this case, 60 students, in Abidar English Center, located in Sanandaj- Iran, who were all studying 'Interchange 2', were selected to participate in the study. The participants were randomly divided into three groups. Before performing the tasks, the results of a listening comprehension test and a grammar test, as pre-tests, revealed no significant difference among three groups. By performing the different output tasks on three groups, two other tests including: a listening comprehension test and a grammar test were used as post-tests, and a questionnaire was used for assessing the different strategies used at the time of listening. The results showed a significant difference between memorization group with other two groups based on their accuracy in grammar. No difference was appeared in listening comprehension among three groups. Moreover, through working on a questionnaire which demonstrated the strength of a five-factor model underlying Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ): (1) problem-solving, (2) planning and evaluation, (3) mental translation, (4) person knowledge, and (5) directed attention, the different groups employed different listening strategies while listening.

KEYWORDS: Listening strategy, Listening comprehension, Noticing, Language form, Interlanguage, Output task, Task demands.
INTRODUCTION

In the past 10 years, much attention in second language learning research has been devoted to composing hypotheses and theories explaining crucial factors that may develop foreign language (FL) listening comprehension (Nagle & Sanders, 1986; Buck, 1991). Researchers have argued that listening comprehension ability can be taught and trained by using appropriate strategies (Chien & Wei, 1997; Chien & Kao, 2004). Research shows that learners do have their own listening strategies, and there are some differences in what they do in order to comprehend the listening text (Oxford, 1993). To be more successful listeners, listeners should employ a greater number and range of listening strategies; listeners should be flexible in changing strategies to meet the task and be motivated to understand the oral message (Bacon, 1992a). Having a significant and crucial role, the importance of this phenomenon will be enhanced and improved through pre-determined strategies used by learners and may result in a higher level of listening comprehension.

Listening comprehension is a complex activity; coordinating sounds, vocabulary, grammatical structures, and background knowledge involve a great deal of mental processes on the part of the listener (Vandergrift, 1999). O’Malley, Chamot & Kupper (1989) demonstrated that effective EFL listeners use both top-down and bottom-up strategies to construct meaning, while ineffective listeners just determine the meanings of individual words. A study done by Shang (2005) also demonstrated that EFL listeners with lower-proficiency focus on memorizing the picayune linguistic details instead of concentrating on the whole comprehension.

Meaning-focused instruction which ignores the form is not efficient enough in producing successful L2 learners (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). However, the fact that teachers accept every inter-language form produced by the learner without correction will result in fossilized errors (Seedhouse, 1997). Noticing to meaning causes developing competence when other aspects of language such as syntax, semantics, word choice, and discourse structure are considered, too. Skehan (1998) states that "after the critical period, language learning is constrained by similar structures and processes to other learning, and that for learners, meaning takes priority and language form has secondary importance."

For getting the best results at the time of listening, listeners are requested to focus on form in spite of meaning. Long (1991) stated that focus on form overtly draws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication. Therefore, in the process of listening, attention also should be directed to language form for obtaining competency. Swain (1998) argues for the facilitative role of learner production in learning. Swain (1995) also proposes that learners need to attend to form in order to achieve high levels of linguistic competence. According to Ellis (2001a) form refers to not only grammar, but also any aspect of linguistic form, and focus on form can be directed at phonology, vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and even spelling.

Mackey (2000) fulfilled a research based on the development of morphosyntactic and lexical forms to examine the effects of learners’ noticing the gap through interactional feedback in the classroom. The results of his study show that learners, who had more noticing in employing the
Research findings have indicated that output tasks influence language processing and language learning (Swain, 1985, 1995; Swain & lapkin, 1995; Izumi, 1999; Izumi, 2002). So, planning before a task or a pre-planned task results in the improvement of task performance particularly in the field of listening. Schmidt (2001) states that "task requirements, task instruction, and input enhancements techniques affect what is attended to and noticed in on-line processing" (p. 10). Thus, the way language is processed and directs learners' attention toward language form, comes true by planning pre-planned tasks in a way that it provides learners some opportunities, and facilitates the way for more learning in further steps.

It is believed that learners' sensitivity to the way they encode their intended meaning in the target language is enhanced through the act of producing the target language (Swain, 1998). Since, the progression of this matter will be facilitated by planning output tasks in the process of learning.

Output is not the last stage of language learning, that is, it feeds back to previous stages of learning which consequently results in inter-language development (Swain, 1998 & Gass, 1997). Therefore, the present study implies to the pre-planned output tasks in the field of listening. In other words, the study dealt with investigating the effect of different output tasks on the process of listening to make the students raise their meta-cognitive awareness and focus on meaning and form in an integrated way.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

1. Do different demands of output tasks lead to differences in listening strategies employed by the participants?
2. Do different demands of output tasks lead to differences in listening comprehension of the participants?
3. Do different demands of output tasks lead to differences in noticing of language form by the participants?

**METHODOLOGY**

*Participants*

The participants consisted of 75 students (both male and female) in Abidar English Center, located in Sanandaj. All participants have been studying English as a foreign language for two years. The researcher administered a test named "Standardized English Language Knowledge Test" designed by Wei-Tsung Hsu (2008) in order to ensure the homogeneity of the participants regarding their language proficiency level. Based on the obtained scores fallen on standard deviation below or above the mean, 60 learners out of 75 were selected as the participants of the study and 15 participants were discarded.
Instruments
In the present study, four types of instruments were administered:

Standardized English Language Knowledge Test
The participants' English Knowledge Test was composed of 29 test items for the grammatical subtest and 27 test items for the vocabulary subtest which was designed by Hsu (2008). This test was used by the researcher in order to be sure about the homogeneity of students' proficiency level. The reliability index of the test, as reported by Hsu (2008), is .915, measured at Cronbach alpha.

Participants were divided into three groups of Memorization, Summarization, and visualization. The researcher worked on three groups by different output tasks for each. In this case, the memorization group was asked to reproduce a listening part exactly, summarization group was asked to retell it, and visualization group was asked to draw a picture based on what they have got in advance.

Multiple choice listening comprehension test (Pre-test)
While dividing groups into three, and before performing the tasks, a listening comprehension test was used by researcher from "Listening Advantage" book, level 2, written by "Tom Kenny & Tamami Wada" to assess the participants' listening comprehension. The researcher tried to show if learners paid attention to meaning and to what extent. Total score of each participant was calculated based on the number of correct answers.

Grammar test (pre-test)
The format of the grammar test was designed by TOEFL IBT KAPLAN which was assumed to indicate participants' language form noticing before working on different output tasks. The aim of this part was that to what extent learners notice to language form. Total score of each participant was calculated based on the number of correct answers.

Multiple choice listening comprehension test (post-test)
A listening comprehension test was used by researcher from "Listening Advantage" book, level 2, written by "Tom Kenny & Tamami Wada" to assess the participants' listening comprehension after employing different output tasks for a term.

Grammar test (post-test)
The format of the grammar test was designed by TOEFL IBT KAPLAN which was assumed to indicate participants' language form noticing after a term of doing different output tasks.

Reliability of Grammar and listening comprehension tests
To estimate the reliability of the grammar and listening comprehension tests (pre-post tests), KR-21 method of estimating reliability was used. In so doing, the mean, the variance and the number of items (M=11.74, V=79, K=10) were used to calculate reliability manually. The reliability of grammar test (pre-test) was 0.72, that of grammar test (post-test) was 0.74, that of
listening comprehension test (pre-test) was 0.78, and that of listening comprehension test (post-test) was 0.78.

**Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)**
The format of Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) was designed by Vandergrift (2005a) following guidelines outlined by Brown (2001), D’ornyei (2003), and Gilham (2000). The Internal reliability ranges from .68 to .78. The aim of this questionnaire was to assess listeners’ metacognitive awareness and perceived use of strategies while listening to oral texts. The questionnaire demonstrated the strength of a five-factor model underlying the MALQ: (1) problem-solving, (2) planning and evaluation, (3) mental translation, (4) person knowledge, and (5) directed attention. The Likert scale in 6 points, ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”, was used. The researcher asked learners to respond each question carefully. This questionnaire also intended to appraise learners' awareness of the listening process and reflect on their strategy use while listening.

**Procedure**
The English Language Knowledge Test was administered to measure the proficiency of the participants. Total score of the test was 56. In so doing, sixty students who got the enough score were participated in the study and 15 were discarded from the study.

First, the students were divided into 3 groups randomly and they were asked to participate in the listening comprehension and grammar pre-tests to see if there is any significant difference between them before mediation. These two tests were considered as pre-tests.

Then, after several treatment sessions (about one term), participants in group (1) were asked to listen to a short listening part and reproduce it exactly (memorization), Participants in group (2) were asked to listen to the oral text and retell the content of the text (summarization), and participants in group (3) were asked to listen to the oral text and draw a picture based on the content (visualization). Ten minutes were enough for each participant in order to be prepared for producing output as memorizing, summarizing, and visualizing.

In the third step, the participants were asked to describe what they had done during the listening phase. They were asked to check each of the 21 statements in the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), and circle the number which best described their use of listening strategies through a Likert scale ranging from 1 ( I strongly disagree), 2 ( I disagree), 3 ( I partly disagree), 4 ( I partly agree), 5 ( I agree), and 6 ( I strongly agree). The learners were advised that they must work at their own pace. Due to participants' limited command of getting the aim of the questionnaire, MALQ was translated into Farsi.

Fourth, during the final session, the participants were asked to perform two different kinds of tests: (1) for evaluating the participants' knowledge of listening comprehension, the listening comprehension test papers were distributed among learners. The participants were requested to listen to each oral text and circle around the correct choices. The researcher, in this way, showed the extent the participants notice to the meaning. (2) Grammar test was another test for focusing
on the form; the participants were asked to fill the blanks with correct parts of speech. These two tests were considered as post-tests.

Data Analysis

The data of the present study was obtained through listening comprehension test results, grammar test results, and self-reports of participants' listening strategies.

The data set was analyzed in the following steps: (1) The self-reports were analyzed to investigate whether different demands of output tasks would cause different listening strategies during the listening phase. The quantitative test was used to compare group differences of the listed listening strategies. (2) The comprehension check test answers were scored and correct answers were totaled for each participant. Then group differences were analyzed through using one-way between-groups ANOVA to examine the significant difference between the three groups, as measured by the Listening Comprehension post-test. The researcher wanted to understand whether different output tasks would effect on learners' listening comprehension or not. (3) The grammar test answers were scored and correct answers were totaled for each participant to show that whether different demands of output tasks would effect on noticing to the form. The one-way between groups ANOVA was used to investigate the group differences.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this part was to testify the truth or falsity of the research hypotheses. The results of the study presented in three steps provided answers for each of the four research hypotheses. In the first step, the results from One-way between groups ANOVA examined the relationship between learners’ demands of output tasks including memorization, summarization and visualization and their performance on listening comprehension test. In the second step, using one-way ANOVA, the study demonstrated the relationship between learners’ demands of output tasks including memorization, summarization and visualization and their performance on grammar test. In the third step, the study demonstrated the relationship between learners’ demands of output tasks and Meta-cognitive Awareness Listening Strategies including planning-evaluation, directed attention, person knowledge, mental translation and problem-solving.

Homogeneity of the participants

In order to make our sampling fairly homogenous in terms of the level of learners' proficiency, the researcher just included those students whose scores on language proficiency test (named “Standardized English Language Knowledge Test”) used in this study fell on standard deviation below or above the mean and ignored the rest. The total number of score obtained by a test taker on this test was calculated out of 56, one score for each question item. In so doing, 15 participants were discarded from the study since their scores on this test did not fall between the mean and on standard deviation above or below the mean.
Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scores on Proficiency test</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>29.05</td>
<td>11.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As displayed by Table 1, the mean was 29 and standard deviation was 11. Therefore, given on standard deviation above and below the mean, participants whose scores were between 18 and 40 were included in the study (since 29 - 11 = 18 and 29 + 11 = 40). Altogether, the researcher was left with 60 students who were roughly at the same level of proficiency. By doing so, participants selected would be at the same level of intermediate language proficiency.

The students’ performance on listening comprehension pre-test

Pre-test between three groups:

Table 2: Mean and standard deviation of the three groups on listening pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre-test Memorization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.00</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23.35</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visualization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 represents the mean and standard deviation for the three groups which are approximately the same. The mean score of memorization group is 25.00, that of summarization group is 23.35, that of the visualization group is 24.00. The table also gives the number of people in each group which is 20.

Table 3: One-way ANOVA for scores on listening pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>27.64</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.81</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>698.55</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>726.18</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to examine the significant difference between the three groups, as measured by the Listening Comprehension Pre-test. Subjects were divided into three groups according to their demands of output tasks. There was not a statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in students’ scores for the three groups [F (2, 57) =1.12, p=.01] (See Table 3).
The students’ performance on grammar pre-test

Pre-test between three groups:

Table 4: Mean and standard deviation of the three groups on grammar pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre-test Memorization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27.30</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29.15</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visualization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28.65</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 represents the mean and standard deviation for the three groups which are approximately the same. The mean score of memorization group is 27.30, that of summarization group is 29.15, that of the visualization group is 28.65. The table also gives the number of people in each group which is 20.

Table 5: One-way ANOVA for scores on grammar pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>36.633</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.317</td>
<td>.709</td>
<td>.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1473.300</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>25.847</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1509.933</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was not a statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in students’ scores for the three age groups [F (2, 57) = .70, p=.01] (See Table 5).

The students’ performance on listening comprehension post-test

Table 6: Mean and standard deviation of the three groups on listening post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>post-test Memorization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.60</td>
<td>5.96</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26.95</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>1.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visualization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28.15</td>
<td>6.88</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows the mean and standard deviation for the three groups which are approximately the same. The mean score of memorization group is 25.60, that of summarization group is 26.95, that of the visualization group is 28.15. The table also gives the number of people in each group which is 20.
ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>65.10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32.55</td>
<td>.783</td>
<td>.462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2368.30</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>41.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2433.40</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the statistical formula of one-way between-groups ANOVA, the researcher examined the significant difference between the three groups, as measured by the listening comprehension Post-test. Subjects were divided into three groups according to their demands of output tasks. There was not a statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in students' scores for the three age groups \( F (2, 57) = .783, \ p = .01 \) (See Table 7). Therefore, the second research hypothesis was not rejected.

By preparing three different output tasks, the researcher couldn't influence the differences between groups based on their listening comprehension. Maybe designing more output tasks could help finding this distinction. It seems that retelling output tasks may trigger the learners' critical thinking to ask themselves questions about the text and evaluate their perceptions.

The students’ performance on grammar post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memorization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34.05</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30.70</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visualization</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>29.80</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As displayed by Table 8, the mean and standard deviation for the three groups in which the first group mean score is much more than that of other groups.

ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>200.62</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100.31</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1042.35</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>18.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1242.98</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the statistical formula of one-way between-groups ANOVA, the researcher examined the significant difference between the three groups, as measured by the Grammar Post-test. Subjects were divided into three groups according to their demands of output tasks. There was a statistically significant difference at the p<.05 level in students' scores for the three groups \( F (2, 57) = 5.48, \ p = .01 \) (See Table 9). Therefore, the third research hypothesis was rejected.
As displayed by Table 10, Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for memorization was significantly different from summarization and visualization. Summarization did not differ significantly from visualization. By performing different demands of output tasks, there was a significant difference between memorization group with summarization and visualization groups based on their noticing to form. So, the researcher does agree with the ideas of Lightbown & Spada et al. (1990) that a higher level of grammatical accuracy in oral production is expected in combination of form-focused and meaning-focused teaching.

**Calculating the effect size for listening post-test**

Although SPSS does not generate it for this analysis, it is possible to determine the effect size for this result. The information needed to calculate eta squared, one of the most common effect size statistics, is provided in the ANOVA table. The formula is:

\[
\text{Eta squared} = \frac{\text{Sum of squares between-groups}}{\text{Total sum of squares}}
\]

In this study, the researcher divided the Sum of squares for between groups (200.62) by the Total sum of squares (1242.98). The resulting eta squared value is .16, which in Cohen’s (1988) terms would be considered a *great* effect size. It means that the effect size between the three groups is great.

Cohen classifies .01 as a small effect, .06 as a medium effect and .14 as a large effect.

**Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)**

*Reliability of the translated questionnaire*

Due to the lack of enough knowledge of students in comprehending the aim of the questionnaire, the researcher translated it into Farsi in order to clarify the aim of strategies used by learners while listening. Since the researcher, first, estimated its reliability. To
Jawanmiri, M., & Dastgoshadeh, A.

examine the internal consistency of the translated questionnaire, Cronbach Alpha was used, and Cronbach’s Alpha estimated the reliability of the whole items as 0.78.

**Memorization group**

Table 11: MALQ for memorization group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></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>Planning evaluation</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person knowledge</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental translation</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results from the SPSS Software for Windows version 21:00 yielded interesting frequency concerning the MALQ for memorization group. The most commonly-identified strategy was concerned with mental translation.

**Summarization group**

Table 12: MALQ for summarization group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></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>Planning -evaluation</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person knowledge</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>64.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental translation</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>80.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most commonly-identified strategy was concerned with planning-evaluation.

**Visualization group**

Table 13: MALQ for visualization group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></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>Planning-evaluation</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directed attention</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>55.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person knowledge</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental translation</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most commonly-identified strategy was concerned with directed attention.
CONCLUSION

Findings of this study referred that being more aware of the meta-cognitive listening strategies helps learners raise their consciousness and tend toward the variety of suitable strategies while performing the different demands of output tasks for listening.

By gathering the information of the questionnaire, the researcher found that when we listen to something in our real life, we clearly do it with some purpose, if we want to replicate it in our classes as real as outside, it is better to give classroom's listening some purpose, too, and make learners extremely motivated; in this way, their strong motivation leads to succeed. The researcher was looking for some ways which could increase the attention of learners toward language form and help learners shift from content to form to convey their meaning through which. The spoken sentences by English learners should be perfectly grammatical. Because of the complexities observed in English form and particularly in grammar, the successful ways of teaching help more effectively. By prescribing a variety of beneficial output tasks, the EFL learners can promote the gap of inter-language.

Overcoming the performance of tasks correctly needs a variety of skills and experiences obtained by teachers and learners. Getting these results won't be feasible unless by training based on educational skills which are in the favor of both teachers and learners.

Teachers need to think realistically about the task ahead. There are loads of merits and demerits in fulfilling the different tasks. So, distinguishing those with highly positive points and mitigating those with negative points doesn't come true unless by experienced and knowledgeable teachers. The new way of devising syllabi cannot be examined under the old syllabus. All doing in these fields need overall changing and modifying by up to date and modern ways of teaching.

Applicants must hold a recognized teaching qualification. Everyone who has got a degree of teaching is not merely a good and responsible teacher. New teachers should do teaching practice as part of the course, until they find enough confidence to run their classes to meet the learners' needs. For performing different tasks, it is better to make subjects introduced to classes interesting and fun; there is certainly no lack of interest in some subjects which cannot motivate learners to participate in performing output tasks. Some scholars' idea is that although language forms are necessary in language learning, but are not considered in CLT and Interactive tasks, which are supposed to focus on the comprehensibility of the language, give priority to fluency over accuracy. By doing this research, the researcher found loads of reasons which can promote the communication and interaction between learners based on learning English forms and applying them in their speaking. So, getting accuracy in the first step is not considered as a barrier on the way of interacting, but also strives to facilitate this journey faster.

The researcher faced the following limitations in her research study:
First, the researcher teaches in a private English center with limited number of learners in each class, thus the sample size was not large enough, so, the effect of output tasks needs to be examined on more participants. Second, since the researcher could consider just three different output tasks in this study because of the lack of enough time, other types of output tasks need
to be investigated in future studies. Third, long-term effects of output tasks have better results on learners based on their strategies employed while listening, their listening comprehension and their accuracy toward form, but the present study examines just the short-term effects of output tasks. Fourth, according to Ellis et al. (2002) form refers to not only grammar, but also any aspect of linguistic form. Ellis et al. (2001a) argues focus on form can be directed at phonology, vocabulary, grammar, discourse, and even spelling; the researcher could consider just grammar as a part of noticing to form. So, in further studies, preparing some tasks which could cover the different elements of form would be suggested. Fifth, among four skills intervene in learning English, listening was a skill which was considered by the researcher; so, other skills will be recommended.

REFERENCES


SPEECH ACTS AND LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS FOUND IN THE CONVERSATION MODELS OF PROSPECT 1 (AN ENGLISH TEXTBOOK FOR IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS YEAR XII)

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Phone:989173425028

ABSTRACT
This descriptive qualitative study was conducted to find out what speech acts and language functions are found in the conversation models of Prospect 1 (An English Textbook for Iranian Junior High School Students Year XII authorized by Textbook Curriculum Development of the Ministry of Education of the Islamic Republic of Iran). This English textbook was designed for use in Iran’s junior high school grade XII and is of particular interest because it was based on a communicative approach and was student-centered, whereas past traditional textbooks had followed the traditional methods. The task involved the analysis of the utterances of the conversation models based on Searle’s (1976) speech acts taxonomy and van Ek’s (1998) list of macro and micro-language functions. A hand count of speech acts revealed speech acts in 123 utterances. The most frequent speech acts were those of Representative, while no Declarative speech acts were observed. Also it was found that Imparting and seeking factual information accounted for 54.28 percent of language functions and only 0.71 percent referred to Structuring Discourse ones. The results indicated that these pragmatic factors were distributed unequally throughout the conversation models. Finally, some implications were offered for the textbook authors in considering and including all types of the speech acts and language functions in English textbooks.

KEYWORDS: Speech acts, Language functions, Prospect 1

INTRODUCTION
Knowing a language does not just mean acquiring the syntax or semantics (linguistic competence), but to develop and use the knowledge of pragmatics (pragmatic competence). Pragmatic competence in foreign language contexts is defined as the knowledge of communicative action or speech acts, how to perform it, and the ability to utilize the language in proper ways based on the context or contextual factors (Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Roever, 2005). Pragmatic competence helps learners to come up with the problems of miscommunication indifferent cultures, and for effective communication in target language. Therefore, language pedagogy should promote language learners’ pragmatic competence in the target language, especially in terms of emphasis on one of the significant pragmatic features, speech acts, through
adequate pedagogical practices. And also, we, as teachers, have the responsibility to help language learners develop their pragmatic competence by providing them authentic and appropriate pragmatic input and making them familiar with different speech acts and making them enable to produce those speech acts in different contexts.

But, as a fact, in EFL contexts, it is difficult to equip learners with authentic pragmatic input. Because in EFL settings, like Iran, English is taught as a foreign language and most often, the students do not use English in their daily lives. Their exposure to English language is limited to their English classes with non-native teachers and to the textbooks authorized by the Ministry of Education. Therefore, as Razmjoo (2007) believes, textbooks are necessary resource for foreign language learning that has the main role in teaching and learning a foreign language. However, as Gholami, RimaniNikou, and Soultanpour (2012) claims no textbook can be perfect; hence, textbook evaluation is very important to clarify the suitability of the sources and find the best one. Because of this fact it is necessary to evaluate the textbooks constantly to see if they are appropriate and modify them if necessary. This process enables us to make informed decisions through which student achievement will increase and educational programs will be more successful.

This study tries to analyze the conversation models of Prospect 1 based on Searle’s (1976) speech act taxonomy and van Ek’s (1998) list of macro and micro-language functions in order to find the different types and frequencies of speech acts and language functions applied in the conversation models of this textbook.

RELATED STUDIES

Speech Acts/ Functions

According to Yule (1996), speech acts are actions performed via utterances. In English, they are labeled as apology, offer, compliment, invitation, promise, or request. These labels for different kinds of speech acts apply to the speaker’s communicative intention in producing an utterance. The speaker normally expects that the hearer comprehends his or her communicative intention. Searle (1976) classified speech acts into five major categories:

1. Representatives: These speech acts commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition, e.g. asserting and concluding.
2. Directives: These are the speech acts which get the listener to do something, e.g. requesting and questioning.
3. Commissives: These speech acts commit the speaker to some future course of action, e.g. promising and threatening.
4. Expressives: These speech acts express a psychological state, such as thanking, apologizing, and welcoming.
5. Declaratives: These are speech acts which make immediate changes in the state of affairs and tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions, such as declaring war or marriage.
Functions describe the social actions that people intend to perform through language and are expressed in terms like expressing agreement with a statement or showing that one is following a person’s discourse. van Ek (1998) listed 6 macro-functions of language:

1. Imparting and seeking factual information
2. Expressing and eliciting attitudes
3. Getting things done (suasion)
4. Socializing
5. Structuring discourse
6. Communication repair

and 132 micro-functions, e.g., asking, instructing, commanding, suggesting, and requesting.

**Foreign Research on Textbook Evaluation**

Kanik (2002) did a study to show effectiveness of ESP reading materials at both macro and micro level including nine criteria for English for Law courses at Bashkent University in Turkey.

Morgan (2003) studied IELTS preparation materials and showed that there is a need for more materials that are beyond test-taking practice and aim at developing the language competencies that the candidates need for their work or study destinations. Vellenga (2004) made a comparison between EFL and ESL textbooks. She stated that textbooks rarely provide enough information for learners to successfully acquire pragmatic competence.

Yuka (2008) investigated closing sections in “Oral Communications I” textbooks, which are used in Japanese high school English classes, to see how and how much closing sections are presented.


Finally, the most recent study in textbook evaluation has been performed by Maesaroh (2013) on speech acts and gambits found in the conversation models of Look Ahead 2 (an English text book for senior high school grade XI).

**Iranian Research on Textbook Evaluation**

A number of studies have also been done in Iran on the book evaluation. Tavakoli (1995) studied the language functions in the dialogues in the English textbooks of Iranian senior high schools. Razmjojo (2007) investigated the CLT principles in the Iranian high school and private institute textbooks.

Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010) investigated the types of learning objectives represented in Iranian senior high school and pre-university English textbooks using Bloom’s taxonomy of learning objectives.
Iraji (2007), as cited in Koosha and Dastjerdi, 2012) studied the extent to which the principles of CLT and TBLT approaches have been taken into consideration in New Interchange series.

Soozandehfar and Sahragard (2011) analyzed the conversation sections of Top Notch Fundamental textbooks from the pragmatic dimension of language functions and speech acts. Talebinejad and Namdar(2011) investigated the reading comprehension sections of Iranian high school English textbooks (IHSETs) to find out the extent of using discourse markers and their types.

The work reported by Koosha and Dastjerdi (2012) studied the use of request forms in Richard’s Interchange Series, Books I, II, and III.

Moradi, Karbalaei, and Afraz (2013) aimed at the evaluation of Speech Acts and Language Functions in High School English Textbooks (I, II And III) and Interchange Series, Books I, II, And III.

Soleimani and ShafieKhah (2014) attempted to examine the ESP book taught at Payame Noor University for BA Students of Accounting to see whether the book satisfied students according to their objectives, needs, and wants. Regarding the foreign and Iranian studies on textbook evaluation, no study has been done on Prospect 1 textbook, which has recently come into the realm of FLT, with regard to the pragmatic dimension applying Searle’s (1976) speech act classification and van Ek’s (1998) list of macro and micro-functions of language.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Based on the objectives of the current study the following questions will be answered in this research:

1- Which speech acts and language functions are found in the conversation models?
2- How are these speech acts and language functions distributed in the conversation models?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Material**

*Prospect 1* (an English textbook for junior high school students year XII authorized by Textbook Curriculum Development of the Ministry of Education of the Eslamic Republic of Iran) composed of 8 lessons. Each lesson is divided into three sections, *Conversation, Sounds and Letters*, and *Listening and Reading*. Two conversation models are presented in each lesson, one in *Conversation* section and one in *Sounds and Letters* section. Altogether, there are 16 conversation models in this textbook.

**Data Collection Procedure**

In this study, all the 16 conversation models given in the *Prospect 1* were chosen as the object of the study. The aim was to find out what speech acts and language functions are found in them.

Following steps were applied in collecting the data.
All the conversations given in the *Prospect 1* were read to comprehend the information of the texts.

2. The conversations were respectively numbered 1 to 16.

3. The clauses containing speech acts were identified and classified according to Searle’s (1976) 5 different speech acts classes: *Representatives, Directives, Commisives, Expressives,* and *Declaratives.*

4. The clauses in each class were analyzed and sub-classified according to van Ek’s (1998) 6 main functions (*Imparting and seeking factual information, Expressing and finding out attitudes, Expressing and finding out moral attitudes, Deciding on courses of actions, Socializing, Structuring discourse,* and *Communication repair*) and 132 micro-functions: (e.g. *Correcting, Expressing gratitude, Offering assistance, Greeting, Asking someone to spell something,* and etc.)

**Data Analysis Procedure**

As mentioned before, *Prospect 1* (an English textbook for junior high school students year XII authorized by Textbook Curriculum Development of the Ministry of Education of the Eslamie Republic of Iran) is communicatively oriented, therefore, it is conversation-based. The speech acts and language functions analyzed in this research are the ones used in conversations which are included in the *Conversation* and *Sounds and Letters* sections.

As the study is basically qualitative, the only quantitative analysis performed in this study was counting the frequencies of the occurrence of each class of Searle’s (1976) speech act taxonomy and van Ek’s (1998) language functions categories, as well as their percentages illustrated in Table 1 and 2. Also, the chi-square test was applied in order to better illustrate the distribution levels of these pragmatic variables. The results are shown in Table 3 and Table 4.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Results**

Tables 1 and 2 display the frequencies and percentages of and speech acts and language functions, respectively:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Speech Acts</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Declarative</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Commissive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Expressive</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Representative</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>41.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the results in Table 1 reveals the percentages of speech acts show that 41.46% refers to Representatives, 40.65% to Directives, 15.44% to Expressives, 2.43% to Commessives, and 0% to Declaratives. Therefore, it can be concluded that the overall minimum frequency refers to Declarative speech acts (f=0), and the overall maximum belongs to Representative speech acts (f=51).

**Table 2: Chi-Square Results**

| Chi-Square | 51.111 |
| df         | 4      |
| Asymp. Sig.| .000   |

Based on this table, the difference between the frequencies of these speech acts is significant and meaningful. In other words, the speech acts in the conversations of Prospect 1 are not distributed equally and not at the same or close levels of frequency, i.e. Sig. = .000 (p < .05).

**Table 3: Frequencies and Percentages of Language Functions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Functions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Imparting and seeking factual information</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>54.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Expressing and finding out attitudes</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Deciding on courses of actions (Suasion)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Socializing</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Structuring discourse</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Communication repair</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 3, Imparting and seeking factual information comprises 54.28 percent, Expressing and finding out attitudes 10.71 percent, Deciding on courses of actions (Suasion) 12.85 percent, Socializing 12.85 percent, Structuring discourse 0.71 percent, and Communication repair 8.57 percent of language functions in the book. As a result, Imparting and seeking factual information (f=76) is the most frequent class of language functions, and the least one is Structuring discourse (f= 1).

**Table 4: Chi-Square Results**

| Chi-Square | 36.113 |
| df         | 5      |
| Asymp. Sig.| .000   |

According to this table, the difference between the frequencies of these language functions is significant and meaningful. In other words, the language functions in the conversations of Prospect 1 are not distributed equally and not at the same or close levels of frequency, i.e. Sig. = .000 (p < .05).
Discussion

As the results from Table 1 illustrates, out of the five speech act classes in Searle’s (1976) classification, one speech act, i.e. Declarative, was absent among other speech acts. In other words, four classes of Searle’s (1976) speech act classification, including Representative, Expressive, Directive, and Commissive speech acts, were present in the conversation models of the textbook (See Appendix A). Therefore, the lack of the Declarative speech acts in all of the conversation models of this textbook may be regarded as a weakness for this textbook. As Cutting (2002) states, declarative speech acts are used frequently in everyday communication. They are words and expressions that change the world by their every utterance, such as “I bet,” “I declare,” “I resign,” “I announce,” “I pronounce,” and many other utterances which are used in different contexts. Also Searle (1976) explains that all types of speech acts are frequently used in every day communication, and believes that different kinds of situations or contexts enable us to use different types of speech acts in order to maintain the basic relationships in our social lives. Therefore, to become pragmatically competent and functional in almost all the contexts of communication, learners need to gain the knowledge of all types of speech acts so as to be able to apply pragmatically appropriate speech acts in different communicative contexts. In this respect, the conversation models of Prospect 1 do not contain all types of Searle’s (1976) speech acts, on the one hand, and according to the results of the chi-square test in Table 3, the existing speech acts are not equally distributed throughout these conversations.

The results from Table 2 indicate that Prospect 1 textbook covers all the six macro-functions of language. Also a total number of 30 language micro-functions are included in the conversation models of this textbook (See Appendix B). Imparting and seeking factual information comprises 54.28 percent of language functions in the book including identifying, reporting, correcting, asking, and answering question. Then, expressing and finding out attitudes comprises 10.71 percent of language functions including expressing agreement, expressing wants, expressing liking, expressing interest, expressing gratitude, and offering an apology. The third, deciding on courses of actions (Suasion), comprises 12.85 percent of language functions including suggesting a course of action, requesting, instructing or directing, offering assistance, inviting someone to do something, accepting an offer, and declining an offer. Socializing also comprises 12.85 percent of the language functions including attracting attention, greeting people, meeting a friend, replying to greeting, introducing someone, being introduced to someone, and taking leave. Then, structuring discourse comprises 0.71 percent of language functions including giving signals that you are hearing and understanding. Finally, communication repair comprises 8.57 percent of language functions including asking for repetition, asking someone to spell something, appealing for assistance, and spelling out a word or expression. Looking at the frequencies and percentages of these language functions in Table 2, one can find out the fluctuations among these pragmatic variables in the conversation models. Moreover, as the result of the chi-square test shows in Table 4, there is a significant difference in the distribution of the language functions in the conversation models.
CONCLUSION
The present study aimed at identifying and categorising the speech acts and language functions in the conversation models of Iranian seventh grade of junior high school English textbook, Prospect 1 based on Searle’s (1976) speech acts taxonomy and van Ek’s (1998) list of macro and micro-language functions. The results revealed that the most frequent speech acts in Prospect 1 are Representatives whereas Declaratives are not included.

According to Cutting (2002) a good conversation consists of all of the language functions with an equal distribution throughout the textbook. In other words, real conversations in real-life situation contain all of the language functions. So, a good and suitable textbook must include conversations containing all types of these language functions distributed equally throughout the conversations of the book in order to make learners pragmatically competent in their speaking performance. As a result, it is better for the conversation models in Prospect 1 to include all types of these language functions equally. Therefore, it is necessary for the textbook authors to take this pragmatic pitfall of the conversation models of Prospect 1 into consideration in developing later Prospect Series textbooks. Furthermore, according to the results, the existing speech acts and language functions are not equally distributed throughout the conversation models of the textbook, then; this study recommends the authors to use all types of speech acts and language functions at the same frequency or percentage among all of the conversation models.

In relation to these findings, it is worth mentioning that this textbook, like other language textbooks which have been taught in Iran schools, suffers from lack of explicit instruction of pragmatic features, e.g., speech acts. Many Iranian and international studies have examined the effect of explicit instruction on the development of pragmatic knowledge, e.g., Silva (2003); Alcon-Soler & Guzman-Pitarch (2010); Salemi, Rabiee, & Ketabi (2012); Salehi (2013); Rafieyan, Sharifi-Nejad, & Siew Eng (2014). And most of them found that explicit teaching of pragmatic aspects can be very effective and beneficial for students in order to develop their pragmatic competence in target language. It is recommended, therefore, that the textbook authors try to incorporate explicit instruction of pragmatics into the communicative design of the next Prospect textbooks.

Regarding the findings of this study, further studies can be conducted to investigate the presence or absence of different types of speech acts and language functions in later Prospect textbooks.

REFERENCES


Maesaroh, S. (2013). Gambits found in the conversations of Look Ahead 2: An English textbook For senior high school students year XI. ELT Forum, 2(1), 1-7.


**APPENDIX A:**

Speech Acts Found in the Conversation Models of *Prospect 1*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SA Taxonomy</th>
<th>Con. No.</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expressive</td>
<td>1,2,3,7,8,11,13,15,16</td>
<td>Hi, How are you?, Fine, Thank you, Nice to meet you, Bye, Thank you, Welcome to our school, Nice picture!</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commissive</td>
<td>11,13</td>
<td>I’ll call dad, I’m going to visit him today, But I’ll try</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16</td>
<td>What’s your name?, Who is that boy?, When is your birthday?, Is that your father?, How old is he?, What’s خاندان in English?, And how do you spell them?, Sit down, Tell me your names, Look at this picture, Let’s have some cake and milk, Are you coming with me? Can I have my library card? Can I help you? Excuse me</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representativ e</td>
<td>1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16</td>
<td>My name is Ahmad Karimi, I’m your English teacher, That’s Erfan, It’s in Mehr, He’s thirteen, She’s a housewife, I’m in the kitchen, He’s fixing the car</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Declarative</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SA=Speech Act, Con.=Conversation, No.=Number
### APPENDIX B:
Language Functions Found in the Conversation Models of Prospect 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mac-Functions</th>
<th>Mic-Functions</th>
<th>Con. No.</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Imparting and seeking factual information</td>
<td>Identifying</td>
<td>1-2-3-4-9-11-13</td>
<td>I'm your English teacher. I'm Kimia Komijani.</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reporting</td>
<td>7-11-13-15</td>
<td>Ali's not well. He's fixing the car.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correcting</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>It's /w/ not /v/.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asking</td>
<td>1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8-9-11-12-13-14-15</td>
<td>What's your phone number? – Which one is your math teacher?</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Answering question</td>
<td>2-5-6-7-8-9-10-11-12-13-14-15</td>
<td>It's 3445302. I'm 12. I'm in Mehr. I'm in the kitchen. Around 5 in the afternoon.</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Expressing and finding out attitudes</td>
<td>Expressing agreement</td>
<td>4-11-13-15</td>
<td>Ok. , Sure.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing wants</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Can I have my library card?</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing liking</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Nice picture!</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing interest</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Really?</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expressing gratitude</td>
<td>1-2-3-8-16</td>
<td>Thank you</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Offering an apology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Excuse me.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Deciding on courses of actions (Suasion)</td>
<td>Suggesting a course of action</td>
<td>3-9-15</td>
<td>Let’s talk to him.-Let’s meet your English teacher first. Let’s have some cake and milk.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Requesting</td>
<td>1-2-13</td>
<td>Call me before you go. You please say your name.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instructing or directing</td>
<td>1-11-12</td>
<td>Sit down. Look at this picture.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Offering assistance</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Can I help you?</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inviting someone to do something</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Are you coming with me?</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accepting an offer</td>
<td>4-13</td>
<td>I'll try. Yes.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Declining an offer</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>But I’d like some tea with my cake.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Socializing</td>
<td>Attracting attention</td>
<td>5-10-11-12-16</td>
<td>Excuse me, teacher. Mom. Fatemeh.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greeting people</td>
<td>1-2-3-11</td>
<td>Hello. Hi.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meeting a friend</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>How are you, Ali?</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Replying to greeting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Fine, thanks.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Introducing someone</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>This is Ali.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Being introduced to someone</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Nice to meet you.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taking leave</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Bye.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Structuring discourse</td>
<td>Giving signals that you are hearing and understanding</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Oh, I see.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Communication repair</td>
<td>Asking for repetition</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Thirty?</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asking someone to spell something</td>
<td>2-8-10</td>
<td>How do you spell his first name?</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appealing for assistance</td>
<td>10-16</td>
<td>What’s خادم in English? And مطالع؟</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spelling out a word or expression</td>
<td>2-6-8-10-16</td>
<td>Komijani, K-o-m-i-j-a-n-i, jelly, j-e-l-l-y.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>30</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>140</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mac= Macro, Mic= Micro, Con.= Conversation, No.= Number,
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' PERSONALITY TRAITS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THEIR JOB SATISFACTION

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Email: eb_sharareh@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The present study was designed to investigate the relationship between personality traits, emotional intelligence, and English teachers' job satisfaction in Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers. In so doing, a sample of 80 EFL teachers, who were teaching English in English language institutes in Tehran, Iran was selected. The participants’ views towards their job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, and personality traits were investigated using three Likert-type questionnaires. The results of descriptive statistics revealed that Iranian EFL teachers were not satisfied with school-based and system-based factors of their career. Their satisfaction restricted to the intrinsic factors of their job. The results of multiple regression analyses showed that the personality traits are stronger predictors of teachers' job satisfaction. The present study added the potential influence of the personality and emotions in promoting teachers' job satisfaction and a sense of belonging and belief in positive outcomes.

KEYWORDS: EFL Teachers, Emotional Intelligence, Job Satisfaction, Personality Traits

INTRODUCTION
Nowadays, academic work in every field of study is extensively linked to real world professional experience and teaching is not considered as an exception in this case. Thus, if we want to have well-prepared EFL teachers, we should provide real life training program for them. Concentrating on the issue of learning, a teacher is always influenced by many factors throughout his or her learning. It does not matter how old the learner is. The teacher learns or boosts his or her learning through the environment.

The studies on individual and personality differences are a central theme in psychology as well as the other areas of social and behavior sciences (Saklofske & Eysneck, 1998). According to Pervin and John (1995), personality is defined as a unique expression of individual differences in behavior and experience which must out of necessity, be reflected in personal attributes. In other words, psychologically, it is a truism that people are different in many fundamental ways and individuals are characterized by a unique pattern of traits. It could also be defined as “the relatively enduring style of thinking, feeling, and acting that characterizes an individual” (Costa, McCrae & Kay, 1995, p. 124). Moreover, McMartin (1995) also defined personality as “the developing system of distinctive emotional, cognitive and spiritual attributes that manifest themselves in the individual’s characteristic behavior at any point in the life course” (p. 5).
are many different views regarding the issue of the definition of personality and personality traits like any other abstract concepts, as what is meant by personality or personality traits are not usually tangible or measurable directly, however, the main theme is identical.

It is believed that personality factors are important in learning development in general and the improvement of linguistic abilities specifically (Ellis, 1985). Horwitz (1999) pointed out “language learners are individuals approaching language learning in their own unique way” (p.558). Therefore, for many language teachers, personality of the learners is one of the major factors that contributes to their success or failure (Ellis, 1996). In addition, it could also be concluded that individuals who are characterized as particular psychological types, adopt the same way of learning, face almost the same problems in that process, and approach those problems in quite the same way (Fazeli, 2012). Consequently, every one in involves in the process of teaching and learning must be aware of the relationship between learners’ personality traits and their academic performance as personality and personality factors play an important and undeniable role in the area of teaching and learning (Eysenck, 1967; Cattel & Butcher, 1968).

Individual variables such as motivation, cognitive styles, abilities, and learning strategies play an important role in the process of learning and nowadays; many researchers have focused on them in their studies. Mokhtari (2007) asserted that some individuals’ differences such as attitudes, sex, nationality, major, and so forth can affect the frequency and variety of language learning strategy use. One of these learners’ variables which we can mention is intelligence.

In 1990s, the emotional intelligence was introduced for the first time and it was used in many fields including education. This concept was formally developed out of growing emphasis on research on the interaction of emotion and thought in the field of psychology. Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration, to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swapping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope, which include self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself. Later, Goleman reformulated his first definition of emotional intelligence and broke down emotional intelligence into twenty-five different emotional competencies, like political awareness, service orientation, self-confidence, consciousness and achievement drive (Goleman, 1998). Furthermore, Mayer and Salovey (1990) defined the Emotional Intelligence as the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions.

In recent decades, a lot of researchers had investigated these aspects such as logical reasoning, spatial skills, math skills, understanding analogies, verbal skills, etc. for example, Terman (1921, cited in Rouhani, 2008) states that an individual is intelligent in proportion as he is able to carry on abstract thinking. Although Intelligence Quotient (IQ) could predict, to some academic degree, professional and personal success, but there were some people with high IQ scores who were poorly doing in their life and losing their chances of success.
In order to take advantages of social life and interact in an effective and confident environment, it is important to learn a complex set of social skills such as personality traits. The body of literature reveals a lack of empirical research on personality traits and language learning. Educators must be aware of the impact of individual differences among learners and the personality traits on their learning process. Educators must be aware of the research on personality, since one of the goals of education is the personal and social development of learners. Despite the significant role of personality features in differentiating individual learners, and the potential effect it can have on teaching, to date, very scarce number of studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality traits, and teachers' job satisfaction. This issue is highlighted when it is considered in Iranian EFL context.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were posed in order to meet the objectives of the study:

1. Are Iranian EFL teachers' personality traits and emotional intelligence significant predictors of their job satisfaction?
2. Which aspect of Iranian EFL teachers' personality traits is a significant predictor of their job satisfaction?

METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study included 80 EFL teachers who were teaching in English language institutes of Tehran. They were both male and female. Their English teaching experience varied from 10 to 15 years. The present study adopted a convenience sampling method in which a certain group of people are chosen for the study. This sampling method was chosen in order to maximize the number of EFL teachers as close to the researcher's residence as possible in this survey. The researcher invited these EFL teachers working in the high schools to respond to the questionnaires.

Instruments

The instruments of the study consisted of three questionnaires: a) Personality Traits Questionnaire, introduced by Townend (1991), was used to identify the students' thoughts, ideas, and emotions to compare them with those of others. It includes four sub-scales of assertive, aggressive, submissive, and passive characteristics. Each of these sub-scales consisted of 20 questions that were randomly placed in the questionnaire. After reading each item, the testee needed to examine the particular questioned behavior introspectively; if the questioned attribute was present in his behavior with a high degree of frequency then the affirmative echoic was used; otherwise he should choose "no". Actually the answer sheet displays a binary choice; b) Emotional Quotient inventory (EQ-i) developed by Bar-On (1997) model of EI was used in this study. This scale assesses EI based on self-reported responses to 133 items tapping the evaluation and expression of emotion in oneself and others, and using emotions to solve the problems. The Persian version of this instrument was employed to avoid cross-cultural differences and probable misunderstandings regarding the content of the questionnaire. The original Emotional Quotient...
inventory (EQ-i) had demonstrated high internal consistency (Cronbach’s Alpha ranging from .87 to .90), and good two-week test-retest reliability (r = .78) (across a wide variety of cultures) (Bar-On et al., 1997); c) Teachers' Job Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Karavas (2010), consists of four main parts: Part 1 elicits the biographical information about teachers (age, sex, years of teaching experience, types of the schools/institutions, and geographical region of schools/institutions in which they have taught). Part 2 consists of a series of 15 Likert-type statements related to teachers' level of satisfaction with various aspects of their job extrinsic to the task of teaching such as their recognition by students, peers, parents and the wider community, the image of teachers, their status in society, their salary, working hours, benefits, etc. The scores on this part were measured by a 5 point scale ranging from 1= highly satisfying to 5= highly dissatisfying. Part 3 consists of a series of 20 Likert type statements focusing on the second research question of the study. More specifically, this part of the questionnaire elicited respondents’ attitudes towards various school based factors, their work and their relationship with students. The answers on this part were measured on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly agree to 5= strongly disagree. Finally, Part 4 investigates the reasons which teachers express for choosing teaching as a career.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In order to prove the normality of the scores of the emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and personality, a one sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and personality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Emotional Intelligence</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Personality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Parameters&lt;sup&gt;a,b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>487.2500</td>
<td>87.8000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>49.89343</td>
<td>4.89743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Extreme Differences</td>
<td>Absolute</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-.109</td>
<td>-.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
<td>.975</td>
<td>1.320</td>
<td>1.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Test distribution is Normal.
<sup>b</sup> Calculated from data.

As the Table 1 shows, the most extreme difference between the scores is not significant. The measured significance levels for emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and personality scores were 0.29, 0.06 and 0.14; they were higher than the assumed level of significance (i.e., 0.05), therefore, it can be concluded that there was no significant difference between the observed distribution of the scores of emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and personality and they are normally distributed. In order to investigate the first research question of the study in finding whether Iranian EFL teachers' personality traits and emotional intelligence are significant predictors of their job satisfaction, a standard multiple regression was performed. Table 2
provides the extent to which variability in the dependent variable (job satisfaction) is accounted for by the independent variables (personality traits and emotional intelligence).

With regard to Table 2, the coefficient of multiple correlations is presented in the "R" column. R is the measure of the prediction of the dependent variable; in this case, job satisfaction. A value of 0.75 indicates a good level of prediction. The "R Square" or $R^2$ value is the proportion of variance in the job satisfaction that can be explained by the independent variables (i.e., emotional Intelligence and personality traits). It indicates that emotional Intelligence and personality traits explain 57% of the variability of job satisfaction.

In order to determine whether the provided model (emotional Intelligence and personality traits as independent and job satisfaction as dependent variable) is a good fit for the data, a one-way ANOVA was performed. The results are shown in Table 3.

The $F$ value in the Table 3 verifies the fitness of overall regression model for the data. The result shows that ($F = 47.56$, $p = 0$) p value is lower than assumed level of significance (i.e., 0.05), therefore, EFL learners' emotional intelligence and personality traits can significantly predict their job satisfaction (i.e., the regression model is a suitable method for analyzing the data) and the first research question of the study was verified.

In order to investigate the second research question of the study in finding which aspect of Iranian EFL teachers' personality traits is a significant predictor of their job satisfaction, another multiple regression was conducted. Table 4 provides the extent to which variability in the dependent variable (job satisfaction) is accounted for by the independent variables (aspects of personality traits).

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### Table 2: Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>.575</td>
<td>.562</td>
<td>.3976</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence, Personality

### Table 3: ANOVA of regression model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.539</td>
<td>47.56</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>5.344</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>119</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Predictors: (Constant), Emotional Intelligence, Personality

### Table 4: Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>4.77977</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Passiveness, Assertiveness, Aggressiveness, Submissiveness
R is the measure of the prediction of the dependent variable; in this case, job satisfaction. A value of 0.30 indicates a good level of prediction. The "R Square" or \( R^2 \) value is the proportion of variance in the job satisfaction that can be explained by the independent variables (i.e., aspects of personality traits). It indicates that aspects of personality traits explain 9% of the variability of job satisfaction.

In order to determine whether the provided model (aspects of personality traits as independent and job satisfaction as dependent variable) is a good fit for the data, a one-way ANOVA was performed. The results are shown in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA ( ^a )</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 ( ^b )</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>181.335</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>45.334</td>
<td>21.984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>1713.465</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>22.846</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1894.800</td>
<td>79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( ^a \) Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

\( ^b \) Predictors: (Constant), Passiveness, Assertiveness, Aggressiveness, Submissiveness

The \( F \) value in the Table 5 verifies the fitness of overall regression model for the data. The result shows that \( (F = 21.98, p < .05) \) \( p \) value is lower than assumed level of significance (i.e., 0.05), therefore, different aspects of personality traits can significantly predict their job satisfaction (i.e., the regression model is a suitable method for analyzing the data). Table 6 shows the information about the model coefficients. The general form of the model is to predict EFL learners' job satisfaction from their personality traits.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients ( ^a )</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 ( ^a )</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>90.706</td>
<td>2.999</td>
<td>30.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressiveness</td>
<td>-.042</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>-2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>-.365</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>-.278</td>
<td>-2.238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submissiveness</td>
<td>-.193</td>
<td>.224</td>
<td>-.123</td>
<td>-.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passiveness</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>1.375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( ^a \) Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

As can be seen in the above table, assertiveness \( (b = .27, p < .05) \) is a significant predictor of EFL teachers' job satisfaction which would indicate that larger assertiveness is related to higher job satisfaction. In other words, assertiveness aspect of personality traits is a significant predictor of Iranian EFL teachers' job satisfaction. Therefore, the second research question of the study was verified.

The results of multiple regression analyses showed that the personality traits is a stronger predictor of teachers' job satisfaction. This finding supported those of Day (2002), Day et al., (2006) and Shann (1998) who found that teachers are satisfied with the intrinsic elements of their
work such as interaction with students, professional autonomy, and self-growth and express dissatisfaction with issues related to school-based factors. This result also confirms the findings from the study of Karavas (2010) who showed that Greek EFL teachers' satisfaction of their job has a significant relationship with students' achievements. The results of multiple regression showed that the assertiveness aspect of personality traits is a significant predictor of Iranian EFL teachers' job satisfaction. This result confirmed those of Vandenbergh and Huberman (1999) who found that teacher-student relationship enhanced teacher satisfaction and the direct consequences for it when emotional exhaustion, a sense of futility, and reduced personal accomplishment creep into teachers' working lives. The results of this study were in line with those of Zembylas and Papanstasiou (2004) who found that teachers' reliance on student responsiveness was significantly related to the teachers' personal satisfaction.

CONCLUSION
The present study was designed to investigate the impact of personality traits and emotional intelligence on Iranian EFL teachers' job satisfaction in Iranian EFL teachers. Teachers' dissatisfaction with their jobs may be mainly due to the insufficient salary, and/or due to the fact that the educational system does not give appropriate values to different teaching qualities. In other words, teachers believe that for the existing educational system an experienced and skillful teacher is equal to an inexperienced and less skillful teacher. Whatever the reason, this problem - the teachers' dissatisfaction with their job - may deeply affect the teaching methodology on the part of teachers and consequently language learning on the part of learners, as well. These problems may lead to less friendly relationships between teachers and their students, and less time spent on students’ problems with learning English as examples which lend themselves well to support the importance of teachers’ dissatisfaction with their job.

The present study provides implications for English language teachers to pay attention to the concept of emotional intelligence and try to follow strategies and use techniques in order to promote their emotional intelligence. They can share their feelings with colleagues to help them be familiar with each other, enhance their interpersonal communications, develop cognitive abilities, and reduce stress and anxiety.

The implementation of this study in its present suggested form can be justified in terms of some limitations. The participants were selected according to available sampling. The study can be duplicated using procedures that allow a higher degree of randomization and eventually more generalizability.

REFERENCES


THE IMPACT OF TEACHING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION VIA MUSICAL RHYTHM UPON PRONUNCIATION IMPROVEMENT OF IRANIAN KURDISH EFL LEARNERS

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Department of Literature and Foreign Languages, Karaj Azad University

Faraz Pourjam (PhD candidate)
Karaj Islamic Azad University

ABSTRACT
This investigation intends to seek into investigating the impact of teaching pronunciation through a fun activity of Rhythm upon the learners’ pronunciation improvement. This study is to discover whether students in this group will gain a significant improvement in pronunciation compared to the other group. To ensure the homogeneity of the two groups, the Nelson Proficiency Test will be administered among 120 Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. 82 students whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean (scores from 26 to 38) were chosen as homogeneous subjects for this study. Next, Pearson test of English is handed to students as the oral pre-test. Then, Levene's test for equality of variances is employed to demonstrate that four sets of scores have equal variances and therefore are homogeneous at pretest. Two-way AVOVA is employed after that to show statistically significant effect for gender and pronunciation improvement. Levene's test for equality of variances is also employed to demonstrate that four sets of scores (control & experimental, male and female) have equal variances and therefore are homogeneous at post-test. Finally, Two-way ANOVA is utilized to testify the veracity of null hypotheses. ANOVA detected a statistically significant effect for group, i.e. teaching music and rhyme. Accordingly, the first null hypothesis was rejected. Thus with high degree of confidence it can be claimed that Teaching music and rhyme affects pronunciation of young Iranian EFL learners. Additionally, ANOVA results revealed no statistically significant effect for gender. Accordingly, the second null hypothesis was not rejected. With high degree of confidence it was claimed that teaching music and rhyme affects pronunciation of young Iranian EFL learners and using this method for teaching pronunciation in Iranian context will bring about fruitful educational implications.

KEYWORDS: Teaching Pronunciation, Musical Rhythm, Pronunciation Improvement, EFL Learners, Kurdish Dialect

INTRODUCTION
Rhythm of English is conceived of as one of the hugest difficulties for many foreign learners of English. It is more vital for EFL learners who have a very diverse structure in their L1 (e.g. Kurdish). These learners are not generally provoked for pronunciation exercise. Consequently, this research will investigate the impact of musical rhythm, upon pronunciation improvement.
Rhythm, in fact, is timing patterns amid syllables. Nevertheless, the timing patterns are not similar in all languages. There are, principally, two contrary sorts of rhythm in languages: stress-timed and syllable-timed. In keeping with Mackay (1985), stress-timed rhythm is decided by stressed syllables that happen at standard gaps of time, with an irregular and varying number of unstressed syllables among them; syllable-timed rhythm is founded on the whole number of syllables as each syllable receives roughly identical quantity of time. English, with a fluctuation of stressed and unstressed syllables, is apparently stress-timed.”(Chen, C. et al 1996).

**Statement of the problem**

Kurdish, with almost the same weight and time in all syllables, is syllable-timed. The syllables in Kurdish have approximately very similar length and weight. Many Kurd learners are not conscious about this distinction. They employ the rhythm of Kurdish (syllable-timed rhythm) when they speak English. So these pronunciation difficulties might cause speech to become incomprehensible. It possibly will also be tedious for the learners to perform pronunciation and word stress in traditional language teaching method. Numerous students are fed up with the conventional methods which teach word stress. L1 interference is a major distress for EFL learners’ performance. A language like Kurdish which has a radically dissimilar stress system with English can inflict the fact that the learners put stress in any syllables in a word or a sentence. So as to aid students understand that English rhythm is dissimilar with Kurdish, we are capable of using these two illustrations:

Kurdish: syllable timed rhythm         English: stressed timed rhythm

English rhythm consists of higher bouncing balls (stressed syllables) and lower bouncing balls (unstressed syllables), which indicates English as a language with different length and weight syllables. On the other hand, Kurdish comprises of identical bounces that represent Kurdish as the language with similar weight and length syllable language.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

All over the centuries, specialists in diverse fields - philosophers, scientists, teachers and therapists have distinguished the role of music for remedial and developmental functions. During the last two decades, researches have had major progresses in the theory of foreign language learning. Several researchers find the educational conjoining of language and music unpredictably persuasive since there are frequent historical and developmental evidences of music's connection with language learning. Language and music are the two approaches which human beings employ to be in touch and communicate themselves via sound. Many ESL students who have achieved advanced high levels are still having problem in communicating, owing to low clearness. Word and sentence stress are constituents that donate to a great extent to intelligibility. The schoolwork consists of detailed methodology that can be functional in many ESL classrooms. Envisage you are a highly developed adolescent English language learner (ELL). This is your last year of high school, and you have completed the overwhelming confronts of passing all necessary standardized tests and gaining adequate credits to graduate from school. Your highly developed understanding of the English language has brought your admission at many highly regarded universities. Your awareness of English grammar very much surpasses that
of the normal graduating high school students. You are able to discriminate between a gerund and an infinitive. Your knowledge of past perfect is perfect, and you can reel off comparatives and superlatives. You have perfectly learned the intricate syntax, grammar, and vocabulary of English. In reality, there appears no hurdle to your social and academic achievement, except for one setback. Your meager pronunciation hinders your capability to interact in words. Youngster language learners are not probable to automatically “lift” the pronunciation models of a new language, while native speakers of English instinctively obtain the abilities to make the rhythmic impulses of our language very untimely in life. It is merely the time when another speaker falls short to produce satisfactory stress, intonation, and rhythm. We expect that we become attentive of these aspects at all.

**Historical processes in pedagogy of pronunciation**

Pronunciation teaching has been connected to the most accepted recent method utilized (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). Pronunciation was rarely taught throughout the supremacy of the grammar-translation method. From the 1940s through the 1960s, pronunciation was given prominence in the Audio-lingual Method. Over this period, instruction concentrated on imitation and memorization, with recurrent use of error correction. Learners were for long hours in language labs listening to and repeating sounds and phrases. Ideal pronunciation was the chief objective. This trend to highlight pronunciation weakened for the next two decades. Some ESL specialists questioned if pronunciation might even be practically taught. The formerly admired drills exercised were believed to be futile. Accordingly, pronunciation instruction was nearly overlooked. Conversely, in the 1970s, some professionals started to reassess the significance of pronunciation, but with a new focus on communicative practice and learner participation (Morley, 1975).

Since the 1980s, attention to pronunciation has rematerialized, for the most part for use in academic and work-related frameworks. The newest focal point of pronunciation instruction is to allow ELLs to become efficient and competent speakers. As more holistic, interactive approaches have become progressively more well-liked, pronunciation instruction is now being taken in hand within the context of authentic communication (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin1996; Morley, 1991). Now that pronunciation instruction is deriving from its normally-marginalized role in ESL instruction, professionals are finding out that ideal grammar is not adequate. The ebbs and flows of a language are attained via a natural-like accent. Acculturation is the capacity of the beginner to get a feel for and survive within the leading culture, without abandoning their first culture. The influence of music on today’s community is unfeasible to fail to notice. Tuning into most television or radio channels will give rise to a flood of music-based songs and advertisements. Without a doubt, music has become a main part of mainstream culture. Success in acculturation can enhance successful language acquisition (Schumann, 1986).

**Working with children**

Children are attracted to nursery rhymes, rhythmic activities, and songs as key texts in building concepts of reality. Though, it sounds that only innovative teachers go after the methods recommended in an institutional framework. Surely, the enhancement of language teaching might be viewed as the aim; in itself a main reason to probe and create.
Songs endorse the application of hand gestures, rhythmic movement, and the format permits public presentation. All of these promote abilities which are not mentioned in more conventional language teaching contexts. In effect, this is at variance significantly with the recent teaching practices employed in most situations that maintain language is best taught via teaching in vocabulary and the regulations to merge them. The effectiveness of such teaching, nevertheless well regarded by most teachers as it is textbook-related and moderately easy to manage, is not very high. The musical method concentrates on establishing fun with the language and allowing words come in a more normal way, and per se has more in common with interactive language learning method, that uses social interaction, small groups, and peer conversation. Music might be incorporated into a more authentic way of learning language. It helps out learners not only with learning of vocabulary, but also acquisition of language-related data. Advantages of applying music in the early on childhood language class are the upshots of the natural sympathy of music with language. Universal music activities that comprise singing and rhythm help promote the growth of aural discriminating skills, with incorporation of letter sounds, syllabification, and words pronunciation. Children pay special attention to delicate differences in tone and timing, which allows them to master their accent perfectly.

Working with adults
Several young adults/adults that pursue the EFL lessons are not total beginners, which mean that they already have some previous command of the language; either they have mastered it via usual school education or by individual experience. Typically, adults start the course either to get ready for tests in their school/university or for occupation headway, occasionally just for personal means. Much of the difficulties that students face in the study of English are a result of the extent to which their mother language varies from English, leading them to frequently make errors of syntax and pronunciation or to allot grammatical models of their own language to English, articulate some sounds wrongly or with problem and to confound items of vocabulary famous as false friends. In addition, cultural distinctions in interaction styles and likings are noteworthy. As expected, students who do not do extremely well with customary delivery methods are required to be dealt with in a different way, but the appropriate nature of that teaching, either musical, rational, or some other means might rely more on the teacher’s personal capacities than student needs.

A review of the researches done in the field
Accent and clearness, the ability to be comprehended, make up for a major assistance to interpersonal interactions. The major constituents of accent are segmental features: spoken sounds and mixtures of sounds, and the suprasegmental facets: stress (length and loudness used for syllables), intonation (speech music or rising and falling of voice pitch), and liaisons or rhythm (word connections during flows of speech). Suprasegmental features of language go beyond the segmental production of vowels and consonants. They enlarge athwart the register of unique sounds and are typically automatically produced by native speakers. Many specialists assert that learning suprasegmentals might help general clearness even more than acquisition of the segmental features usually stressed in the classroom (Grant & Levis, 2003).
Following is an outline of momentous findings, or requirement thereof, pertaining to these issues explained. As rhythm is worldwide, (Martinec, 2000), it looks a reasonable supply to put into practice in the schooling of students who come from varied cultural and linguistic environments. Some investigation has demonstrated that overt instruction of English models may bring about major enhancement of production, even after L1 rhythmic models have been deeply acquired (Adams, 1979). The significance of position rhythm has in pronunciation has directed the focus of this research.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**
Align with the research purposes; the following research questions are formed:

1. Does teaching English through musical rhythm have any significant effect on the development of young Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation improvement?
2. Does gender of young Iranian EFL learners' affect their pronunciation improvement through teaching musical rhythm?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**
120 Iranian EFL elementary learners in an English language institute aged from 7-9 years old will participate in this study. To ensure the homogeneity of the two groups, the Nelson Proficiency Test will be administered among 120 Iranian EFL learners. 82 students whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean (scores from 26 to 38) were chosen as homogeneous participants for this study.

**Instruments**
The following instruments are employed in order to conduct the study:

1. First, to ascertain the homogeneity of the participants of the study in terms of language proficiency, a general language proficiency test named Nelson Proficiency Test will be utilized.
2. An oral pre- post tests using some observation cards to determine the differences in each group before and after the instruction will be employed.

**Procedure**
To ensure the homogeneity of the two groups, the Nelson Proficiency Test is administered to 120 EFL learners. Afterwards, reliability of Nelson proficiency test is calculated through K-R 21 Method. 82 students whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean (scores from 26 to 38) were chosen as homogeneous participants for this study. In control group and experimental one 42 and 40 students are assigned with 45 male participants and 37 female ones respectively. After that Pearson test of English is handed to students as the oral pre-test. Next, reliability of pre-test is computed through Cronbach's Alpha formula. Then, Levene's test for equality of variances is employed to demonstrate that four sets of scores (control & experimental, male and female) have equal variances and therefore are homogeneous at pretest. Two-way AVOVA is employed after that to show statistically significant effect for
gender and pronunciation improvement. In experimental group teacher uses musical rhythm to teach as the treatment of the study while in the other one she does not. At the end of the term a posttest is given to both experimental group and control one to check any significant difference between their performances. Later, Reliability of post-test is computed through Cronbach's Alpha. Levene's test for equality of variances is also employed to demonstrate that four sets of scores (control & experimental, male and female) have equal variances and therefore are homogeneous at post-test. Finally, Two-way ANOVA is utilized to testify the veracity of null hypotheses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
This section presents the results of the study which was an attempt to investigate the effect of teaching rhyme and music on young Iranian EFL learners’ pronunciation improvement. To obtain the goal, the researcher tested the null hypotheses stated on the basis of the research questions. The first step to answer the research questions was to calculate the descriptive statistics for the related conditions, and the second step was to submit the data to repeated measures ANOVAs to determine whether there are significant differences between the conditions specified for each null hypothesis. The following represents the steps of screening the data against each null hypothesis.

**Homogeneity process through nelson Proficiency Test**
To ensure the homogeneity of the two groups, the Nelson Proficiency Test was administered among 120 EFL learners. Those students (N = 82) whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean (scores from 26 to 38) were chosen as homogeneous participants for this study. Descriptive statistics for this homogeneity test is represented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>32.27</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td>6.109</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score of participants was 32.27 with standard deviation of 6.109. The min of students was 20 and the median of the group was 32.00.
Figure 1: Nelson Proficiency Test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability of Nelson Proficiency Test</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>K-R 21 Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excluded</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Reliability of Nelson Proficiency Test

Table 3: Between-Subjects Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Reliability of pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability of Pretest</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excluded</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score of participants in control group for men was 19.61 with standard deviation of 5.639 and mean for female was 19.47 with standard deviation of 6.177, for experimental group
the mean score of male participants was 18.45 with standard deviation of 5.096 and for female the mean was 19.28 with standard deviation of 5.410.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19.61</td>
<td>5.639</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>19.47</td>
<td>6.177</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19.55</td>
<td>5.815</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18.45</td>
<td>5.096</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>19.28</td>
<td>5.410</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18.83</td>
<td>5.188</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19.04</td>
<td>5.351</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>19.38</td>
<td>5.737</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19.20</td>
<td>5.496</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.057</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances demonstrates that the hypothesis of equal of variances was supported because Sig. was .96 at pretest, which is greater than the .05 significance level for
this study \((p > \alpha)\). Therefore it was concluded that four sets of scores (control & experimental, male and female) have equal variances and therefore are homogeneous at pretest.

Table 6: Two-way AVOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>17.597</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.866</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>.904</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>29933.545</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29933.545</td>
<td>961.114</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>9.246</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.246</td>
<td>.297</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>2.403</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.403</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group * Gender</td>
<td>4.658</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.658</td>
<td>.150</td>
<td>.700</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2429.281</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>31.145</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32660.000</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>2446.878</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ANOVA failed to detect a statistically significant effect for group, \((F = .29, p = .58, p > .05, \text{Effect size} = .004)\). Moreover, ANOVA results found no statistically significant effect for gender \((F = .07, p = .78, p > .05, \text{Effect size} = .001)\). Accordingly, there was no significant difference between the pronunciation improvement of participants in control and experimental groups, and also between male and female participants before facing any treatment. Also, the interaction effect of Group * Gender was not significant \((F = .15, p = .70, p > .05, \text{Effect size} = .002)\)

Table 7: Reliability of post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability of Posttest</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Number of Students</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excluded(^a)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Between-Subjects Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value Label</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean score of participants in control group for men was 21.00 with standard deviation of 5.143 and mean for female was 21.32 with standard deviation of 5.850 for experimental group.
the mean score of male participants was 25.64 with standard deviation of 5.619 and for female the mean was 24.39 with standard deviation of 6.307.

Table 9: Dependent Variable: Pronunciation at Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>5.143</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21.32</td>
<td>5.850</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21.14</td>
<td>5.408</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25.64</td>
<td>5.619</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24.39</td>
<td>6.307</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25.08</td>
<td>5.894</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23.27</td>
<td>5.813</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22.81</td>
<td>6.191</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23.06</td>
<td>5.953</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Dependent Variable: Pronunciation at Posttest
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Dependent Variable: Pronunciation at Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.345</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.793</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances manifests that the hypothesis of equal of variances was proved since Sig. was .79 at posttest, which is greater than the .05 significance level for this study ($p > \alpha$). As a result it was concluded that four sets of scores (control & experimental, male and female) have equal variances and therefore are homogeneous at posttest.

Table 10: Two-way ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>333.221</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>111.074</td>
<td>3.414</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>43257.257</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43257.257</td>
<td>1329.695</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>301.521</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>301.521</td>
<td>9.269</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>4.404</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.404</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group * Gender</td>
<td>12.398</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.398</td>
<td>.381</td>
<td>.539</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2537.474</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>32.532</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2870.695</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Null Hypothesis One**

ANOVA detected a statistically significant effect for group, i.e. Teaching music and rhyme ($F = 9.26, p = .003, p < .05, \text{Effect size} = .10$). Accordingly, the first null hypothesis which predicted that Teaching music and rhyme does not affect Pronunciation of young Iranian EFL learners was rejected. Thus with high degree of confidence it can be claimed that Teaching music and rhyme affects Pronunciation of young Iranian EFL learners.

**Null Hypothesis two**

Additionally, ANOVA results revealed no statistically significant effect for gender ($F = .13, p = .71, p > .05, \text{Effect size} = .002$). Accordingly, the second null hypothesis which predicted that gender of Iranian students does not affect their pronunciation was not rejected. Also, the interaction of Group * Gender was not significant ($F = .38, p = .53, p > .05, \text{Effect size} = .005$). The findings of the study clearly stated that teaching pronunciation through having fun and music bear direct influence upon students. As with the case of children, the findings imply that they will be much more affected by music as their biological features allow them to be so. Concerning adults, more intensive line of research needs to be conducted as to accurately determine which age range is how much affected by music in terms of the pronunciation improvement.
CONCLUSION
Due to the complexity and intricacy of the nature of the issue, finding a logical and appropriate answer to the questions raised in this paper can be beneficial in many ways and many aspects. This study is designed to investigate the effect of teaching the pronunciation through a fun activity of musical rhythm on the EFL young learners’ pronunciation improvement. “The Angle of the North, a statue by Anthony Gormley in the north West of England, gives us a satisfying metaphor to deal confront with the biggest difficulty teachers’ see regarding motivation.” (Rogers 1996:61). Teaching word stress is one of those angles of North. So it is very essential for the teachers to overcome this problem.” (Hammer, J. 2009: 57).

English is a very rhythmical language, so that a learner who can maintain the rhythm of the language is more likely to sound both natural and fluent. The two components of the system which have the greatest influence on rhythm are sentence stress and the various features of connected speech, i.e. what happens to words when we put them in an utterance.” (Darn, 2007:7). Perception of rhythm of English is a very essential stage for learning a language. It may be a phase for pronunciation improvement. Sound pronunciation is an indispensable factor in having an intelligible and comprehensible speech. Musical rhythm can be viewed as a new and efficient one.

Limitations
Even after perception practicing word stress is a big problem for many EFL learners and teachers in Iran particularly for the young learners. Using the rhythmic technique, I have tried to find a solution to overcome this problem. It is obvious that the human child from the times she/he sits on her/his parents’ lap starts clapping and learning while she is having fun. This method seems to be very effective in teaching rhythm of English through a fun way to practice rhythm of English unconsciously. The participants of this research will only be Iranian EFL young learners. Boukan will be the geographical area in which the research will be conducted. All participants will be Iranian EFL students who live in Boukan and they can speak Kurdish and Persian and no other nationalities will take part in this research. All the participants are in elementary level of English.

REFERENCES


THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER AUTONOMY AND LEARNER AUTONOMY AMONG EFL STUDENTS IN BANDAR ABBAS

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ABSTRACT
This study examined the relationship between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy among teachers and English as a foreign language (EFL) university students in Bandar Abbas, Iran, in two samples: a) 25 professors of Islamic Azad and Payam Noor universities of Bandar Abbas, b) 77 MA students of those universities majoring in English Teaching and English Translation. Professors were asked to complete Teacher Autonomy Scale (TAS) and students were asked to fill Learner Autonomy Questionnaire (LAQ). The independent t-test and the one-sample t-test were applied to examine the relationship between Teacher autonomy and learner autonomy and to clarify autonomy level of students. The results of the study indicated that there was no significant relationship between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy and also, the autonomy level of students was high. The finding of the study can be applied not only to language learning contexts, but to all kinds of learning. Autonomy equips students with the power to deal with everyday situations and find solutions to the problems they encounter.

KEYWORDS: autonomy, teacher autonomy, learner autonomy

INTRODUCTION
In the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning, as the theory and practice of language teaching enters a new century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its more prominent themes (Benson, 2001, p. 1) and a number of justifications for advocating learner autonomy in language learning have been proposed (Finch, 2000). Nanuli Chitashvili (2007) stated that autonomy is a complex socio-cognitive system, manifested in different degrees of independence and control of one’s own learning process, involving capacities, abilities, attitudes, willingness, decision making, choices, planning, actions, and assessment either as a language learner or as a communicator inside or outside the classroom. The second language learning will proceed most effectively if learners are allowed to develop and exercise their autonomy. Benson (2008) argued autonomy is directly related to learning so the role of the learner and his/her contribution in the process of second
language learning is very important. Teachers and learners are working on and with each other in the process of learning autonomy. The teacher autonomy and learner autonomy are interacting with each other. According to Smith (2001), “Teachers also need to constantly reflect on their own role in the classroom, monitoring the extent to which they constrain or scaffold students’ thinking and behavior, so as to engage students in autonomous and effective learning”. If students want to learn to take control of their learning, the teacher may need to learn to let learners learn by themselves while providing necessary help. But learner autonomy cannot be simplified only as freedom from the control of the teacher, freedom from the constraints of the curriculum, even freedom to choose not to learn. In fact, Berofsky (1997) considered that the most important freedom that autonomy implies is “the learner's freedom from self, by which we mean his or her capacity to transcend the limitations of personal heritage”. Burkert and Schwienhorst (2008) took the view that teachers who themselves are autonomous learners may have a positive influence on the development of autonomy in their students. Learner autonomy has been considered as an essential part of learning in the last ten years based on the learners themselves, their needs, interests and reasons to learn a subject (Guevara de Leon, 2010). Learners are the makers of their own fortune and valued members of a learning community that is their class. It is up to learners if they want to learn. Many experts in the field of educational reform reported that empowering teachers is an appropriate place to begin in solving the problems of today’s schools (Melenyzer, 1990). If we are to empower teachers and exalt them as professionals, then, like other professionals, teachers must have the freedom to prescribe the best treatment for their students as doctors or lawyers do for their clients. This freedom is teacher autonomy and is not restricted to the classroom but also must include decisions that impact the classrooms such as school structure and organization (Pearson & Hall, 1993).

The present study aimed to explore the relationship between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy among the professors and the EFL university students majoring in English language translation and English language teaching in Bandar Abbas.

LITERATURE REVIEW
In the field of second and foreign language teaching and learning, as the theory and practice of language teaching enters a new century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of its more prominent themes (Benson, 2001, p. 1). According to Nunan (1997) the concept of autonomy in language learning is linked to the communicative approach. The second language learning will proceed most effectively if learners are allowed to develop and exercise their autonomy. The connection between autonomy in language learning and the communicative approach is, therefore, relatively well-developed at a theoretical level. The definition of teacher autonomy becomes more ambiguous as one reviews the literature on the subject. What seems like autonomy to one teacher may seem like isolation to another. One teacher may view autonomy as a means to gain substantial freedom from interference or supervision; another may view it as the freedom to develop collegial relationships and accomplish tasks that extend beyond the classroom. Some teachers thrive on autonomy, while others perceive it as a means for principals to avoid their duties (Fraser & Sorenson, 1992).
Thavenius (1999) argued that teacher autonomy refers to the teacher’s ability and willingness to help learners take responsibility for their own learning (p.160). The teachers’ role in an autonomous language classroom is to help learners learn by exposing them to the language and providing opportunities for them to practice the new language in class as well as at home (Lowes & Target, 1999). A teacher aiming to foster learner autonomy in his classroom also has to be aware of the importance of differentiation. Differentiating instruction is the idea of accommodating different ways learners learn; to design the lessons according to learners’ needs and differences in the classroom. In a differentiated classroom it should be taken into consideration that learners have different abilities, skills and backgrounds. All of this affects the way they learn (Tomlinson, 2003). The learner autonomy teacher is one who helps learners become more aware of themselves as language learners (e.g. styles, needs, difficulties) and encourages greater independence in learning ‘while recognizing that as learner expertise increases, teacher involvement inevitably decreases’ (Hurd, 1998, p. 70).

A number of definitions of learner autonomy exist in the field. Little (1991) conceptualized autonomy as "a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (p. 4). He believes that the capacity for autonomy will be demonstrated in the way learners learn and in the way they transfer what they have learned to wider contexts. Benson (2001) defined autonomy as “the capacity to take control over one’s own learning” (p. 2). It is not a method of learning; rather it is an attribute of the learner’s approach to the learning process. According to him, control over learning may take different forms at different levels of the learning process. Other researchers such as Wenden (1991), Littlewood (1996) and Scharle and Szabo (2000) defined learner autonomy in different dimensions such as learning and acquiring strategies and attitudes – learners’ ability and willingness and the freedom and responsibility.

It is of vital importance to understand the dynamic relationship between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy. They are interrelated and interactive. Smith (2001) explained explicitly their relationship, "Teachers also need to constantly reflect on their own role in the classroom, monitoring the extent to which they constrain or scaffold students' thinking and behavior, so as to engage students in autonomous and effective learning". As a result, teachers are required to get fully prepared for teacher autonomy. To promote LA, Yang (1998) suggested that teachers embark on new roles as helpers, facilitators, advisors, and guides. Teachers also provide information and help change learners’ misconceptions through lectures, discussions or reading materials. Knowing and understanding the principles of learner autonomy is important before refusing or supporting it. New roles for teachers and learners are emerging and teaching has to be adapted to them. Autonomy requires a fundamental change in educational practices, and teachers and learners need to generate new developmental plans, according to continuous learning and reflection on their learning needs and purposes. Autonomous learning should be occurred through negotiation and cooperation between teachers and learners (Riasati & Mollaei, 2014).

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**
To this end, the following research questions were addressed in this study:
1. Is there any significant relationship between teacher autonomy and their Students to become autonomous in the learning foreign language?
METHODOLOGY

Participants
The Participants of this study consisted of two groups of professors and students taking part in Azad University and Payam Noor University of Hormozgan province, Iran. In fist group, there were 25 professors in teaching and translation of English (both male and female). In another group there were 77 M.A students of those universities. They were majoring Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Translation at the Department of Foreign Languages. They were studying in first and second semester. The participants were selected randomly as the sample of this study.

Instruments
To determine whether teacher autonomy has any correlation with learner autonomy, two instruments were used in this study. First, a Teacher Autonomy Scale (TAS) and second, a Learner Autonomy Questionnaire.

Teacher autonomy scale (TAS)
The TAS was developed by Pearson and Hall (1993). The 18 items on the scale were originally designed to elicit the degree to which teachers perceive they have autonomy in the following areas: (a) selection of activities and materials, (b) classroom standards of conduct, (c) instructional planning and sequencing, and (d) personal on-the-job decision making. In the study of Pearson & Moomaw (2005) of the TAS which utilized a stable factor structure with improved internal consistency reliability .83, that was computed based on Cronbach’s alpha.

Learner autonomy questionnaire (LAQ)
It is designed by Zhang and Li (2004). It has two parts including 21 items after they were revised and predicted on the basis of the learning strategies classified by Oxford (1990), Wenden (1998) and O’Malley & Chamot (1990). The first part had 11 questions and each had five-point Likert scale (1= never, 2=rarely, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=always). In the second part there were 10 questions. They should be answered based on five multiple-choice items.

Procedure
The participants were given the questionnaires and were requested to complete the survey, so that their autonomy level was obtained. The teacher's questionnaire was taken 15 minutes to answer it and student's questionnaire was taken 20 minutes to be completed. The data were collected in one month.

Data analysis
After collecting the data, the TAS and LAQ were scored based on the Likert-scale, the scores are respectively 1,2,3,4 and 5. In order to investigate whether there was a match or mismatch between teacher autonomy and learners autonomy, the independent t-test was used to calculate the correlation between the autonomy means in two groups.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Descriptive statistics

Table 1: Statistics for teachers’ and learners’ autonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46.07</td>
<td>6.195</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>57.18</td>
<td>10.957</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>83.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The autonomy in both groups was scaled to be between 0 and 100. The teachers’ autonomy had mean 46.07 with standard deviation 6.195 and between 33.33 and 66.67. The learners’ autonomy had mean 57.18 with standard deviation 10.957 and between 33.33 and 83.33.

Inferential statistics

Table 2: Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality for teachers’ and learners’ autonomy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>1.045</td>
<td>0.225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learners</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>0.411</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows results for Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Since sig. values were greater than 0.05 (Sig.>0.05) for two groups, the statistics were not significant which means that the distributions were normal.

Investigation of the research questions

To answer the first question, the autonomy means in two groups were compared by the independent t-test as follows.

Table 3: The independent t-test for comparison of autonomy between teachers and their students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>46.07</td>
<td>6.195</td>
<td>1.239</td>
<td>-11.11</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learner</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>57.18</td>
<td>10.957</td>
<td>1.248</td>
<td>-8.1</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The result of independent t-test as presented in table 3 shows that there was a significant difference between two groups at the level of 0.01 (Sig.=0.001<0.01). This indicated that teacher autonomy significantly different from their students to be autonomous. Thus we infer that there is no relationship between teacher autonomy and their students to become autonomous in the learning foreign language.

The second research question concerned the autonomy level of students. The learners’ scores obtained from questionnaires were compared with the expected value of 50. According to table 11, the mean of the learners’ scores (M=57.18) was greater than 50. The statistically significance of the difference was tested by the one-sample t-test as presented in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statistics Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Test value = 50</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall effect</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>57.18</td>
<td>10.957</td>
<td>1.248</td>
<td></td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td>5.757</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in table 4, the t-test was significant at the level of 0.01 (Sig. =0.001<0.01). Thus the difference between the learners’ autonomy mean and the expected value (50) was significant. In other words, the level of autonomy among Iranian EFL students is higher than the average.

**Discussion**

In order to answer the relationship between TAS and LAQ, it was done by comparing the autonomy means of two groups with the independent t-test. It was revealed that teacher autonomy significantly different from their students to be autonomous. Thus, we infer that there is no relationship between teacher autonomy and their students to become autonomous in the learning foreign language. However, the relationship and interaction between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy were emphasized in many researches in this era. According to Camilleri (1999), a learner autonomous classroom is a place where learners and teachers have constructive interaction with each other and learn from each other. The teacher is responsible for helping learners become aware of alternative strategies and learning styles. LA does not mean learning without a teacher. As, little (1991) said that it is one misconception about LA. The learners need to work collaboratively with their peers and with the help of teachers. As shown in table 4, the difference between the learners’ autonomy mean and the expected value (50) was significant. In other words, the level of autonomy among Iranian EFL students is higher than the average.

**CONCLUSION**

Based on the findings of the present study, it can be concluded that there is no significance relationship between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy among EFL students in Bandar Abbas, whereas the existence of relationship between these two components was mentioned in
many other researches. The result of the study revealed that autonomy level of student is higher than expected average of autonomy level.

**Limitations of the study**

The subjects of this study were English-major learners. A different research project with participants in a large sample size from other backgrounds that have dissimilar types of motivation would be interesting. This study employed quantitative research design, further study can be designed and employed qualitative research design and in order to get a complete picture of students’ views, the questionnaire can be accompanied with other instruments such as observation and interview to achieve more reliable results.

**REFERENCES**


States on In-service Education, Orlando, FL.


THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FIELD INDEPENDENCE, REFLECTIVITY/IMPULSIVITY AND READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study was conducted to investigate the relationship between Field Independence, Reflectivity/Impulsivity, and Reading Comprehension ability of Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Learners. To reach this aim, 125 EFL freshman and sophomore undergraduate university students at Iran’s Islamic Azad University Central Tehran Branch were randomly selected. They were asked to fill out two questionnaires on cognitive styles of Field Independence (Group Embedded Figure Test), and Reflectivity/Impulsivity (Impulsivity sub-scale of Eysenck’s Impulsiveness Questionnaire, I7, IVE) and one Reading Comprehension test (First Certificate in English). Subsequently, the collected data were analyzed through Pearson Correlation formula the results of which revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between Field Independence and Reading Comprehension, and there was also a statistically significant relationship between Reflectivity and Reading Comprehension. Furthermore, it was found out that both Filed Independence and Reflectivity could significantly predict the Reading Comprehension ability of the EFL learners. The implication of this research is for test developers in order to prepare accurate and fair tests. It can also be useful for language teachers, for they can help learners by addressing their needs using appropriate teaching strategies and for language learners as well because they will be able to see the cause of their problems in comprehending and passing language reading tests.

KEYWORDS: Cognitive styles, Field Independence, Reflectivity/Impulsivity, and Reading Comprehension

INTRODUCTION
Success in second language learning generally and factors that affect learning process and performance in language tests particularly, have been investigated by many researchers in order to provide guidelines for teachers and learners in second language settings. The enormous complexity and variety of the variables involved in the development of second/foreign language learning and test performance have been discussed by many researchers and scholars (Brown,
Chastain (1988) distinguishes four sets of variables as learner variables that are involved in the language learning: Affective variables (self-concept, perseverance, etc) Cognitive variables (cognitive style, learning skills, etc) Social variables (social context, language and culture shock) and Biological variables (gender and age). Moreover, in communicative language ability, factors such as test method facets, personal attributes, and random factors are considered as potential source of error in measurement that decrease both the reliability of scores and the validity of their interpretations. Among the mentioned factors, attributes of the test takers that are not related to the ability we are interested in, such as cognitive styles should be considered by language teachers and test developers for they are reported to influence and to interfere with the students’ Reading Comprehension process and performance on different tests as well (Brown, 2000; Bachman, 1995).

Abraham (1985) explains that cognitive style is part of the learners’ characteristics which apparently is related to second language learning for they depict individuals’ differences in a learning context and test performance. The term cognitive style was defined by Brown (1994) as the link between personality and cognition that influences how we learn things in general, and the particular approach we adopt when dealing with problems. Among the numerous cognitive styles that exist, only a few of them have received attention in second language researches in recent years. Field Independence and Reflectivity/Impulsivity as two of the most important cognitive styles which have been considered by researchers to see if they are related to learning, learners’ performance in tests and even to test results in case of showing the real knowledge of test takers were selected in this study (e.g. Jamieson, 1992; Skehan, 1989; Abraham, 1985; Kogan, 1981; Doran, 1973, etc).

According to Salmani-Nodoushan (2007) among the cognitive styles identified so far, the F/D dimension has been the most extensively studied and has had the widest application to educational issues and specifically to second language learning. One of the subjects that attracted researchers is to see if there is any relationship between F/D construct and Reading Comprehension (Davey, 1990; Jamali, 2001; Salmani-Nodoushan, 2007; Behnam and Fathi, 2009; Khalili Sabet and Mohammadi, 2013). In their study, Behnam and Fathi (2009) considered the cognitive style of F/D of 60 intermediate EFL learners and its relationship with reading performance. The results indicated that Field Independent participants have an advantage over Field Dependent ones. Khalili Sabet and Mohammadi (2013) intended to investigate the relationship between F/D styles and Reading Comprehension abilities of 90 university students as well as to explore EFL readers’ attitude toward reading in a foreign language with respect to their cognitive style and the results revealed that there is a relationship between Field Dependency/Independency and Reading Comprehension. The present study is an extension of their works on the possible relationship between Field Independence cognitive style and Reading Comprehension Ability of EFL learners with a larger sample and a different context.

The other cognitive style which was assumed to be in relation with language learning process and performance in language skills was Reflectivity/Impulsivity. Most of the research studies concerning the relationship between R/I cognitive style and language skills have focused on the
impact of children or adults’ cognitive styles on the receptive skills of reading or listening whether in their first, second, or foreign language (Messer, 1976; Pirouznia, 1994; Salimi, 2001; Ghapanchi and Dashti, 2011). Salimi (2001) studied the relationship between Impulsivity and performance of Iranian Ph. D candidates in TMU (Tarbiat Modarres University) general English proficiency test. Overall results of the research indicated that Low Impulsive subjects outperformed High and Medium Impulsives in all sections, and that there is a significant difference between Low and High Impulsives in Total and Reading Comprehension section. Ghapanchi and Dashti (2011) attempted to study the relationship between cognitive style of Impulsivity and performance of the 100 sophomore EFL university students on display, referential and inferential Reading Comprehension questions. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between Low, Medium and High Impulsives with respect to their performance in Display, Referential, and Inferential Reading Comprehension questions. As it was mentioned, in this study, it was tried to extend the previous findings and find the possible relationship between Reflectivity/Impulsivity and Reading Comprehension Ability of EFL learners in a new context. It should be mentioned that the main reason to choose these two cognitive styles was to see if there is any difference between predictability of Field Independence and Reflectivity/Impulsivity about Reading Comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners.

During the past decades, the emphasis on communicative language ability in teaching, learning and testing pinned importance on Reading Comprehension as a very influential skill in learning second/foreign languages and also on the factors that influence the learners’ Reading Comprehension ability and learners’ performance on Reading Comprehension tests (Widdowson, 1984; Chastain, 1988). For most EFL learners, developing Reading Comprehension skill is considered as the most important component of learning among other skills. In many EFL learning contexts, learners have very little or no accessibility to native speakers or enough listening input and only have access to books, journals, periodicals and other reading materials to gain the information they need. Regarding the importance of Reading Comprehension in language classes, Chastain (1988) mentions that all types of authentic comprehensible text can be used in order to help learners to develop a sufficient language base from which they can create massages they want to share with others. Furthermore, Widdowson (1984) refers to reading as communication activity and believes that the communication happens between the writer who encodes some messages and the reader who decodes the messages through top down or bottom up models for comprehending the message. Due to the importance of Reading Comprehension Ability of the learners in learning, teaching, and testing in EFL settings, some studies have been done but for the lack of sufficient research on the possible relationship between these two variables and Iranian university students’ general performance in Reading Comprehension tests in EFL settings, in this research, two cognitive styles of Field Independence and Reflectivity/Impulsivity were considered in case of being possibly related to EFL learners performance in Reading Comprehension tests, and also in case of being a predictive factor on the Reading Comprehension test result.

The other factor that made this study significant was about the result of this research that can be useful for test developers in order to prepare accurate and fair tests that show real language knowledge of test takers independent of the test takers cognitive styles. It can also be useful for
language teachers, for they can help learners by addressing their needs using appropriate teaching strategies to help them to have a better understanding and comprehension. Moreover, it can be helpful for language learners because if they know their cognitive style they will be able to see the cause of their problems in comprehending and passing language reading tests. Thus they can use the learning strategies suitable to their cognitive styles and get better results or manipulate style levels in their encounter with the language.

**Field Independence**

Field Dependence (FD) is a cognitive style in which an individual tends to look at the whole of a learning task that contains many items and has difficulty in studying a particular item when it occurs within a field of other items. The field may be perceptual, or it may be abstract such as a set of ideas, thoughts, or feelings. Field Independence (FI), on the contrary, refers to a cognitive style in which an individual is able to identify or focus on particular items and is not distracted by other items in the background or the context (Brown, 2000; Gollnick & Chein, 1994).

**Reflectivity/Impulsivity**

The other cognitive style that gained attention is Reflectivity/Impulsivity or as Kagan (1966) puts it: “conceptual tempo”. This cognitive dimension refers to “either fast, spontaneous and unplanned, or slow, cautious and planned performance in cognitive tasks” (Malle & Neubauer, 1991, p. 865). “The ‘Impulsives’ reach decision and report them very quickly with little concern for accuracy” (Kagan, 1966, as cited in Jamieson, 1992, p. 492). On the other hand, ‘Reflectives’ are slow and accurate learners and they take longer to respond and consequently make fewer errors (Razmjoo & Mirzaei, 2009).

**Reading Comprehension**

Defining Reading Comprehension and describing a single comprehensive definition is a difficult task for it is a very complicated matter. According to Chastain (1988) reading is a process which requires active mental processing of the learner and activation of previously acquired knowledge and skills while focusing on the reading materials in order to recreate and comprehend what someone else has written. Perfetti (1984, p. 40-41) defines reading as “thinking guided by print” (as cited in Chastain, 1988. P. 216).

**REASEAECH HYPOTHESE**

In order to reach the aims of this research, the following null hypotheses were stated:

1. There is no significant relationship between Field Independence and Reading Comprehension ability of Iranian EFL Learners.
2. There is no significant relationship between Reflectivity/Impulsivity and Reading Comprehension ability of Iranian EFL Learners.
3. There is no difference between predictability of Field Independence and Reflectivity/Impulsivity about Reading Comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners.
METHODOLOGY

Participants
The participants of this study were 125 university students who were selected randomly from among students in BA English majors at Islamic Azad University Tehran Central Branch, Iran. The age range of participants was 19-25 years old and among them there were 98 female and 27 male. In addition to them, another 30 university students, with similar characteristics to the main sample took part in this study for piloting the Reading Comprehension section of the FCE test.

Instrumentation
In order to accomplish the purpose of this study, the following three instruments were utilized: Eysenck (1990) Impulsiveness Questionnaire (17. IVE) which contains 54 items, assesses Impulsiveness (19 items), Ventureness (16 items), and Empathy (19 items). A Persian version of this questionnaire was prepared and validated by Salimi (2001). The reliability of the Persian Impulsive sub-scale was tested using Cronbach’s alpha which was found to be 0.86 and Spearman-Brown’s unusual-length split-half reliability which was found to be 0.86, both of which are acceptable indicators of reliability. This questionnaire consisted of 19 five-multiple choice items. Those whose grades fell among (19 to 57) were regarded as high Impulsive and those with grades of (58 to 95) were considered as Reflective.

The second questionnaire was Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) which is a figure test that assesses Field Independence and has been first developed by Witkin, Oltman, Raskin, and Karp (1971). They reported a Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of 0.82 for their instrument. Comparing the parallel test to the Embedded Figures Test established the validity of the GEFT (Blanton, 2004). In addition, internal consistency and construct validity of the GEFT are satisfactory. The GEFT is a 25-item test which requires participants to locate and trace simple geometric figures embedded within progressively more complex ones. Based on the number of correct answers given by subjects, the scores on GEFT range from 0 (the most FD) to 18 (the most FI). In this study, participants were classified with GEFT scores of 11 and less than 11 into the FD group and those with GEFT scores above 11 out of 18 into the FI group. The Cambridge First Certificate in English (FCE) is an upper-Intermediate level examination which is the third level of the Cambridge ESOL Main Suite examinations and is at Level B2 of the Council of Europe Common European Framework was also used. The FCE consists of 5 tests – Reading, Writing, Listening, Use of English and Speaking. The reading section has three parts and takes 60 minutes: Part 1 consists of a text with 8 multiple choice questions, Part 2 consists of a text with 7 sentences missing (gapped text), and Part 3 includes multiple matching with 15 questions. In part one and two each question scores 2 points, and in part three each question scores 1 point. Thus totally the reading section mark is counted out of 45.

Procedure
To achieve the purpose of this study, at the first step, thirty university students with similar characteristics to the main sample who were selected randomly took part in piloting the reading section of the FCE. They were among BA students majoring in English and they did not participate in the main investigation. The Reading section of the FCE exam consisted of 30 questions and it took approximately 60 minutes. After gathering the information, based on
analysis on items five malfunctioning items were eliminated from the test. Following this, the main study was carried out with 125 EFL students. The Persian version of Eysenck’s Impulsiveness Questionnaire and the GEFT questionnaire were administered to participants for obtaining information about their cognitive styles. Based on their performance in these questionnaires, they were classified as Reflective/Impulsive, and Field Independent/Dependent. The researcher was present while participants were responding to questionnaires to provide further explanations if required. Then the revised version of the reading section of the FCE was administered to participants to gather information on their level of ability in Reading Comprehension in the same session. At the final step, the statistical procedures were conducted by the researcher to test the hypotheses of this study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Before starting the main study, the reading section of the FCE test was once piloted. The analysis of the FCE piloting with 30 items revealed that the reliability of the test was lower than acceptable (Cronbach's Alpha = .593). In order to increase the reliability of the test, after some analysis such as Item Analysis, Item Facility, Item Difficulty, and Choice Distribution, 5 Items (4-5-8-10-13) were deleted from the test, so the number of items remaining became 25. To make sure that the reliability of the remaining 25 items was acceptable, Cronbach's Alpha analysis was used again and the result showed an acceptable reliability (Cronbach's Alpha = .640). On the next step, in order to test the null hypotheses of this study through the Parametric Pearson correlation formula, the assumptions of Normality of distribution of each set of scores and Linearity relation between each pair of variables were checked. First, Normality condition was verified through the following data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Skewness ratios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>11.1520</td>
<td>3.87518</td>
<td>-.365</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflectivity</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>41.00</td>
<td>77.00</td>
<td>59.3520</td>
<td>7.41430</td>
<td>-.034</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>33.00</td>
<td>22.4000</td>
<td>4.73320</td>
<td>-.382</td>
<td>217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>125</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table 1 showed, the ratio of skewness statistic of FI questionnaire, R/I questionnaire, and Reading Comprehension test were within the ranges of (±1.96) which means that their distribution did not show a significant deviation from normality. Thus, the normality condition was met. To check the second assumption which was Linearity of relations, the researcher visually inspected the data through following scatter plots.
Figure 1: Scatter plot representing the relationship between Reading and FI (The FI was written FD in this figure)

As the figure 1 visually illustrated, the dots cluster around a straight line stretching from the bottom left to the top right, implying a positive relationship between the learners’ Reading Comprehension and their Field Independence.

Figure 2: Scatter plot representing the relationship between Reading and Reflectivity

As the figure 2 visually illustrated, the coordinate values form a cigar shape stretching from the bottom left to the top right, hence the linearity of the relationship is also revealed. When the above assumptions were met, correlational analysis was conducted by the researcher for testing the hypotheses of the study.

To test the first hypothesis a correlation between Reading Comprehension and FI was conducted. The following table shows the result:
As displayed in table 2, the correlation between Reading Comprehension and FI of the EFL learners turned out to be positive and significant (r = .296, p = .001 < .05). Therefore, the first null hypothesis was rejected. The strength of the relationship however, turned out to be small (.296^2 = .08). Expressed in percentage, only 8 percent of variance in Reading Comprehension could be explained by variance in FI. This low relationship power of course affects the generalizability of the finding to the population.

To test the second hypothesis, a correlational analysis was conducted between Reading Comprehension and Reflectivity. The following table shows the result:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Correlation between Reading and Reflectivity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reading</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the table 3 showed, the relationship between Reading Comprehension and Reflectivity of the learners also turned out to be positive and significant (r = .321, p = .000 < .05) which leads to the rejection of the second null hypothesis. The strength of the relationship also turned out to be as small as .10 (.321^2), which limits the generalizability of the finding as well.

And finally to test the third null hypothesis multiple regression was needed to compare the predictability of FI and Reflectivity about Reading Comprehension of the learners. Firstly however, the conditions for multiple regressions were checked: The normality condition, the multicolinearity condition, the presence of outliers, and the homoscedasticity condition. The normality condition was visually verified as below:
Figure 3: Normality plot of the residuals about the dependent variable

As the values form a straight line and there is no major deviation from the line, it is concluded that normality condition was met. The second condition was multicollinearity which is the relationship between the Independent variables.

Table 5: Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reflectivity</th>
<th>FI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflectivity</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it was shown in table 5, the relationship between Independent variables turned out to be small ($r = .107$), which does not violate the condition. Thus the second conditioned was met. The presence of outliers was also checked through the standardized residual in the following table.
Table 6: Residuals Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Predicted Value</td>
<td>16.8417</td>
<td>26.9454</td>
<td>22.4000</td>
<td>1.96608</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Predicted Value</td>
<td>-2.827</td>
<td>2.312</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error of</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>1.172</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predicted Value</td>
<td>17.0652</td>
<td>27.0038</td>
<td>22.3920</td>
<td>1.96966</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>-12.99859</td>
<td>9.36853</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>4.30555</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Residual</td>
<td>-2.995</td>
<td>2.158</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stud. Residual</td>
<td>-3.035</td>
<td>2.185</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deleted Residual</td>
<td>-13.34766</td>
<td>9.60466</td>
<td>0.00803</td>
<td>4.40947</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stud. Deleted Residual</td>
<td>-3.143</td>
<td>2.220</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>1.012</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahal. Distance</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>8.051</td>
<td>1.984</td>
<td>1.536</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cook's Distance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centered Leverage</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Reading

As depicted there the values do not exceed 3.3, which imply the absence of affecting outliers. Mahal. Distance values were also inspected to check the outliers. As the maximum value does not exceed 13.82 (with two Independent variables) (Pallant, 207), it is concluded that there were no outliers. Hence, the third condition was met.

Homoscedasticity of the residuals about the dependent variable was checked finally.

Figure 4: Homoscedasticity of the residuals about the dependent variable
As displayed in the above scatter plot the dots form a rectangular shape with most of the values clustered at the centre. Therefore, homoscedasticity condition was also met. As the above mentioned conditions were met, the researcher was able to conduct a multiple regression. The following tables show the result of the multiple regressions:

**Table 7: Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.415a</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>4.34070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Reflectivity, FI
b. Dependent Variable: Reading

As the above table showed, the R square value was .173. This means that 17.3 variance in the dependent variable (Reading Comprehension) could be explained by the model. The following table shows the significance of this model:

**Table 8: ANOVA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>479.316</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>239.658</td>
<td>12.720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>2298.684</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>18.842</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2778.000</td>
<td>124</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in table 8 the model turned out to be significant (F =12.72, p= .000< .05), implying that the predictability of the Independent variables (FI and R) about the dependent variable was significant. The contribution of each Independent variable is shown in the following table.

**Table 9: Coefficients**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>7.692</td>
<td>3.243</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td>2.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FD</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td>.101</td>
<td>.265</td>
<td>3.196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflectivity</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>3.538</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Reading

As shown above, the p values for both independent variables under beta values turned out to be smaller than .05, implying that both of them had a significant contribution to the predictability about the dependent variable. Therefore, the third null hypothesis fails to be rejected.
According to the analysis of the data, the first null hypothesis was rejected and a positive and significant relationship was found between Field Independence and Reading Comprehension ability \((r=.296, p=.001<.05)\). This relationship confirmed that individuals with high Field Independence have a better performance on Reading Comprehension tests for they used strategies to generate solutions to problems. The findings of this study also lead to the rejection of the second null hypotheses and suggested a positive and significant relationship between Reflectivity and Reading Comprehension ability of the learners \((r =.321, p=.000<.05)\). This result confirmed that Reflective learners are considered as thoughtful people who like to consider all the possible angels and implications and also to observe all different conclusions for as long as possible before acting so they outperform Impulsive learners.

The other important result of this study was about the predictability of the Independent variables about the dependent variable which was significant and it showed that both of the Independent variables (FI and R) had a significant contribution to the predictability about the dependent variable (Reading Comprehension).

**CONCLUSION**

In this study the researcher focused on cognitive styles of Field Independence and Reflectivity/Impulsivity as determining factors in learning process and outcome and tried to explore any significant relationship between them and Reading Comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. Based on the data analyses the results have shown that there is a positive and significant relationship between Field Independence and Reading Comprehension ability and there is also a positive and significant relationship between Reflectivity and Reading Comprehension ability of the EFL learners.

As the results revealed, since a statistically significant relationship between Field Independence and Reading Comprehension ability has been found it can be concluded that the higher the Field Independence of the learners is, the more successful they tend to be in Reading Comprehension tests. Furthermore, the a positive and significant relationship between Reflectivity and Reading Comprehension ability of the learners confirmed that the more Reflective the learners are, the better their performances are on Reading Comprehension tests.

In addition, it was shown in this study that the learners' Field Independence and Reflectivity as Independent variables had a significant contribution to the predictability about the dependent variable which is Reading Comprehension ability of the EFL learners. Considering this fact, it can be said that Field Independence and Reflectivity can be considered as two sources of variation in language learning process and outcome, particularly in Reading Comprehension test scores. Thus the result of this study could be of benefit to all language teachers and learners, test developers and syllabus designers.

**Limitations of the study**

1. The results of this study may not be generalized to all Iranian EFL students with different Reading Comprehension ability, for the size of the sample was small.
Participants were chosen from among undergraduate students, freshmen and sophomores, as the researcher had only access to them.

The age range of the participants was between 19 - 25 and findings may not be applied to younger or older learners.

REFERENCES


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THE EFFECT OF BILINGUALISM ON LEARNING NEW ENGLISH IMPERATIVE VERBS AMONG IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EFL MALE LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
The aim of this study was to explore the functions and the roles of being bilingual on learning new imperative English verbs among male Iranian high school students. The main attempt was investigating whether Arabic-Persian bilingual students take advantage/es of their bilingualism in learning new imperative verbs of third language (English) or not. For this purpose, 60 male students from Susangerd, Bostan and Hamidie (the bilingual Arab/Persian cities in Khuzestan province in Iran) were asked to take part in this experiment. The sample of this research were junior high school students between 13 - 16 years old. These students were selected randomly from 6 state and English schools. The data were collected, and analyzed by use of t-test and the outcome results demonstrated that bilingualism had significance advantages in learning new imperative English verbs among khouzestanian Iranian EFL junior high school male students. The finding also shown that bilingualism could employ as a teaching technique in EFL classes where all of learners share the same L1.

KEYWORDS: bilingualism, grammar, imperative verbs, Arabic, Persian ,EFL learners.

INTRODUCTION
The impact of bilingualism on English grammar learning (imperative verbs) will study in this research. There has already been a great interest among linguists and psychologists to study bilingualism and its effects on individuals or the EFL learners in many cases. When teachers teach grammar, actually there are two purposes: enhancing fluency and accuracy in all of language skills. As you know fluency is ability to speak fluently, whereas accuracy is ability to speak with correct grammar structures, such as correct use of imperative verb forms. In many countries that English regarded as foreign language, the teachers begin their teaching plans by grammar forms, especially imperative verbs (such as open the books, stand up, sit down) to make the classes excited. Moreover, the learners usually learn and do the imperative verbs faster than other subjects. For many of teachers who working in teaching and methodology, the imperative English verbs has been the most exciting area of EFL classes. EFL teachers constantly should
explain English grammar forms to help the learners speak and write correctly. As you know Iranian community is dominantly a bilingual community, and the Persian as an official language used as linguistic and cultural homogenization, while minority languages are not used in education system. In Iran, for a long time bilingualism and its effect was considered as negative factor that threatening the learning of students. So in present study, we aim to find that is there any advantage in bilingualism (on bilingual Iranian learners) in learning new imperative English or not?

**Bilingualism**

Ellis (1994) defines bilingualism as the use of two languages by an individual or speech community. His statement was rather confusing because there is no mention of the degree to which the people or speech community is able to use their languages. Moreover, there isn’t any mention to the degree or manner in which they achieved their bilingualism from birth in a bilingual setting growing up there, or acquired as a second language later in life. It is necessary to say that there is no universally accepted definition of bilingualism concept.

Some like Grosjean (1982) refer to the use of both languages simultaneously, whereas others like Weinreich (1953) refer to alternating between the two and using only one language at any time. All in all, there are multiple definitions of bilingualism and childhood bilingualism, but in particular, this study focuses on Iranian bilingual male children.

**Imperative verbs in English**

Imperative verbs were known as Bossy verbs, because they tell us what to do. We put imperative verbs at the beginning of sentences, which automatically changes them into instructions or actions that should be done. The commands are usually very short sentences and acted immediately. When we read or hear instructions, we want them to be quick and snappy, so we can act upon them straight away. Imperative verbs do not leave space for questions or discussion even if the sentence has a polite tone. We usually use the root form of the verb to create the imperative verbs. For example:

Open your books boys, Write your names, Push the table, Listen to me students.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**The short background of bilingualism research**

Before the 1960s research on bilingual people was varied but with an unit pattern of result and conclusions, for instance, being bilingual was detrimental to a child's linguistic and cognitive development and put the people at a disadvantage compared to monolingual ones. The main opinions were that bilinguals would have smaller vocabularies and cognitive abilities. Those studies reported that bilinguals performed worse in IQ tests, vocabularies tests, and suffered in most aspects of language development.

But new researchers believe that, these studies suffered from several methodological problems and conclusion. Peal and Lambert (1969) published a study which brought to light the importance
of controlling for such factors as age, sex, as well as standardized measure when selecting a sample of bilinguals to be studied. They carefully matched their bilingual to their monolingual participants and they found that the bilinguals showed significant advantages over the monolinguals in both verbal and non-verbal tests, especially in non-verbal tests that required more mental flexibility.

**Bilingualism studies in Iran**

Keshavarz and Astaneh (2004) conducted a research in which they studied the impact of bilingualism on third language vocabulary learning of three groups of bi/monolingual female students (Turkish-Persian bilinguals, Armenian-Persian bilinguals and Persian monolinguals) in two regions of the Iran. Finally, they concluded that bilingualism has a positive effect on third language vocabulary learning.

Kassaian and Esmaeli (2011) conducted a research to investigate the effect of bilingualism on third language breadth of vocabulary knowledge and word reading skill on Armenian bilingual learners which mostly live in Isfahan province in Iran. The Nation’s vocabulary levels test and Burt word reading test were used to measure subjects’ knowledge of vocabulary and their word reading skill. After computations, the results indicated that bilingualism is highly correlated with breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading skill.

Although studies conducted in national context centering on the effect of bilingualism on L3 vocabulary learning have mostly reported the positive and facilitating role of bilingualism, but not in all areas of L3. There are studies investigating the effect of bilingualism on other sub skills of language which have achieved paradoxical findings, for instance, while Merrikhi (2012) states that bilinguals definitely outperform monolinguals on the English grammar, Maghsoudi (2010) notes that monolingual and bilingual learners do not differ in acquiring syntactic structure. He even maintains that monolingual participants surpass bilingual participants in general English proficiency.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

With respect to the topic of the current study, two research questions are set to be investigated which are as follow:

1. Does home speaking in first language (L1) have any effect on learning new English imperative verbs among bilingual junior high school EFL learners?
2. Does bilingualism have any positive or negative effects on learning new English imperative verbs?

**METHODOLOGY**

This study was conducted in khouzestan province in Iran. The aim of this part of study was to note down the methods in which material has been gathered, formulated and evaluated in order to test and verify the questions made at the beginning of this study.
Participants
The participants were two groups of junior high school male learners with ages between 13-16 years. The participants were selected from state and private schools, and then divided into two groups.

30 male students …Persian/ monolingual
30 male students …Persian _ Arabic/ bilingual

Instruments
The field of research was conducted in order to gather the required information for the analysis of the topic of study. This research draws its material from different sources as follow:

Questionnaires
The questionnaire include twenty four multiple choice items and used to collect specific items, and provides information about age, sex, parents, school, occupation, level of education and etc. This questionnaires designed and used by Sipra, M. A. (2007).

The Oxford Placement Test (Dave Allen 1992)
A test of grammar was administered as a measure of learners’ linguistic competence. The administration of this test was important in order to select a specific level of learners with respect to the topic of this investigation. To this purpose, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used in order to select the level of learners. This OPT test contained 100 multiple choice grammar items.

The Oxford Placement is a valid and reliable measure of language ability.

Tests on imperative verbs (pre/post tests)
One type of test was constructed in order to assess the students' performance with regard to the topic of this study. This multiple choice tests, which evaluates the retention of imperative verbs among learners, comprises twenty items. The test is a valid and reliable measure of language ability. The source of the tests is englishforeveryone.org.

Procedure
In order to accomplish the aim of this study, a step-by-step procedure was followed: First of all, the aim of the researcher was to choose a homogenous group of the subjects. For this purpose, placement test the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was given to 160 male students. The evaluation of the subjects’ performances on that test was perfectly objective because it was a multiple-choice test and every item had only one correct answer. Finally 75 students (42 bilinguals/33 monolinguals) were passed, but we select only 60 according to the rank of best scores and then divided them in two groups, 30 of them bilingual and the next participants monolingual. Secondly, pre-test administered to both groups. This pre-test included 20 multiple-choice items and participants had to select the correct choice. After pre test we had treatment, the treatment lasted for 8 sessions and the timing of each session was 75 minutes. Both groups attended in treatment sessions at the same language center but on different days which are:

Bilingual Group on even days from 5 to 6:15 P.M
Monolingual Group on odd days from 5 to 6:15 P.M
Thirdly, the treatment (teaching intermediate level) were given to them in a systematic ways, two days a week. The material for teaching were Touchstone books. Fortunately none of the students were absent during the treatment in two groups. And this factor would increase the reliability of the conclusions. Finally, at the end of sessions, the subjects were given 4 free days to study for the final exam (post-test). The allocated time for 20 imperative verb questions was 40 minutes. It is necessary to say that the post test with 20 items was completely similar to pre-test one in style and framework but its content was different and it was a level ahead of the pre-test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data analysis
In this part of study the researcher has tried to present the data collected concerning the research topic. The data has been collected through questionnaires, OPT test, pre and post test. Moreover, the researcher has represented his research through the presentation of tables and statistical annexations.

Results of the Pretest
The results of the t-test analysis for the comparison of the MG and BG are presented below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre test</td>
<td>MG</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.3333</td>
<td>2.80803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BG</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.5667</td>
<td>2.29968</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Such descriptive statistics as mean and standard deviation are shown for both groups in Table 1. As you see the mean score of the BG (M= 15.5) is greater than the mean score of the MG (M=15.3) but this difference does not seem to be significant.

Results of the First Research Question
After the treatment sessions, the posttest was given to the participants. Remember, the research question of the study asked: Does home speaking in first language (L1) have any effect on learning new English imperative verbs among bilingual junior high school EFL learners? A paired-samples t-test was run to capture any possible difference between the performances of the learners in the BG on the pretest and posttest.
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Comparing pretest and posttest Scores of the MG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MG Pretest</td>
<td>15.3333</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.80803</td>
<td>.51267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MG posttest</td>
<td>16.1667</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.78274</td>
<td>.32548</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the MG, the mean score on the pretest (M=15.33) is substantially less than the mean score on the posttest (M=16.16). However, to check the statistical (in-) significance of this difference, one needs to consult the Sig (2-tailed) column in the t-test table which follows.

Table 3: Results of the Paired Samples T-Test for Comparing Pretest and Posttest Scores of the MG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</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>Pretest-Posttest</td>
<td>-83333</td>
<td>4.26763</td>
<td>77916</td>
<td>-42689</td>
<td>76022</td>
<td>-0.070</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because the Sig. (2-tailed) value is greater than the alpha level (.000 < .05), it could be argued that there was a statistically no significant difference between the pretest scores of the learners in the MG (M = 15.33, SD = 2.80) and their posttest scores (M = 16.16, SD = 41.78), t (29) = -0.070. The magnitude of this difference. The conclusion could be that learning new English imperative verbs among MG don’t significantly improves the knowledge of the learners. The table 3 shows that the performance of the learners in the MG on the posttest is different from their performance on the pretest but not very much.

Results of the Second Research Question
The second research question of the current study was formulated to investigate that: Dose bilingualism have any positive or negative effects on learning new English imperative verbs? Like the analysis performed for the first research question, a paired samples t-test was conducted. Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics for this analysis.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for Comparing Pretest and Posttest Scores of the BG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BG Pretest</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.56</td>
<td>2.29968</td>
<td>.41986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG Posttest</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.50</td>
<td>1.67641</td>
<td>.30607</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It can be seen that in the BG on the posttest, the mean score of the learners (M= 17.50) is enormously greater than that of pretest (M= 15.56). To make certain that the difference is indeed statistically significant, the following t-test table should be consulted.

**Table 5: Results of the Paired Samples T-Test for Comparing Pretest and Posttest Scores of the BG**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Lower 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Upper 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest-Posttest</td>
<td>-1.93333</td>
<td>3.94735</td>
<td>72069</td>
<td>-3.40730</td>
<td>-45937</td>
<td>-2.683</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Given the fact that the p value is less than the specified level of significance (.000 < .05), it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the posttest scores of the learners in the BG (M = 15.56, SD = 2.29) and their posttest scores (M= 17.50, SD = 1.67), t = -2.683. The magnitude of the difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the BG, calculated through Eta Squared formula was which is a large effect size. This table also signifies the great difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the bilingual learners. The conclusion up to this part is that the bilingual learners understand and did the imperative verbs more better than monolingual learners. So we find that, our training during 4 week was affective and bilingualism had a significant positive effect on learning new English imperative verbs.

**CONCLUSION**

This study was an attempt to investigate the possible effect of bilingualism on learning new imperative English verbs. The result of study shown that bilingualism has a small but important role and effect in learning new imperative English verbs. Moreover, this study shown that bilingualism competence that help in learning new imperative verbs may not be found advisable in English methodology and the use of two languages in the class is generally facilitating the language learning experience. The teachers participating in the research indicated that the translation of many words and verbs in two languages or even the whole sentences is a good way to learn the imperative verbs. More over the study also shown that in the EFL classes, bilingualism has played a supportive and facilitating role. As with any other class technique, the using of the mother tongue was only a means to the end of improving foreign language proficiency. We agree with the majority of the student participants that no more than 25% of class time should be spent using L1. In my experience, this percentage can decrease as the students’ English proficiency increases.
Suggestion for further research

The present study indicated that bilingualism can be considered as a supportive factor that helps male EFL learners learn new imperative English verbs. As it is true for every research, it is not possible to claim that all the findings of this study are generalizable to similar cases. Finally, there are some suggestions for further investigations listed as below:

The same study can be conducted in advanced-level situations to see if there is any difference between the findings of this study and other findings?

The same study can be conducted to investigate the effect of bilingualism on younger or older ages of participants of the present study, since this study focused on participants between 14-16 years. This study was conducted on male learners, the following studies can be conducted to investigate the effect of bilingualism on both genders.

REFERENCES


THE STRATEGIES APPLIED IN TRANSLATING HUMOR FOR AGES 8 TO 12 ON THE BASIS OF ATTARDO'S MODEL FROM ENGLISH INTO PERSIAN

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ABSTRACT
“Humor is an essential part of everyday communication and an important component of innumerable literary works and of art in general. It is rooted in a specific cultural and linguistic context, but it is also an indispensable part of intercultural communication. Wordplay and humor add so much to a text and sometimes can be truly essential to the story or document, but they are incredibly difficult to translate well” (Vandaele, 2002, p. 153). The present study was an attempt to look into what strategies translators apply while translating humor in children's literature between ages 8 to 12. The corpus consisted of four English books with their Farsi translations: Dan Guttmann's "Mr. Docker is off his rocker", "Miss Daisy is crazy", "Mrs. Cooney is loony" and "Miss Small is off the wall" (by Mahboubeh Najafkhani). The humors according to the definition of humor mentioned in this study were identified and a detailed comparison was made between the humors in the original books and their Persian equivalents. What became evident through conducting this study was the fact that for the purpose of translating humor in the selected books, not all the strategies introduced by Attardo which was regarded as the theoretical framework of this study are used in Persian translations of the texts and also there are some strategies that work better than any others. By examining the collected data and investigating the table of the percentage of the usage of these strategies, it was concluded that Reproducing and Substitution are the most useful strategies and Domestication, Omission and Compensation are the least applicable strategy for the purpose of translating humor. When a translator who is aware of this matter can focus on the strategies that are more useful, h/she will reach a better result.

KEYWORDS: Translation, Children's Literature, Humor, Wordplay

INTRODUCTION
“Translation process has always been challenging and debatable. Poets, philosophers and literary
men had difficulties about translations. This idea generally came from their own experiences” (Mollanazar, 2003, P.8). There have been debates over the concept of translation for many years. Linguists and experts like Nida (1982) believe that translation is something beyond finding equivalents of source language in the target language.

Translating may be defined as rereading and rewriting for target language audiences, which make translations uniquely different from their originals; every text which is translated, takes on new language; a new culture, a new reader, and a new point of view. “One of the most important factors in translation is the culture of the target language. Cultural knowledge and cultural difference have always been a major focus of translator training and translation theory for as long as either has been in existence. The main concern has traditionally been with words and phrases that are so heavily and exclusively grounded in one culture that they are almost impossible to be translated into the terms of another.” (Robinson, 2007, p.186). Translation of children's literature is very similar to that of other literary texts. The more widely children read, the more open-minded they are likely to grow up. Literature in translation can enrich a child’s world by providing glimpses into the lives and actions of young people in other parts of the world and fostering his understanding of cultural diversity. Despite the progress that has been made in understanding children's texts from other countries through the medium of translation and their importance, the need for research into and dissemination of the diversity of children's literatures is still acute. Yet translating children's literature has its own special feature; children's books have a dual audience, children and adults (O'Dell, 1948). Research shows that appropriate content is an element everyone who selects, reads, tells, translates, edits, publishes, sells or promotes literature for children is interested in, for it is widely accepted that literature is a major carrier of content and powerful medium for understanding the world (Xeni, 2007). For children it is easier to assimilate new information when this is presented within the structure of a story or a poem, whereas research activities that followed earlier attempts revealed that literature for children can meet essential need of the audience / readership in question and what is more give answers to life time matters (Xeni, 2006). “Humor is an essential part of everyday communication and an important component of innumerable literary works and of art in general. Humor is a significant children's need met in literature. Throughout this particular paper in children's anxieties, worries and fears, making literature a beneficiary activity for a child's wellbeing. Humor is used in everyday parlance to refer simultaneously to an effect and its (con) textual causes, an occurrence so normal (ised) that we don't even notice it. This is a trivial issue for ordinary understanding, but an annoying and confusing one in the scholarly debate on humor” (Vandaele, 2002, p. 153).

It will be argued that despite various other lifetime matters, children of all three age groups (Xeni, 2000) suffer from anxieties, worries and fears including separation anxiety, which is closely related to loneliness and isolation, super mental phenomena and animals, noise and situations with noise, the school life (i.e. school directors and teachers, authority punishment /restriction, homework, test, school failure, etc.), super mental events and beings, bodily injury, etc. (ibid). These will be presented and analyzed underlying children's literature that humor cannot be humor for humor's sake alone, but it serves a hyper purpose: to meet essential childhood need (Xeni, 2000). Wordplay, combining "formal similarity" and "semantic dissimilarity" (Delabastita, 1993, as cited in De Geest, 1996), is a good example of humor being
culture-specific. It is culturally bound in that culture defines what kind of wordplay is appropriate and that recognizing and appreciating it requires background knowledge (Leppihalme, 1996). When translating wordplay from the SL to the TL, a translator has basically three options available: wordplay, some other rhetorical device or no wordplay (Leppihalme, 1996). The choice between the options at hand is not simple. Quite the contrary, it includes both textual and extra textual concerns. SL wordplay may contain, for example, elements that are unacceptable, or even taboo, according to TL norms and that may have to be played down for TL purposes. One could say that the translator necessarily rewrites humor for the TL audience following, at least to some extent, the norms accepted in the target culture.

“One might ask if translating humor is fundamentally different from any other forms of translation; after all, it is often agreed that successful translation involves recreating in the TL text those features of the SL text that are relevant for the text to function for a certain purpose” (see Kussmaul, 1995:90). With a humorous text, the purpose is, for all practical purposes, always the same: to elicit laughter. In a way the translator has less latitude with a humorous text, in that the translation should be able to function for the TL audience in a maximally similar way as the original text did for the SL audience, even if this were achieved by substantially altering it. Balancing between SL restrictions and TL demands, the translator is engaged in what could be compared to an exercise in tightrope walking, in that the immediacy of effect can easily be lost.

In this study, the researcher has tried to investigate the common strategies adopted by an Iranian translator to translate humorous words in children's books from English to Persian. The model of translation strategies which is presented by Attardo (1994) is taken into consideration as a framework for investigating the humor translation strategies.

**REVIEW LITERATURE**

**Characteristics of children’s literature**

From discussion concerning the definition, content, and theory of CHL, various characteristic feature of CHL can be derived. When listing some of the main characteristics that can be easily traced from statements and arguments through the years, it becomes clear that the aspects of language and content are what matter the most. Therefore, drawing from Nodelman (1996, 2008) Oittinen (2000), Xein (2007) and Panaou and Tsilimeni (2011), the following list of characteristics can be drafted: ‘simplistic’, ‘comprehensive’, ‘cautious with readability and speak ability’, ‘repetitive’, ‘didactic, and at the same time, ‘optimistic’, ‘straightforward’, ‘child appropriate’, ‘expressing a child’s point of view’, or ‘about childhood’, and ‘with illustration’, ‘fantasy’, and ‘happy ending’.

An attempt to provide an overview of the characteristics of CHL over the centuries reveals that the concepts established in any given period of time were not self-governing. They were dependent to a high degree on social, ideological, and spiritual factors influencing the writer. Prevalent views with regarded to childhood the child’s role in the family and societal contexts also played their part in establishing CHL characteristics (Lathey, 2006). In the past, CHL was expected to involve didacticism and to thus consist of ethical/religious element (Shavit, 1986).
Books for children were more seen as a way to acquire happiness and satisfaction (Nodleman, 1996, 2008). It is interesting to note the entirely secondary function of entertainment until very recently.

As soon as didactic narratives lost their appeal somewhat, the value of CHL as a mean for happiness, satisfaction, enjoyment, and enhancement was promoted (Nodleman, 2008). According to the well-known Greek translator of CHL, Petrovits-Androutsopoulou (1990), excellent CHL can perhaps eventually provide some teaching in its own way, offering some knowledge, but this is not what a writer aims for. What is important is that CHL cultivates children’s inner world, widens their horizons, transfers life experiences, provides children with an opportunity to experience life and art, and given them pleasure. In a modernized world, writers for children began paying attention to the aesthetic value of their texts and the pleasure they bring to readers in addition to knowledge (Kontoleon, 1988; Lathey, 2006; Nodleman, 2008). To them literature was primarily an aesthetic of life expressed by feelings with cognitive and intellectual aspects as secondary. With the coming of modernity, writers tended to avoid naïve narratives with didactic elements and attempted to adopt a more sincere and authentic attitude towards readers, trying to mirror reality in Their work (Kontoleon, 2008). Using cultivated language, humor, pictures and realism, they worked towards offering enjoyment to the child-readers, helping them handle or overcome their problems, and mature and advance their spirit, inner-world, and personality, preparing them to integrate smoothly in society, and become creative the aesthetic pleasure, the greater the benefit for the child-reader, and at the same time, the greater the impact on the status of CHL in literary studies (Pinsent, 2006; Nodleman, 2008). It is noteworthy here that a child’s development was felt to be achieved via enjoyment and aesthetic means.

Beyond the years of didacticism and aesthetic enjoyment, new ways of seeing things emerged. Influenced by postmodernism, CHL presented new tendencies in terms of its characteristics and the role of child-reader. The latter, having an active role to play and being now responsible for the meaning-making of the literary text as a critical literate individual, experiences an era where a piece of literary work is open to various readings, interpretations, critical engagement, approaches, and dimensions (Nikoljeva, 1998; Economidou, 2000; Stein, 2000; Mallouri, 2006; Sinfield & Hawkins, 2006).

In traditional CHL the main characteristics of writing for child-reader are different to those of ADL. Some characteristics derive from attempts to define CHL, where scholars, instead of listing characteristics, tend to report features that – from their point of view – signify that the particular literary work is addressed to children. In this framework, Petrovits-Androutsopoulou (1990) suggests that simplicity of language, the avoidance of taboo language, like insults and curse words, as well as sarcasm, and short sentences, describing characters, settings and the plot, are some of the main characteristics that authors and translators should incorporate in their books. Similarly, McDowel (1991) asserts that CHL texts are shorter in length, written in simple language, and have an ‘easy to follow’ structure, mainly consisting of dialogue, and with less description. Crouch (1962) stresses that CHL should be comprehensible, and Sakellariou (1987) and Nodelmaan (1992) both underline that CHL should consist of uncomplicated language.
characterized by innocence, optimism, didacticism, and happy endings. This links to Tucker’s (1976) earlier idea that a forced limitation of literature in certain areas of experience and vocabulary was necessary. The use of ‘simple language’ is a recurring characteristic where CHL is concerned (Oittinen, 2000; Lathey, 2006; Camara Aguilera, 2008).

**Translating children's literature**

This section covers certain behavior pattern of translating children's literature. It may seem that writing and translating for children is much easier than performing these jobs for adult. Children have their own language. If an Adult is to write or to translate for them, she should learn this language. Other Wise her work won't be successful because the addresses don't understand her works. consider you are talking to child; you cannot use all work that you prefer. On the other but they are not common among adults. When translating for children, the translator should consider all these in mind and then start her job.

Shavit (1986) considers translating for children a semiotic concept as opposed to a traditional normative sense: “translation understood as part of a transfer Mechanism that is, the process by which textual models of one system are transferred to another” (p.11) the translated text in the target language then relates to the source text in different ways. Therefore the target text is the result of the relationship between two different systems; the source and the target systems. When translation viewed as part of the transfer process, the significant issue to regard is that it is not just translation of a text from one Language to another but also translation of a text from one system to another; for example, from adult system in to children's.

The translation should be understandable for children. If there is a word or expression which is not known in their world, it should be replaced by something else or omitted because it causes confusion, ambiguity and sometimes misunderstanding. Lopez (2006) confirms this idea and believes that Translator can, and should; leave out things that are beyond children's comprehension. it is not difficult to understand the importance of translating.

Word children's and adult's literature are broadly the same (Chambers, 1980). On the whole, translating for children is complex and just like translating for adults, it needs a good knowledge of the specific age group for which the TT is destined. This does not mean that only parents or people involved with children should translate for the younger ones but maybe “when translating for children, we should listen to the child, the child in the neighborhood and the child within ourselves” (Oittinen.1993.p.15).

**The concept of humor**

Glottology (Attardo, 1994; popa, 2005) also known as humorology, is the study of humor and is regarded as "one of the least understood, though studied, phenomena" (Popa, 2005, p. 48). In the context of this study, humor translation (HT), therefore, is seen as a branch of the study of humor and a field that is also heavily under-researched. What is believed about humor in the research world, where it is often seen as a culture- bound element, is well articulated by Alexander (1977): "Humor does not travel well across national boundaries [and [does not always survive translation across languages "] (p.159). Or as Vandaele (2002) puts it, "... the sheer difficulty of humor as a
concept may discourage translation researchers..."(p. 150) a statement that explains the limited research in the field in many language combinations.

HT is a key area explored in this thesis, along with CHLT, translation process research, translator's strategies and approaches. This is a vital step as TS and humor studies are disciplines that have been long established but their intersections have seldom been explored (Chiaro, 2010), especially in such a way as this thesis proposes.

**Using translation strategies while translating humor**

It is impossible to translate a text from a source language in to a Target language without using translation strategies:

Andrew Chesterman claims that the most simple translation strategy is change something of course this is a rather simple view on translation strategies applied, because there needs to be a reason on changing something.

“Strategies of translation involve the basic task of to translate it. Both of these tasks are determined by various factors: cultural, economic and political” (Baker, 1998.p.240). Attardo (2002) suggests five main strategies:

1) **Reproducing**

“Reproducing is employed when the format of a joke that exists in the source culture (SC) cannot be found in the target culture (TC). In this case; the translator reproduces the joke” (Attardo, 2002, p. 186).

2) **Domestication**

Domestication is applied so as to make a certain joke from the ST amusing for the target recipient? The aim of this strategy is to produce a TT as similar to the non-translated text as possible.

3) **Substitution**

Substitution is the strategy employed when replacing a joke from the SL with a different one that will be comprehensible and amusing for the target recipient in the TL. This strategy is similar to reproducing, as it is applied due to cultural differences. According to Attardo (2002), substitution is, in other words, a free translation. As he puts it, while substitution is not a translation at the semantic level, it can be successful as long as it “elicits the laughter that the speaker was seeking” (Attardo, 2002, p. 189).

4) **Omission**

Omission is used in the most intricate cases, when a translator cannot possibly manage to render a joke into the TL.
Compensation
Compensation, which is linked to omission, is employed when the translator compensates for the loss of a non-translated joke by introducing another joke, which does not exist in the SL, in a different part of a text. According to Bruzdziak (2009), omission and compensation can be seen as 'gain and loss' in the process of translation. “A non-translated joke in the TT is conceived as a loss in translation, whereas a joke introduced in another part of the TT serves to compensate for the previous loss” (Gottlieb, 1997, p.222).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. What strategies has the Persian translator applied to transfer humor from English to Persian for ages 8 to 12?
2. Which strategies have been more frequently used by the translator?

METHODOLOGY
Corpus of the study
To accomplish the objective of the study two criteria were designated for choosing the corpus of this research; the first one were the books in which humor plays a large role than in any other books and the writer who was well known for using humor in her works, and the second one was availability of the Persian translation of the books. Several books were given a close look, four of which carrying humor were extracted and worked on. In these books, humor plays a large role than in any other books and included various humors. This writer's creativity in using humor engaged the researcher to see if Persian translators were successful in transferring this beauty in Persian translation.

Also, the researcher intended to find out which strategies the translator used to transfer the same beauty into the target language. So, the corpus consisted of four original texts along with their translations as listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text No</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Mr. Docker is off his rocker</td>
<td>Dan Guttmann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Miss Daisy is Crazy</td>
<td>Dan Guttmann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mrs. Cooney is Loony</td>
<td>Dan Guttmann</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Miss Small is off the wall</td>
<td>Dan Guttmann</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In table 4, the information regarding the Persian elements was provided. The data was sorted according to the title of the books in Persian, the name of the translators, the date and the name of publication in Iran. It should be mentioned that no random selection has been done and all wordplays have been gathered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ناشر</th>
<th>تاريخ انتشار در ایران</th>
<th>مترجم</th>
<th>عنوان</th>
<th>شماره من</th>
<th>نوع</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>نشر افق</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>محیوبه نجف خالی</td>
<td>افی میچل، دانشمند خل و جل</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>نشر افق</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>محیوبه نجف خالی</td>
<td>خانم برج، معلم گیج</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>نشر افق</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>محیوبه نجف خالی</td>
<td>خانم برج، مربی بهداشت</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>نشر افق</td>
<td>1390</td>
<td>محیوبه نجف خالی</td>
<td>خانم برج، ما را گذاشته سر کار</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Theoretical framework**

In this study, the researcher used Attardo's model for the translation of humor in order to analyze the collected data and classify and categorize them. Attardo (2002) suggests five main strategies: Reproducing, Domestication, Substitution, Omission and Compensation

**Procedure**

After searching in the market and the internet in order to find the books containing humor together with their Persian translations, Dan Guttmann's "Mr. Docker is off his rocker", "Miss. Daisy is Crazy", "Mrs. Cooney is loony" and Miss. Small is off the wall with their Farsi translations were selected because of their popularity in containing humor. After accessing the original texts and their corresponding Farsi translations, the main books were read sentence by sentence and word by word and finally a number of items carrying humor according to the definition of humor were identified. He wanted to understand how effective the translation strategies were. They were listed in a piece of papers to be examined in the next step and so a list of word plays and translation strategies was provided. In pursuit of this step, the researcher examined the listed items to see whether they were translated through applying a translation strategy. In the next stage, according to different types of strategies proposed by Attardo in translating humor, the types of the strategies used by translators in translation of each humorous item were identified and determined. It is pressing to note that the table of specification presented for each translated book which depicted the humorous section, their Persian translations and the types of strategy used according to Attardo, respectively. Finally, the results were put into numerical modes and were shown in a table in chapter 4 and their percentages were elicited and the most and the least frequently used strategies were represented.

**Data Collection**

Data was gathered from the parallel corpora, consisting of twenty five children's books, translated from English into Persian. Attardo’s (2002) model in translation of humor in children’s literature was used.

After deciding on the corpus of the study, the researcher carried out the data collection procedure. In the first stage, the main books were read sentence by sentence and word by word and finally a
A number of items carrying humor according to the definition of humor were identified. They were listed in a piece of papers to be examined in the next step and so a list of word plays and translation strategies was provided. In pursuit of this step, the researcher examined the listed items to see whether they were translated through applying a translation strategy. In the next stage, according to different types of strategies proposed by Attardo (2002) in translating humor, the types of the strategies used by translators in translation of each humorous item were identified and determined. It is pressing to note that the table of specification presented for each translated book which depicted the humorous section, their Persian translations and the types of strategy used according to Attardo, respectively. Finally, the results were put into numerical modes and were shown in a table and their percentages were elicited and the most and the least frequently used strategy were represented.

Samples of strategies used in translating wordplays
1. Reproducing: "Pleeeeeeeeeeese": "تَوَ رآة بَه خدآاااا بَكُوِبَدِيِدِيه "
2. Substitution: " Nah-nah-nah boo boo": "دمآغ سوخته مي خريم"
3. Reproducing: "Cluck like a chicken": "مثل مرغ ققد كنم "
4. Substitution: "Real potato freak": "کشته و مرده سيب زميني"
5. Reproducing: "You're blinded by love ": " عشق چشمهايت را كور كرده "
6. Reproducing: "Football players are really dump": "بازیکنان آمریکایی همه شان خنگ اند"

**Design**
To answer the research question, the present study applied descriptive approach, as Farhady (2005, p. 144) represents, through descriptive method, "the researcher attempts to describe and interpret the current status of phenomena." So, the present study was concerned with clarifying and describing the strategies applied by an Iranian translator while translating humor. In this study, comparisons were done between the main texts and their corresponding translations in order to find techniques used by translators in translating humor and between the found techniques in order to determine the most frequent ones.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**
In the process of tracking down the samples, the collected data was first sorted and organized in tables. These data included wordplays instances of each book. For this purpose, the researcher designed tables, consisting of the original and translated proper names and the type of strategy applied in translating that wordplay. In summarizing the results of the analysis of instances, the number of applied strategies was counted in all books. Then, the frequency and the percentage of the different strategies used in translating that name was measured and were shown in tables.
Finally, tables were analyzed and their results were discussed. In the next phase, the frequency and the percentage of the most frequent strategies were measured in each book.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Fr.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reproducing</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestication</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table represents strategies used in translating proper names from the most commonly used strategies to less commonly used one. As the distribution of strategies shows, out of 37 data collected by the researcher from four original English books, 31 instances refer to reproducing strategy, 6 instances refer to substitution and the other strategies are not used.

The difficulty in reading Dan Guttmann's works is understanding humor which depends on meaning, so in order to improve this ability during translation, some strategies must be introduced for translating different genders. The model applied in this study which was put forward by Attardo (2002), was taken as the framework of this study for the translation of humor and contained five strategies, namely: reproducing, domestication, substitution, omission and compensation. The items considered in this model were regarded as the strategies to be used in translation of humors found in the chosen books. The humors were selected and extracted according to the definition of humor mentioned in key terms definition in section one of the present study. The translator (Mahboubeh Najafkhani) tried to translate humor in a way to be more and more understandable for children and accordingly applied reproducing and substitution in order to make the humorous stories understandable and at the same time as funny as the original texts.

Having sorted four translated versions of the original texts and found the wordplays and strategies applied by the translator, the researcher found the following interesting findings regarding the type and frequency of each wordplay and strategy. As the summary of the statistical findings in the above table presents, it can be concluded that among wordplays, Onomatopoeia and Hyperbole are the most frequently used in books of the research. But among strategies, Reproducing and Substitution are the most frequently used in four books and this can be due to the nature of such strategies, according to which the meaning or the function of the source sentences or texts is preserved.

CONCLUSION
To that end, Dan Guttmann's stories "Mr. Docker is off his rocker", "Miss Daisy is Crazy", "Mrs. Cooney is loony" and "Miss Small is off the wall" and their translations were compared, the data were analyzed on the basis of Attardo's classification of strategies.
What is understood from "Mr. Docker is off his rocker", "Miss Daisy is Crazy", "Mrs. Cooney is loony" and "Miss Small is off the wall" is one of the most difficult challenges and barriers. There are several factors that often confuse the reader, the humorous conversations that depend on the meaning, usage and pronunciation of words and the ambiguity of them and this make confusion to the translator which meaning of his word is the main idea. The findings showed that when a word or a sentence is funny in English culture and makes children laugh, it is funny in Iranian culture and makes children laugh according to the types of wordplays.

The collected data which were the result of examining the books and their translations mentioned before in this study showed that for the purpose of translating humor in "Mr. Docker is off his rocker", "Miss Daisy is Crazy", "Mrs. Cooney is loony" and "Miss Small is off the wall", not all the strategies introduced by Attardo are used in the corresponding Persian translations of the texts and also there are some strategies that work better than the others. These strategies are as follows: Reproducing, Substitution, Domestication, Omission and Compensation.

By investigating the tables of the percentage of the usage of these wordplays and strategies, among the wordplays, Onomatopoeia and Hyperbole are the most frequently used wordplays and Alliteration and Personification are the least useful ones. On the other hand, among strategies, Reproducing and substitution are the most frequently applied strategies and the other strategies are the least frequently used ones for the purpose of translating humor in this study.

**Limitation of the study**
The main limitation of the study was concerned to the fact that although there were many Persian sources in Iran that were translated versions of the English books, the researcher couldn't find the original English books in Iran.

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HOW DOES COLLABORATIVE DIALOGUE ASSIST IRANIAN LOW-INTERMEDIATE EFL STUDENTS’ WRITING?

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ABSTRACT
Writing is viewed as an individual activity and normally teachers are expected to feedback students’ writings. Although there has been a growing body of research on using collaborative activities in English as a second language (ESL) and/or English as a foreign language (EFL) classes to enhance speaking, on writing, there are only a few-documented researches. The present study examined collaborative dialogue of 12 EFL low-intermediate male teenagers in one intact class. The researcher analyzed the participants’ collaborative dialogue in terms of the occurrence of lexis, form (grammar and cohesion), and mechanics (punctuation and spelling) in their language-related episode writings; additional data was collected through interviews with the participants, class observations, group discussions, field-notes, and written materials in order to find out how the collaborative dialogue led to the improvement of the participants writing ability in English. The present research may be of great value for teachers and practitioners since it devises a proper way to motivate students to enhance their writings ability through collaboration. The researcher determined writing quality by an analytic rating procedure that included cohesion, grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation (Weir, 1998 as cited in Weigle, 2008). Analysis of data showed that there has been a gradual improvement in terms of writing ability when comparing sessions from the first phase to the last phase. Results also indicated that all the students except for one perceived collaborative dialogue positively and consider it useful in enhancing writing ability. The best conclusion was that collaborative dialogue strategy assisted the participants to perform their pieces of writing better than those in non-collaborative dialogue class. Here, the researchers could conclude that if our students get acquainted with the technique of collaborative dialogue and the writing skill is taught to the students by means of this strategy, they are more successful at accomplishing the task than when they do it individually.

KEYWORDS: collaborative dialogue, lexis, form, mechanics
INTRODUCTION

The significance of the writing ability has long been the focal point for much discussion in learning English as a foreign and/or second language. There is no doubt that writing skill is the thorniest skill for learners to learn. The problem exists not only in producing and arranging ideas, but also in changing these ideas into written materials. Considering that there are a wide variety of theories and implementation factors, teaching the writing skill is a daunting task. Writing is really seen as a process of discovery as the writers try to find their way while they are struggling to think, compose and put their ideas together. In that way, it is not considered as a static process but as a cognitive, social and dynamic one (Kellogg, 2008 as cited in Javed, Juan, & Nazli, 2013). Duenans believes that writing, nowadays, is considered as an important expertise in supporting other learning experiences, and reformulating knowledge. In fact, the new trends have begun to see writing as an active communication, social process involving discussions, interaction with others, group work, and peer work. When writing becomes a social act, the teacher can make use of some technique called collaborative dialogue to facilitate the learning of this skill. In recent years, the idea that collaborative dialogue may also mediate learning, has been developed (Duenans, 2004; Tudge & Wells, 1998 as cited in Swain, Brooks and Tocalli-Beller, 2002). According to Swain (2000, as cited in Lantolf, 2009) collaborative dialogue originates in the perspective sociocultural theory of mind which claims that cognition and knowledge are dialogically formed. Collaborative dialogue is linguistic knowledge and makes performance to great competence. It is where language use and language learning can take place at exactly the same time. It is language use facilitating language learning. It is cognitive activity and social activity. It is a type of dialogue in which students become engaged in problem-solving and knowledge-building.

Statement of the Problem

One of the salient hardship for English as a second language students (ESLS) and/or English as a foreign language students (EFLS) is the learning of writing skill, and the reason is that our students do not have access to experienced and trained teachers, and most of our teachers are not really aware of what techniques may be useful for teaching this skill. Although a growing number of studies (Baradaran & Mo’ezzy, 2011; Meihami & Varmaghani, 2013) have been carried out pertaining to the relation of other teaching techniques with writing, to the best of the researcher’ knowledge, not enough research has been conducted into how collaborative dialogue, as a more recent teaching strategy, can assist students in their writing quality. In other words, there are only a few documented researches to explore how collaborative dialogue lead to improvement on writing proficiency of English as a foreign language students in Iran. In the present study, the researchers made an effort to teach the writing skill by the help of collaborative dialogue technique to the students. In fact, this is aimed at investigating how the present technique led to the improvement of the EFL students’ writing proficiency in Iran.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Collaborative Dialogue

A theoretical claim is that language is a source of the second and/or foreign language learning. The idea of languaging that comes from Vygotsky showed the crucial role that language plays in
mediating cognitive processes. Language and thought are different; in fact, Vygotsky proposed that language completes thought. We can think of language as an activity, i.e., a process of making meaning and constructing knowledge and experience through language, in the exact sense of word, language is an episode of the process of learning. The word languaging compels us to understand language as a process rather than an object. When we have to deal with a complicated problem, we may speak with another person in order to find a solution to it (collaborative dialogue) or may whisper to ourselves (private speech). These are two types of languaging. In both of them, the purpose is to solve a complex problem (Swain, 2010 as cited in Watanabe & Swain, 2013). Collaborative dialogue is dialogue in which students have interaction with each other to find a solution to their linguistic problems. It is dialogue that forms linguistic knowledge, that mediate joint problem solving and knowledge building. It is where language use and language learning can take place simultaneously. It is language use mediating language learning. In brief, what is taking place in collaborative dialogue is their “saying” and reacting to “what is said” is language learning, i.e., knowledge building mediated by language, i.e., a semiotic tool (Swain, 2000 as cited in Lantolf, 2002).

Language-Related Episode
Language-related episodes are instances of collaborative dialogue in which the students talk about the language they are generating, question their language use or self-correct their language production. Language-related episodes provide opportunities for language learning. In such episodes, the participants talk about linguistic form as an object (Swain & Lapkin, 1998 as cited in Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller, 2002). Swain and Lapkin (2002) believe that three types of language-related episodes are found as the students collaboratively write a text. Form-oriented (F-O) LREs, lexis-oriented (L-O) LREs, and mechanics-oriented (M-O) LREs. Any segment in the collaborative discourse of the students dealing with grammatical accuracy is organized as form-oriented LREs. These episodes are about the tense of verb, articles, prepositions, linking devices, pronoun reference, and word-order. The segments in the collaborative dialogue which are dealing with word’ meaning, word choice or procedures of expressing an idea is classified as lexis-oriented LREs, and language-related episodes dealing with spelling and punctuation are categorized as mechanics-oriented LREs.

Collaborative Dialogue as a Source of Learning
Collaborative dialogue involves two characteristics. The performance of collaborative dialogue among students promotes “noticing”. Noticing occurs in different forms. Noticing something in target language for it is frequent. Noticing that the target language forms is completely different from the students’ own inter language. From time to time, the students notice that they cannot express exactly the meaning that they wish to convey at the very moment of attempting to produce it. Another characteristics in which producing language may serve the language learning process is through “hypothesis testing”. When there are errors in students’ written production, the students give hypothesis to each other in order to solve the errors. To better understand a hypothesis, the students have to do something, and one procedure of doing this is to write something. This process of modification done by students in order to find a satisfactory solution to their linguistic problems represents the second and/or foreign language learning. Collaborative
dialogue forcefully persuade the students to process language with more mental effort. Thus, it seems to have a significant role in learning (Kowal & Swain, 1997 as cited in Lantolf, 2009).

**Scaffolding**

Scaffolding is one of the mediational means used during collaborative dialogue (Watanabe & Swain, 2013). The term of scaffolding derives from SCT which its central idea is that cognition must be investigated within the social context. SCT considers learning, concluding language learning, as dialogically based so that Artigal (1992 as cited in Ellis, 2012) claims that ‘language acquisition device’ is found in the interaction that occurs between interactants or conversationalists rather than in the learners’ heads. Scaffolding is a process in which one student (an expert or a novice) helps another student (a novice) to accomplish a skill that they cannot do independently (Ellis, 2012). Cook (2008) defined scaffolding as the process that assists the learner to reach the next point in development and, in sociocultural theory, it involves social assistance by others rather than physical resources such as dictionary. As per Pool and Patthey-chavez (1994), the tenet of scaffolding has also been described through another phrase namely “assisted performance”. The phrase assisted performance involves both “assistance” afforded and the consequences of that assistance in facilitating “performance”. And finally, the effects of assistance will be obvious in the performance of the one assisted.

**Use of First Language (L1)**

There has been a lot of disagreement or argument over the use of first language (L1) in second language (L2) classroom as a mediational means throughout collaborative dialogue (Watanabe & Swain, 2013). Swain and Lapkin (2000 as cited in Yang, 2014) believe that judicious use of L1 can advocate L2 learning and use. Banning the use of L1 in performing L2 tasks is to prevent L2 students from an important cognitive tool. Anton and DiCamilla (1998) examined the sociocognitive functions of L1 use in the collaborative dialogue of adults learning the Spanish language as an L2. Qualitative analysis of five groups working collaboratively on writing tasks showed how the L1 facilitated expression of private speech. In their investigation of collaborative dialogue between university ESL students as they participated in peer revision of their L2 writing, they found that the learners make use of their L1 to understand the text, solve language-related problems, produce ideas, take over the task, and keep dialogue. In sum, after their study, they underlined the importance of the L1 as a vital cognitive tool for the students’ collaborative problem solving.

**Repetition**

In accordance with Watanabe and Swain (2013), repetition is another mediational means which can be used over collaborative dialogue. Dicamilla and Anton (1997) investigated the use of repetition to mediate solutions to language-related problems in the second and/or foreign language learning. The subjects in their study consisted of adult L2 Spanish learners took part in collaborative writing tasks. They came to the conclusion that, in peer-peer collaborative dialogue, repetition played a vital role in creating and maintaining students’ shared perspective of the task and mediated the co-construction of linguistic knowledge.
Empirical Review

According to Swain and Lapkin (1998), a number of studies have investigated language learning clearly and easily seen in collaborative dialogue. Donato (1994) investigated the transcripts of scaffolding, defined as a situation where a participant who knows more can create, by means of speech, supportive conditions in which those who have lack of knowledge can take part and increase current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence. Donato found that per student owned some relevant information but not all. The participants together solved their problems successfully. They combined the scaffolded information and reached the correct construction. Students have generated language and reflect on it, showing how they are simultaneously novices as individuals yet experts collectively. Together they have performed beyond their individual competencies. Altogether, 32 cases of scaffolded help were discovered in the hour-long planning session. The question is that if this collective scaffolding provided opportunities for linguistic development in the individual learner. To determine this question, evidence for independent second language performance was sought in the actual oral activity performed the following week. Of the 32 cases of collective scaffolding seen in the planning session, the participants used 75% of language structures included in the scaffolding correctly the following week. Thus, through collaborative dialogue, the participants increased both their own second language knowledge and their peer’s second language. The participants afforded the necessary support and opportunities for each other so that they could outperform their competence.

The results of Donato’ research are consonant with Vygotsky’s theory which claims that the individual knowledge is socially and dialogically derived and its origin can be observed directly in the interactions among students over problem-solving tasks. It is important to note here that the unit of analysis used in Donato’s study was the dialogue, in this case, through dialogue how students provided a collective scaffold. In the La Pierre study (1994) to be described, dialogue was also the unit of analysis. She isolated language-related episodes - episodes in which language was the focus of discussion. The La Pierre study (1994) involved grade 8 early French immersion students. In La Pierre’s study (1994) it was hypothesized that when second language learners engage in a task in which they have to talk about the language they are generating (metatalk) for completing the task, that metatalk may be a source of second language learning. The task the students engaged in was dictogloss. Language-related episodes were separated from the transcripts of the students’ talk as they tried to find an answer to linguistic problems that they encountered while, with a partner, reconstructing the passage. As per these episodes, items were constructed to test the language discussed. Thus, any pair of the students had to respond to a set of test items which the students had discussed them in reconstructing the passage. These tests were given almost one week after the students had accomplished the task. The results of La Pierre’s 1994 study indicate that when the students solved a linguistic problem together, the solution exactly was the same as their responses one week later. For example, if the students, through collaborative dialogue, attained a correct solution jointly, approximately 80% of the relevant posttest items were correct. Moreover, if they reached an incorrect solution, approximately 70% of the responses on the posttest items were false. In other words, the students tried to keep the same knowledge that they had constructed collaboratively the previous week. These results suggest these language-related episodes were the opportunities for second language
learning. Another study was conducted by Kowal and Swain (1997) as cited in Lantolf (2009) in doing a task that needed students to recreate a text they had just heard, Rachel and Sophie (pseudonyms) two grade 8 French immersion students working together, wrote the sentence: Meme les solutions écologiques causent quelquefois des nouvelles menaces (even ecological solutions sometimes cause new threats). In their written text, des was dropped out and replaced with de. This replacement by them, shows the students’ current hypothesis about the form that a partitive should take in front of an adjective. This process of modification (the change from des to de) proves second language acquisition, yet, our grasp of what Rachel and Sophie produced is greatly improved when we share in their dialogue as they construct the phrase des nouvelles menaces. The phrase that they had heard was actually de nouveaux problem, but, they rephrased the text and wrote menace. They made the activity more challenging by stretching their inter-language. In turn 1, Rachel has utilized the noun menaces as a synonym for problems, and Sophie, in turn 2, congratulate her on this. But the phrase des nouveaux menaces is not well-formed. To be well-formed, the partitive des needs to be changed to de because it precede an adjective, and nouveaux should be nouvelles, because menace is a feminine noun. Producing the phrase des nouveaux menaces gives them an opportunity to notice gaps in their linguistic knowledge. In turn3, she expresses the possibilities to see what looks best, and then explicitly formulates her question: Is it des nouveaux or de nouveaux? She keeps on to test out her hypothesis in turn 5. This question is raised in Sophie’s mind whether the new word that her friend has introduced is masculine or feminine. Knowing this is important since if menaces is masculine, then the form of the adjective should be nouveaux and if it is feminine, then the form of the adjective should be nouvelles. In turn 6, as we can see, Sophie test alternatives to reach the correct choice. Finally, they refer to a dictionary (artefact) and discover that menace is feminine. In turn 8, Sophie affords the correct form of the adjective, and in turn 9, Rachel confirms Sophie’s choice. In brief, we have seen, in this example, when Sophie and Rachel were trying to produce a phrase, they recognized what they did not know. They formed hypotheses, test them out, and finally they referred to a tool (a dictionary) that would provide them with a definite response. What occurred in their collaborative dialogue-their “saying” and responding to “what is said” is language learning (knowledge building) mediated by language (as a semiotic tool). Rachel and Sophie’s dialogue is both social and cognitive activity. It is a linguistic-problem solving through social interaction.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Taking the importance of learning writing skill in the one hand, and the role of collaborative dialogue in language teaching on the other hand, the following general question and specific questions were caused to fulfill the objective of the present study:

RQ1: How does collaborative dialogue lead to improvement on Iranian low-intermediate EFL students’ writing proficiency? (General question).

RQ2: How does collaborative dialogue assist Iranian low-intermediate EFL students with their writing cohesion? (Specific question).
RQ3: How does collaborative dialogue assist Iranian low-intermediate EFL students’ writing grammar? (Specific question).

RQ4: How does collaborative dialogue help Iranian low-intermediate EFL students with their writing vocabulary? (Specific question).

RQ5: How does collaborative dialogue assist Iranian low-intermediate EFL students’ writing punctuation? (Specific question).

RQ6: How does collaborative dialogue help Iranian low-intermediate EFL students’ writing spelling? (Specific question).

METHODOLOGY

Participants
The participants, in the present research, were an intact class of 12 high school students (teenagers) of English as a foreign language. All of these students were Iranian, and English was taught in an EFL context. They shared the same first language (L1) background, Farsi, and their overall proficiency in the English language was low-intermediate level. They ranged in age from 13 to 19 years old. No female was included, and every single student attended 19 sessions. They had a common language knowledge in two respects: (a) They were recruited to participate voluntarily in an English class in Bisotoon Institute, and (b) Prior to being enrolled in Bisotoon Institute, they had studied EFL in their schools.

Instrumentations
To fulfill the objectives of the present study, the researchers employed the following instruments:

Oxford Placement Test (OPT):
Firstly, an English language proficiency test called “Oxford Placement Test” was administered to verify whether the participants enjoyed the same level of language proficiency or not. OPT was chosen since it is a reliable and efficient means of grading and placing students into classes at the start of a course. Enormous researches were carried out across the world, funded by Education Testing Services Co., to establish validity and reliability of the test. The present test is periodically updated to ensure quality and accuracy. This test has been pretested and validated by thousands of students in more than sixty countries ensuring accurate and reliable results. It has a strong theoretical basis (Retrieved from www.lang.ox.ac.uk/courses.test).

Use of One-on-One Interview
Secondly, the researchers conducted one-on-one interviews to find out what was in the minds of the students about writing ability in English. For reliability or the consistency of response, the researchers should have restated a query in a slightly different form at a later time in the interview, or, more precisely, they should have repeated the interview at another time, yet, because of short research span, this feasibility was impossible. Validity is greater if the interview is based upon a carefully designed structure, and it elicits the significant information which is
vital. For the interview to be more valid, it was judged by a panel of experts in the field of inquiry since they were fully aware of selecting the essential questions (Best & Kahn, 2006).

**Use of Dictoglass Task**

Thirdly, for the purpose of the treatment i.e., “collaborative dialogue”, a number of dictoglass tasks or passage construction tasks the same in length were employed by the researcher. According to Smith (2012), any passage is suitable as long as it is comprehensible to the students when read at normal speed. As a general rule, the text should be at or below the students’ current proficiency level, although they may include new vocabularies.

**Use of Investigator Triangulation**

Over the course, the researcher used investigator triangulation, that is, using multiple observers (Mackey & Gass, 2005). John (1992, as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005) noted that the importance of triangulation is that it decreases observer bias and increases the validity and reliability of the information. Therefore, three other teachers were invited, by the researchers, to observe the class. They accompanied the researchers from the outset of tenth session to the end of the eighteenth session. Best and Kahn (2006) believe that observation as a research instrument must always be systematic, directed by particular aim, carefully concentrated. Like other research instruments, it must be checked for reliability and validity. To achieve a satisfactory degree of content validity, the researcher identified and sampled the significant incidents of behaviors. In doing so, the panel of experts assisted him in selecting a limited number of incidents. In the present study, the reliability of observations was established with a high percentage of agreement among the teachers.

**Use of Rating Scale**

Afterwards, the rating scale which was utilized for reporting was TEEP by Cyril Weir (1998 as cited in Weigle, 2008). The reasons for the use of Weir’s scheme by the researcher were that it provides more detailed information with respect to the students’ performance on the different aspects of form, lexis, and mechanics, and also its reliability and validity were confirmed by a large number of writing specialists. Weir's scheme is composed of seven scales including content, organization, cohesion, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and spelling. As per the present study, the researchers used five indicators of Weir's scheme concluding cohesion, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and spelling.

**Use of a Questionnaire and a Focus-Group Interview**

And finally, having passed a five-week period in which the students received the treatment, a questionnaire and a focus-group interview were constructed and carried out consecutively in a series, without an interruption by the researchers. In the recent study, depending on the students’ overall writing proficiency, the researchers preferred questionnaires which were made up of closed-ended items, and the participants did not need generating any free writing; Instead, they were to choose one of the given options (irrespective of whether their answer is among them). Therefore, he selected the most famous type of closed-ended items called “likert scale”. In the present study, content and face validity of the questionnaire were established by the help of the panel of experts. In order for the questionnaire to be reliable, the researcher should have
administered the same questionnaire to the same sample on another occasion and compared the responses with those of the first (Best & Kahn, 2006). However, due to the short research span, this was not feasible. Immediately, after conducting the closed-ended questionnaires, the participants were called for a focus-group interview in order to elicit the participants’ views of collaborative dialogue experience. The researchers solicited a small number of general questions and got responses from all the individuals in the group. For the focus-group interview to be valid, it was judged by the experts in the field of inquiry because they were fully aware of selecting the essential questions (Best & Kahn, 2006). In order to avoid the idiosyncratic results that take place due to some unexpected internal or external factors that influence the dynamic of a group, the researcher should have run the focus-group interview twice (Dornyei, 2011), yet, because the present study must be completed within a specific time span, this was not possible.

**Procedure**

In order to run the present study, it was necessary for the researchers to employ some instruments and use a number of phases over the course. Firstly, Oxford Placement Test was administered to verify whether the participants enjoyed the same level of language proficiency or not. The result of the test showed that the proficiency level of the students in English were found to be low-intermediate. Secondly, the researchers conducted one-on-one interviews with all the students one at a time to find out what was in the minds of the students about writing ability in English. From the outset of the second session until the end of ninth session, any special treatment was not submitted to the students except that they were asked to do writing individually in the same traditional method. Then, prior to the beginning of the tenth session, the researchers solicited the students to get into groups of three. They, in order to have more accurate information, demanded three other teachers to cooperate with them on the present research. Any of the teachers was intended for a group of three students. Observer A was specifically for Group A, Observer B was intended for Group B, Observer C was asked to observe Group C, and the researchers were responsible for Group D. they were supposed to check the students’ dialogue and take notes of their produced LREs and then they should submit their collected LREs to the researchers for later analysis. In the next step, from the tenth session on, the treatment i.e., collaborative dialogue was submitted to the participants. When there were errors in each other’s scripts, they were giving hypothesis together to solve the hardship, therefore, they were in continuous modification of each other’s scripts in order to make them acceptable. At the end of every session, the researchers had ongoing assessment with respect to students’ writing assignment. The researchers furnished the students with a variety of texts (Dictoglass) in order to check their ability in writing. The passages were about the content of the materials included in their textbook. The researcher collected a set of observations, checklists, and performance assessment. In the next stage, the use of the rating scale was strictly necessary for the researchers to score, therefore, they made use of Weir's analytic scale (TEEP). Considering the students' proficiency in English, the researchers took into account five scales of Weir's scheme for the purpose of the present study including cohesion, grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, and spelling. TEEP scoring scheme gives an equal weight to cohesion, vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and spelling of EFL students. Each component is separately evaluated and a score ranging from zero, for the lowest (*poor*), 1 for *average* performance, 2 for *good* performance to three, for the highest
(excellent performance) is given. The score of these components cannot be summed up, and they should be reported separately. It should be noted that the use of the word "excellent", by Weir, does not mean the absence of the mistakes among the students' texts. Thus the researcher took it into account in this study. And finally after the treatment on session 19, a closed-ended questionnaire called Likert scale and a focus-group interview were designed and followed one after the other without any interruption by the researchers. As per the current scale, each response was assigned a number for scoring purposes (e. g., Agree=3 Neither agree nor disagree=2 Disagree=1) and the scores of all the items were summed up or averaged. Therefore, the researchers assigned a scale value to each of the three responses, and it was assumed that a higher total score expresses support and approval of the target attitude. In order to conduct a focus-group interview, the researcher divided the students into four groups of three, and then asked them open-ended questions in Farsi so that the students could best voice their experiences for collaborative dialogue without any barrier.

Treatment Procedures
To practice collaborative dialogue with the help of Dictoglass in this class of EFL students, the researchers did the following steps: The first step was preparation: The researchers introduced a topic, and the key vocabularies were addressed. The second step was dictation: The researchers read a text at normal speed, twice or three times. The first time, the students just listened to and the second time, they jotted down some words that could help them recall the text. The third stage was reconstruction: The students together pooled their ideas or resources to reconstruct the text from their joint notes and write a final version. It was during this reconstruction phase that participants produced language-related episodes as they were searching for correct words or forms they needed to convey their intended meaning, and the final stage involving analysis and correction, the students analyzed and compared their text with the reconstruction of their group. The participants discussed the differences, the texts and then compared their text with the original ones and notes or made necessary corrections (Wajnyrb, 1990 as cited in Smith 2012).

Data Collection and Data Analysis
The researchers adopted a qualitative multiple case study. In the current study, qualitative data were collected via a one-on-one and a focus-group interview, direct observation of classroom activities, introspective methods (verbal reporting or protocol analysis), investigator triangulation, and questionnaires within a period of five weeks. Data collection took place in nine sessions and lasted five weeks. From session10 to session 18, the students wrote their pieces of writings through collaborative dialogue. Group talk data, from the outset of the tenth session, was transcribed for each group. The reason behind having an equal number of collaborative session for all the groups was to accurately reflect the linguistic features of the participants' collaborative discourse within the equal number of sessions. The verbal interactions taking place among the peers in each group, were jotted down by the researcher and the observers for later analysis. The researchers scrutinized the responses to the closed-ended questionnaires, his collected LREs and the observers’ collected LREs. In addition, field-note observation was used through the study for a comprehensive investigation of the research questions. Where relevant, frequency technique was used through the study for the students’ feedback. In doing so, the researchers coded the students’ verbal protocol in terms of LREs, selected them and used quantification for the analysis.
of the data. The researchers and the observers elicited LREs from the students’ talk or interaction by taking notes when the students attempted to solve linguistic problems they encountered while jointly reconstructing the passage. The researchers traced language-related episodes related to the different aspects of writing through each stage of the activity in an effort to realize what was learnt and why. The scripts written collaboratively by each group of the students were rated and reported just by the researcher according to Weir’s scheme (1998 as cited in Weigle, 2008). The researchers rated and reported the passage on a 4 point-scale with 0 representing poor performance, 1 representing average, 2 representing good performance, and 3 representing excellent performance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to answer the research questions stipulated in the present study, the researchers investigated the dialogue of all the Groups (A, B, C, and D) in terms of Form-oriented (F-O) LREs (grammar and cohesion), of Lexical-oriented (L-O) LREs (vocabulary) and of Mechanics-oriented (M-O) LREs (punctuation and spelling) in an attempt to realize their conversation as a foreign language writing learning. The first research question asked, “How does collaborative dialogue lead to improvement in Iranian low-intermediate EFL students’ writing proficiency?” The researchers looked into the generated LREs of each scale separately in all the Groups and showed them in the following tables. These tables show that the participants’ writing proficiency improved as they went along further.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Form-Based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning the scale of form, it was observed that cohesion in the scripts of the students in all the Groups was almost absent, and they used almost all grammatical patterns inaccurately.
Table 2: The number of LREs for all the Groups from sessions 13-15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Form-Based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the second phase, the form of Group A and B's texts had the same previous condition, however, that of Group C, and D enriched somewhat. Although there was unsatisfactory cohesion in their texts, there was frequent grammatical inaccuracies in their texts.

Table 3: The number of LREs for all the Groups from sessions 16-18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Form-Based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the last phase, the Groups C and D's writing form improved to a great extent compared with the last two phases. For all the parts of their writing, there was satisfactory use of cohesion resulting in effective communication and almost no grammatical inaccuracies were observed in their writing form. Group A and B's writing form enriched slightly although there was frequent grammatical inaccuracies and unsatisfactory cohesion so that there was little confusion in comprehension of most of the intended communication.
With respect to the scale of lexis, there were some inadequacies in the choice of correct vocabulary in all the Groups' scripts.

Table 4: The number of LREs for all the Groups from sessions 10-12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Lexis-Based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the second phase, only rare inappropriate language–related episodes were found in all the Group's texts.

Table 5: The number of LREs for all the Groups from sessions 13-15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Lexis-Based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: The number of LREs for all the Groups from sessions 16-18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Lexis-Based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On the last phase, again only rare inappropriacies were observed in the scripts of the students in all the Groups.

**Table 7: The number of LREs for all the Groups from sessions 10-12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mechanic-based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding mechanical accuracy, the students in Group A and Group B ignored the conventions of punctuation completely and almost all spellings were inaccurate, however, in Group C and D, low standard of accuracy in punctuation and spelling were observed.

**Table 8: The number of LREs for all the groups from sessions 13-15**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mechanic-based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the second phase, Group A and B enriched slightly so that there were some inaccuracies in spelling and punctuation. In respect to Group C and D, almost no inaccuracies were observed in the scripts of the students.
Table 9: The number of LREs for all the groups from sessions 16-18

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Mechanic-based LREs</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the last phase, Group A and B advanced to a great extent. In this stage, like Group C and D, they nearly have no inaccuracies in spelling and punctuation.

In sum up, the less the number of LREs, the more enhancement in writing proficiency will be. As the Tables 1 to 9 show, as the students move from the beginning stages of the introduction of collaborative dialogue at 10-12 sessions which the researchers called phase I towards the last phase which is collaborative dialogue they did in sessions 16-18, there has been a gradual development in terms of the students’ writing.

The less the number of the LREs, the higher the writing scores of the students. To understand how these produced LREs exert a strong influence on other aspects of writing skill, this is the query to be answered in the following research questions. Similarly, the other research questions were answered. That is, the researchers looked into the dialogue of all the Groups in terms of form (research question 2&3), of lexis (research question 4) and of mechanics (research question 5&6). In addition to a set of LREs which were used to respond to the research questions stipulated in the recent study, the researchers invited three EFL teachers (Observers) to the class to observe collaborative dialogue technique from session 10 to session 18. The observers were all willing to cooperate. Each observer had devoted half hour of time to observing the class every session.

The Questionnaire’s Findings

The closed-ended questionnaires were given to the students on the last week of the course, week ten. There was a 10-item closed-ended questionnaire. They involved statements expressing either a positive/favorable or a negative/unfavorable attitude towards collaborative dialogue. The researchers asked the participants to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with these items by marking. They assigned a scale value to each of the responses (3 for Agree, 2 for Neither Agree Nor Disagree, and 1 for Disagree) (Best & Kahn, 2006). Overall, the students in our present study had a very positive attitude towards collaborative dialogue. When asked whether they found collaborative dialogue helpful in the class for foreign language writing, almost all of them put an x in the Agree box.

10*3=30       Most favourable response possible
10*2=20        A neutral attitude
The score for any student would fall between 10 and 30. Above 20 if opinions tended to be favourable to the given point of view and below 20 if opinions tended to be unfavourable.

**Interview’s findings**

Generally, the interviewed participants considered collaborative dialogue helpful in nature. Mainly, they asserted that collaborative dialogue helped them to generate ideas and improved their grammar, cohesion, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling. Moreover, it made the students take part in discussion after they finished writing, therefore, they found that their writing advanced when they were discussing with the peers concerning the individual drafts. Interestingly, they revealed that the teacher review could be embarrassing, and they shied away from discussing their writing with their teacher. On the other hand, they felt more comfortable with sharing their writing with their peers. In total, the participants’ responses to the focus-group interviews showed that most of students were quite supportive of the activity and found it useful.

**CONCLUSION**

The data presented in the current study are exactly in consistent with Swain and Lapkin’ data (1998), claiming the data affords proof for cognitive process in the dialogue of the students because they repeatedly produce alternatives, assess the alternatives, and apply the resulting information to solve their linguistic problems. They also use their native language as a mediational tool in order to control their own behavior, to concentrate on specific second and/or foreign language structures, and to produce and assess alternatives. The interaction occurs amongst the participants advocates the vital role of collaborative activity in the classroom. The best conclusion is that the devised treatment i.e., collaborative dialogue assists the participants to perform better than those in non-collaborative class. Here, we can conclude that if our students get acquainted with the technique of collaborative dialogue and carry out one task collaboratively, they are more successful at accomplishing the task than when they do it individually.

**Implications**

From a research perspective, the current study similar to the one conducted by Watanabe and Swain (2007), proves the importance of viewing peer-peer collaborative dialogue as a mediator of second and/or foreign writing learning, and the gradual development in the students’ writing over the course emphasizes how writing learning happens in interaction, not as a result of interaction. Also, in the same way as Watanabe and Swain’s research (2007), the present study advocates the claim that collaborative dialogue is a useful unit of analysis to explore the process and the product of second language and/or foreign language writing learning. When the students are doing collaborative dialogue in order to solve their writing problems, this collaboration can outstrip their competence so that it allows them to extend their present capabilities and knowledge to the higher level of competence.
Suggestions for Further Research

In terms of methodology, we think it would be valuable in future work to combine an analysis of students’ collaborative dialogue with the follow-up interviews in order to derive a more fine-grained understanding of the mental process (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Another suggestion would be to investigate the effects of collaborative dialogue discussions on the speaking skill of the students, the reading expertise of the students, and the listening skill of the students. The results of the present study indicate that collaborative dialogue enrich the writing skill of the participants. Yet, to what extent, it improves speaking skill, reading expertise, or listening skill, if it does, is not clear up to now. In other words, further research explaining other skills in accordance with the use of collaborative dialogue would be a useful follow-up to the current study (Meihami, Meihami, & Varmaghani, 2013). The participants’ knowledge of how to collaborate effectively with peers was too limited. One study (Berg, 1999) has showed that the effectiveness of the student collaboration relies on the students’ capability to work and solve language-related problems collaboratively. He found that if the students are trained how to do joint activities with peers prior to collaborative activities, it will have a significant effect on promoting scaffolding and learning (Berg, 1999 as cited in Nassaji & Tian, 2010).

Limitations of the Study

The limitations which have been posed in the present research are as follows: The first limitation was related to participants. The researchers liked to have more participants in order to have more reliable results. More samples from different institutions would definitely yield more generalizable results. There was also age limit for the participants and the researchers were forced to conduct the experiment on teenagers. The second limitation was connected with the inability of the researchers in controlling the gender variable. They were limited to one sex i.e., male students. Also, the researchers wanted to give the students more writing assignments in order to get stronger results for the study, but, they did not manage because the research was done during the students’ school days, and they always complained about the shortage of the time. Despite the researcher’s cognizance of the use of closed-ended questions in quantitative research, they found it right and pertinent to make use of such a questionnaire owing to the students’ proficiency in writing. For the questionnaire and focus-group interview to be reliable the researchers should have run them twice, however, owing to time span, this was not feasible.

REFERENCES


IMPACT OF FOCUS-ON-FORM TASK INSTRUCTION ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS’ WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

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ABSTRACT
This study explored and compared the effectiveness of focus-on-form (FonF) task instruction (i.e., input vs. collaborative output tasks) on Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ willingness to communicate (WTC). To achieve the objective, 50 Iranian pre-intermediate EFL students took part in this study. The FonF tasks were presented in the form of input FonF tasks (i.e., textual enhancement, processing instruction, and discourse tasks) and collaborative output FonF tasks (i.e., dictogloss, jigsaw, and text reconstruction tasks) to 2 classes of 50 pre-intermediate Iranian EFL students. Participants answered the pretest-posttest questions of the WTC questionnaire. The analysis of the paired samples t test in the input and collaborative output FonF tasks group showed that these types of FonF tasks did not improve the participants’ WTC significantly. However, the participants in the collaborative output FonF tasks group outperformed those in the input FonF tasks groups. The results of the study imply that monitoring students’ WTC in second/foreign language (L2) and improving it should be considered as one of the goals of L2 teachers and syllabus designers through implementation of collaborative FonF tasks.

KEYWORDS: Focus on Form; Task Instruction; WTC

INTRODUCTION
Form-focused instruction, as the recent development in grammar pedagogy, is effective when it is used in meaningful communicative contexts (Ellis, 2001; Long, 1991). Consequently, it leads learners to higher level of accuracy in L2. In fact, the goal of L2 teaching is to help the learners communicate both accurately and fluently. According to Nassaji and Fotos (2011), communicative language teaching (CLT) and the previous structure-based methods paid little
attention to these aspects, which lead to the advent of a new approach known as focus-on-form (FonF).

FonF refers to an instructional option, which integrates grammar and communication in L2 teaching (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Besides, it refers to “how focal attentional resources are allocated to linguistic forms” (Long & Robinson 1998, p. 27). According to Norris and Ortega (2001), L2 instruction that focuses on form leads to substantial gain in L2 structures and the gains are sustained over time. Moreover, according to Lightbown and Spada (1993), FonF instruction within the context of communicative programs is more effective in developing L2 learning than in the programs which are limited to exclusive, separate emphasis on accuracy or fluency. Also, Loewen (2003) maintains that FonF makes L2 learners notice linguistic items rather than merely focused-on meaning lessons.

According to Long (2000), FonF provides an effective and impressive condition for L2 learning. It is learner-centered and represents L2 learners’ internal syllabus. Moreover, it happens when the L2 learner is attending to the meaning and has a communication problem. He, also, believes that L2 learners can learn most of the L2 grammar accidentally, while their attention is on the meaning. Not only are linguistic structures in the communication approach emphasized, but the attention to grammatical forms is, also, considered as an important factor in task-based instruction. According to Savignon (2005, p. 645), “the CTL [communicative language teaching] does not exclude a focus on metalinguistic awareness or knowledge of rules of syntax.” As Skehan (1996, p. 18) argues, “learners do not simply acquire the language to which they are exposed, however carefully that exposure may be orchestrated by the teacher.”

On the other hand, willingness to communicate (WTC) is considered as an important and effective factor in an L2. It is defined as “a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person, or persons, using a L2” (McIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 547). The importance of communication and L2 learners’ enthusiasm to communicate effectively leads L2 teachers/researchers to design curricula and improve L2 instruction communicatively. In fact, the importance of communication makes L2 learners engage in a communicative context to improve their communicative competence (Savignon, 2005).

McCroskey and Richmond (1987), initially, referred to WTC as the native verbal communication and individual’s general tendency to talk. Then, it was introduced into communication contexts and L2 instruction by McIntyre et al. (1998). They, also, introduced the WTC model as the one in which social, affective, cognitive, and situational variables are involved and can, in turn, predict one’s actual use of that language. In addition, the WTC model is composed of psychological, linguistic, and communicative variables in order to explain L2 communication (McIntyre et al.).

According to Swain and Lapkin (2002), language would be learned effectively in interactive and meaningful contexts in a pragmatic setting, so it is very important to find the variables which help to improve communication and which encourages L2 learners to communicate effectively. Besides, McIntyre et al. (1998) believe that the significant and ultimate aim of L2 learning is to “engender in language students the willingness to seek out communication opportunities and the
willingness actually to communicate in them” (p. 547). In fact, the primary goal of L2 pedagogy is to teach individuals to communicate willingly. Considering this statement, the creation of WTC in L2 classes becomes important.

Consequently, one of the important aspects to consider is the L2 learners’ WTC in the EFL classroom. In fact, WTC is expected to facilitate L2 learning because higher WTC among L2 learners leads to increase opportunity for authentic L2 use (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001), which is a necessary condition for their language development (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011). As MacIntyre (2007) has argued, WTC represents the psychological preparedness to use L2 when the opportunity arises. It is believed that the degree of WTC is an important factor in learning an L2 and the ability to communicate in that language. In fact, there is a direct relationship between L2 learners’ WTC and their successes in L2 learning, as the higher WTC a speaker has, the more likely he or she is to succeed in L2 acquisition. As Richmond and Roach (1992) state, high WTC is associated with increased frequency and amount of communication.

As mentioned by MacIntyre and MacKinnon (2007), the choice to speak or to remain silent seems to be a factor in the success of EFL learners. When the opportunity to use English arises, it is usual to have the two options of speaking or refraining from it. According to MacIntyre (2007), both individual factors (e.g., anxiety, motivation, attitude, interpersonal attraction, etc.) and social contextual factors (e.g., ethno-linguistic vitality, language contact, etc.) can influence WTC. One of these factors is the learner’s motivation. However, Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) view L2 WTC as an extension of the motivation construct. Therefore, the relationship between the two concepts becomes an important issue. As Cao and Philp (2006) state, situational WTC could change in the classroom across the three interactional contexts, under the influence of situational variables (i.e., group size and familiarity with interlocutors), the familiarity and interest of tasks under discussion, and the confidence of the L2 learners in relation to the performing tasks. Consequently, performing tasks may influence the L2 learners’ WTC, which is the subject of this study. However, the types of tasks and the processes of performances are the important issues, which should be taken into consideration.

This study was, therefore, designed to contemplate on two possibilities regarding the type of FonF tasks. At the same time, WTC as an important factor in L2 communication enhancement was checked. With great emphasis on communication and training individual to communicate effectively inside as well as outside the classroom, many researchers (e.g., MacIntyre et al., 1998) argue that the main goal of L2 education should be the development of WTC in language instruction and learning. L2 Learners’ attitude to classroom activities is, also, emphasized by researchers working from a sociocultural theoretical perspective. As Lantolf and Thorne (2006) point out, L2 learners are viewed as active agents who assign significance to things and events in their life. This process of L2 learners as the active agents in their learning is appropriate when investigating adult classroom contexts. Such L2 learners display a wide range of learning goals, expectations, and abilities (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Furthermore, although L2 learners’ attitudes to the tasks have been evaluated as an important consideration in explaining their willingness to actively contribute to the task, there has been relatively little classroom-based research on their
willingness toward such tasks. Hence, this study was designed to examine the effect of input-based and collaborative output tasks on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ WTC.

Research on the efficacy of the types of tasks in improving L2 learners’ WTC is inconclusive. In addition, there seems to be little research studies which has investigated and compared the effect of FonF instruction tasks (i.e., input vs. collaborative output tasks) on L2 learners’ WTC—the concepts which have been recently discussed more theoretically than being tested. As the main consideration, this study focused on the effect of FonF tasks on L2 learners’ WTC and it investigated whether the kinds of FonF tasks (i.e. input vs. output-based tasks) improve their WTC effectively.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Input and collaborative output tasks as the type of FonF instruction have received a considerable attention during recent years. Input tasks of processing instruction approach is based on Lee and VanPatten’s (2003) model of input processing, according to which exposure to explicit instruction and input-processing activities helps L2 learners create a connection between form and meaning and this leads to the process of learning grammar from meaning. VanPatten (2002) has argued that “since the aim of this approach is to assist the learner in making form-meaning connections during input processing; it is more appropriate to view it as a type of focus on form” (p. 764). Also, according to Nassaji and Fotos (2011), by understanding how L2 learners process input, affective and comprehensive instructional devices can be made and leads to the input processing acquisition.

As Sharwood-Smith (1991) argues, textual enhancement is a kind of external forms of input enhancement as highlighting the correct form of input. It is, also, an implicit form of input enhancement as it makes L2 learners to pay attention to form, while the main focus is on meaning. In fact, input enhancement is divided into two different dimensions: explicitness and elaboration. The former relates to the degree of how attention is attracted to the forms, and the later refers to the intensity with which enhancement procedures take place. Also, Sharwood-Smith (1991) points to the achievement of input enhancement internally or externally. Internal enhancement happens when L2 learners pay attention to the form by learning strategies. External enhancement happens when the teacher or external operations notice the forms. Consequently, textual enhancement is a kind of external and implicit forms of input enhancement.

Discourse-based pedagogy, as the other input-based FonF task instruction, focuses on the communicative use of grammar, as it refers to the ability to use grammar in communicative discourse. Thus, L2 learners must recognize the communication purpose of the sentence regardless of the obvious meaning of its syntax (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). FonF through discourse is considered as an effective factor in L2 grammar instruction, as it pays attention to meaning and forms as well as utilization of these forms within larger discourse context. In fact, as Levy (1997) argues, L2 learners need to learn chunks of speech, formulaic utterances, and collocations by using communication and merely discourse-level input can provide authentic example of specific grammatical structures.
Collaborative output FonF tasks of dictogloss, reconstruction cloze tasks, and jigsaw tasks, also, were the focus of many studies. Vasiljevic (2010) believes that the dictogloss procedure can improve the development of L2 learners’ communicative competence, as L2 learners’ communication is much more natural and authentic than in traditional classes. Also, time limitation to reconstruct the text makes L2 learners to use time effectively. Moreover, speaking time is longer in comparison to traditional teacher-centered classroom. Dictogloss, also, promotes L2 learners autonomy, as they are expected to help each other instead of expecting teacher to provide the information. Moreover, text reconstruction task as a task that generates a high number of grammatical language-related episodes is influential. The task is, also, considered to be effective, as it leads L2 learners’ conscious attention to grammatical accuracy (García Mayo, 2002; Kowal & Swain, 1997; Storch, 1998). In this task, L2 learners are considered to create and reconstruct a text by inserting and using all the grammatical words to create meaningful and grammatical paragraph.

In addition, another area, which is the subject of the present study, is WTC. It is considered as an important and effective factor in SLA. WTC is defined as “the predisposition toward or away from communicating, given the choice” (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2003, p. 538). It is assumed that the degree of WTC is a factor in learning an L2 and the ability to communicate in that language. Consequently, the importance of communication leads L2 teachers to improve L2 instruction communicably. In fact, the higher WTC a speaker has, the more likely he or she is to succeed in L2 learning. High WTC is associated with increased frequency and amount of communication (Richmond & Roach, 1992).

WTC in L1 was considered as the degree of being introverted or extroverted. McCroskey and Richmond (1991), also, believe that the antecedents of WTC are communicative competence, introversion, self-esteem, and cultural diversity. According to McCroskey and Richmond (1991), WTC in L1 is considered as a trait-like situation and many situational variables such as people’s feelings, recent communications, other persons, and what is gained or lost through that communication strongly influence communicative manners. In line with studies on L1 WTC, MacIntyre et al. (1998) adapted WTC to L2 situation and discovered individual differences and their relations to communication behaviors in an L2. They believe that the use of an L2 is associated with the situational differences of competence and intergroup relations. Therefore, it would not be essential to constrain WTC to the trait-like variable.

Theoretical exploration and pedagogical application throughout the current decade have, primarily, promoted the important role of using language to communicate in L2 learning and teaching. Moreover, MacIntyre et al. (1998) argued that the ultimate goal of L2 learning should be to “engender in language students the willingness to seek out communication opportunities and the willingness actually to communicate in them” (p. 547). Based on this argument, MacIntyre et al. (1998) propose that creating WTC should be a proper objective for L2 education.

Regarding this statement, the creation of WTC in L2 classes becomes important. Also, MacIntyre et al. (1998) proposed a heuristic model of the WTC construct with an account of linguistic, communicative, and social psychological variables that might affect one’s WTC in a second
language communication context. The trait-like conceptualization of WTC advanced by McCroskey and Richmond (1987) in L1 communication was then extended as a situational variable with both transient and enduring influences in an L2 setting in MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) study.

According to MacIntyre et al. (2009) the psychological, linguistic, educational, and communicative aspects of language are not by any means separated; in fact, they are incorporated as the characteristics of L2 learner’s experiences. They believe that emotional and cognitive processes impact L2 learning and use significantly and conflictingly. Consequently, sometimes L2 learners have a strong desire for communication, and other times L2 learners are unwilling to communicate. MacIntyre et al. (1998) provide a pyramid model of variables affecting WTC as shown in Figure 1. The model is explained in the following:

**Figure 1:** MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) WTC model.

MacIntyre et al. (1998) consider WTC in L2 as a layered pyramid model in which different variables influence L2 learners’ eventual L2 use (see Figure 1). WTC is influenced by both situational influences (Layers I, II, III) and enduring influences (Layers IV, V, VI). In fact, the L2 learners have more control over the act of communicating in L2 as they move up the pyramid.

In this pyramid model, they made a distinction between immediate situational factors and enduring influences that underlie L2 WTC. At the top of the hierarchy, the frequency of L2 communication is mentioned. WTC is underneath of L2 use and is influenced by the situational factors of desire to communicate and L2 users’ state self-confidence. At the bottom of the layers of the pyramid, social psychological factors, such as personality and intergroup motivation are integrated into the model. The strength of the model lies in the conceptualization of L2 WTC as a situational variable and incorporating both trait and situational predictors of WTC into this model.
According to McIntyre et al. (1998), WTC contains a model which consists of six layers or variables. These layers differ from each other in the kind of their situational or enduring influences on WTC. Situational influences refer to the context that a person functions, in contrast with, enduring influence that is described as the individuals’ properties, which can apply to any situation (Riasati & Noordin, 2011). The first three layers are communication behavior, behavior intention, and situated antecedents, which pose situational influence on L2 communication. The last three layers are motivation properties, effective-cognitive context, as well as social and individual context, which make enduring influences on L2 communication (McIntyre et al., 1998).

Over the last two decades, SLA researchers (e.g., Kang, 2005; MacIntyre, 2007; MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011; Yashima, 2002) have all emphasized the importance of WTC as a crucial component of modern language instruction. Communicative competence, alone, may not result in actual L2 communication inside or outside the classroom (Dörnyei, 2005). Kang states that “L2 learners with a high level of WTC are more likely to use L2 in authentic communication and facilitate language learning” (p. 278). Therefore, recent researches in WTC investigated its effects on L2 learning.

With regard to the study at Australian National University carried out by Wang (2004), 20 university students learning Modern Chinese from a second-year class at the Australian National University were selected to look at the relationship between students’ L2 written performance and their WTC in class. The participants were given a survey about their WTC in class and a language written test. The questionnaires covered the situational settings in language class context, such as willingness to ask the teacher for clarification, willingness to initiate the conversation, and willingness to try new words and phrases. The written test contained grammar items and a short essay writing. The study revealed that there was a relationship between the students’ L2 written performance and their WTC in class. In fact, the more willing the students were to communicate in class, the better they did in their L2 written performance.

Also, Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006) investigated the relationship between WTC and online chat. They compared face to face spoken language with using online chat in performing solving tasks. Nine groups, consisting of four participants, took part in the study. Both the questionnaire and the subjects’ discourse analysis were investigated and led to the conclusion that online chat provided a comfortable environment and improved L2 participants’ WTC.

Another study by Wang and Erlam (2011), investigated the relationship between task-based lessons and L2 learners’ WTC. In this study, the L2 learners performed the tasks and the L2 teacher recorded their WTC during the tasks and in variety of contexts. Four students were the main consideration of this inquiry. The tasks helped the learners to reduce their communication anxiety and increase perceived communication competence. The learners’ attitudes toward these tasks were positive, and they found these tasks as the fun games that led to their WTC. In fact, all the L2 learners used the L2 when they were doing tasks.
Weaver (2004) examined situational variables underlying WTC in L2 classrooms in relation to task types. His study investigated 1104 Japanese learners’ WTC within an L2 classroom at tertiary level. Unlike previous studies that exclusively adopted the WTC scale developed by McCroskey and Richmond (1991), this study used a questionnaire developed by the researcher himself to investigate whether or not the learner’s L2 WTC would vary across 17 speaking situations and tasks potentially arising in this social context of a L2 classroom. The findings revealed that the students’ WTC varied significantly across the different speaking situations and tasks and suggested that task as a variable, likely, to contribute to changes in WTC in L2 classrooms.

In a subsequent study, Weaver (2005) followed an experimental design to investigate the effect of English instruction and pretask planning on students’ level of WTC to do different speaking tasks within an oral communication class. Weaver’s study employed a WTC survey (n = 490), specifically designed for an L2 classroom. The results showed post-instruction gains in terms of WTC, suggesting that the pretask planning had a positive effect on WTC.

In summary, the review of the related literature shows that more investigation is required to examine the effect of input and collaborative output FonF tasks and WTC. Failure of research in comparing the effect of input vs. collaborative output tasks on different grammatical structures made the present researchers investigate their effect on L2 learners’ WTC. Firstly, the importance of communication can never be neglected. Secondly, more attention needs to make this aspect more effective. As a result, WTC, as one of important factors in communication, was examined in the present research.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In light of the above issues, this study sought to address the following research questions:

1. Do Form-focused tasks significantly improve Iranian EFL learners’ WTC?
2. Do collaborative output tasks increase Iranian EFL learners’ WTC more significantly than input-based tasks?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

To collect the data, a total of 50 pre-intermediate EFL students were involved in the main study. All the participants were native speakers of Persian who learnt English as a foreign language in Zabansara language Institute in Isfahan, Iran and had no prior experience of being in English-speaking countries. Their age ranged from 16 to 22. After the Oxford Placement Test (OPT), 50 out of the 80 students were selected and divided into two 25 member groups. The study was conducted during an academic term in two pre-intermediate adult classrooms in 2013. The undergraduate participants were attending the class approximately for three days a week and were receiving their education mainly in English as the medium of instruction.
In this study, two instruments were employed: OPT and the WTC questionnaire. At first, in order to investigate the homogeneity of the participants in both classes, the OPT was used. It included 100 multiple-choice items. The level required for the research was pre-intermediate, and the scores needed for this level were 60 to 67 out of 100. According to Allen (2004), OPT has both features of highly economical and easy to administer test and these leads to consistently meaningful scores from level 1 (beginner) upwards. Also, the OPT has been calibrated against the proficiency levels based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), the Cambridge ESOL Examinations, and other major international examinations. Meanwhile, the reliability of the test as measured by Cronbach’s alpha in the current study was found to be 0.85.

The WTC questionnaire was used in order to check the effect of input vs. collaborative output tasks on the participants’ WTC. The participants were supposed to indicate the frequency of time they chose to speak in English in each classroom situation. Further, this questionnaire contained two main parts of inside classroom and outside classroom questions. Each part included 27 items and checked the participants’ WTC in both situations. This study estimated the internal consistency of the WTC questionnaire using Cronbach’s alpha. The results indicated that the Cronbach’s alpha for the questionnaire was .84.

**Procedures**

This study had a quasi-experimental design. Fifty EFL learners participated in the main study. They were divided randomly into two groups (i.e., input-based and collaborative output FonF groups). At the beginning of the course, the OPT was used in order to check the homogeneity of both experimental groups (i.e., input-based vs. collaborative output groups). The WTC questionnaire was given to the participants at the beginning and at the end of the course.

The study took place over one term. Several grammatical structures were chosen to be instructed based on two different kinds of tasks. In one group, the input-based FonF tasks (i.e., textual enhancement, processing instruction, and discourse tasks) were used, and, in the other, the collaborative output FonF tasks (i.e., dictoglass, jigsaw, and text reconstruction tasks) were performed. The grammatical structures were the same in both classes; only the kinds of tasks and activities differed.

In the input FonF group, the three input-based tasks of textual enhancement, processing instruction, and discourse tasks were instructed. Processing instruction is divided into two main activities: referential and affective. A referential activity is an activity with a right or wrong answer. An affective activity is concerned with the participants’ expression of their opinions. Textual enhancement draws the L2 participants’ attention toward linguistic forms by making them more salient using bolding, italicizing, and underlining. Discourse pedagogy focuses on grammar forms and meanings, as well as, use of those forms within larger discourse context.

In the collaborative group, collaborative output FonF tasks were performed. According to Wajnryb (1990), dictogloss contains a warm-up discussion of the topic. Afterwards, instructors
read the text twice, and the students use their notes to reconstruct the text in a small group. Consequently, the learners’ text is analyzed and corrected by the teacher and learners. Reconstruction cloze tasks lead L2 learners to produce specific target structures and involve two versions of the text: the original and a cloze version. The original text is read by the teacher at a normal pace. L2 learners listen carefully and take notes of the related content. Afterwards, they receive the cloze version of the text. They fill in the blanks with words and phrases related to the original text; finally, they compare their texts with the original ones and discuss the differences. A jigsaw task is a two-way information gap task in which L2 learners hold different information of a task and are supposed to exchange the different pieces of information to perform the task. The instruction lasted for about 26 sessions, 3 days a week. At the end of the course, the WTC questionnaire was used to check the participants’ WTC improvement.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest of WTC scores in both the input and collaborative output groups prior and after the treatments were carried out.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
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<td>Pretest WTC</td>
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<td>34.51</td>
<td>28.20</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest WTC</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18.66</td>
<td>38.51</td>
<td>28.33</td>
<td>4.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>Output</td>
<td>Pretest WTC</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21.32</td>
<td>37.67</td>
<td>28.18</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Posttest WTC</td>
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<td>24.33</td>
<td>39.83</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>4.19</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 indicates, the mean pretest scores of WTC in the input group and output group were 28.20 and 28.18, respectively. That is, the mean score in the input group was higher. The posttest demonstrated that the scores in the input group and output group were 28.33 and 31.00, respectively. Besides, both groups showed an increase in the scores from the pretests to the posttests.

The first research question inquired if using input-based and collaborative output FonF tasks could significantly improve EFL learners’ WTC. To address the first research questions of the study, paired samples t test was conducted. Table 2 reports the sample statistics of WTC scores. Also, Table 3 shows the result of the t test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Std. Dev</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest WTC</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>28.19</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest WTC</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>29.66</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Table 3, the results show $t = -2.00$ and the significance level is more than 0.05. It can be concluded that there was a not significant difference between the two scores. Thus, the participants’ responses to the WTC questions after performing the input and collaborative output tasks were not significantly different. The mean decrease was -1.47, with a 95% confidence interval stretching from a lower bound of -2.95 to an upper bound of .003.

Moreover, in order to check the effect of the WTC test in the input and output groups, two $t$ tests were performed. As Tables 4 and 5 show, the WTC scores did not improve significantly in the input group from the pretest to the posttest, but the WTC scores improved significantly in the output group from the pretest to the posttest.

The second research question asked if the collaborative output tasks were more effective than the input-based tasks in improving the participants’ WTC. To address this research question, covariate analyses were conducted. However, it was so important, first, to make sure that the WTC scores had similar variances across both groups. Thus, Levene’s test of equality of variance was done (see Table 6):
Levene tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. As Table 6 depicts, Levene’s statistics was larger than .05. Thus, the variance was equal, and there was no significant difference between the variance of the groups. Also, sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run. The significance value of Kolmogorov-Smirnov showed the normality of the sets of scores. As Table 7 presents, Kolmogorov-Smirnov value means was not significant, and in each group was more than (.05), which manifests the normality of the distribution of the scores. This further supports the homogeneity of the groups before the treatment was carried out. Also, the reliability assumption was met because the internal consistency of the pretest WTC scores was found to be (.84) through running Cronbach’s alpha.

The other assumption is the influence of treatment on covariate measurement. This assumption was, also, checked because the covariate (pretests) was measured prior to the treatment of the study (manipulation). The results are reported in Table 8. As Table 8 displays, the treatment for the pretest scores was not significant, $F = 3.110, p = .054$. There was not an interaction between the treatment and the pretest scores. This indicates that there was not a very significant difference between the two groups in terms of their WTC scores before the treatment was conducted.

To address this research question of the study, a one-way covariate test was conducted. The posttest scores from the WTC test were considered as the dependent variable and the pretest scores as the covariate variable. The groups were considered as the independent variables. The error was originally set at .05 when comparing the groups on the grammar variable. The results of analysis of variance for the treatment effect are reported in Table 9.
According to the Table 9, after removing the effect of the pretest, there was a significant difference between the two input and collaborative output groups, $F = 5.27$, *$p < .05$*. Therefore, it is approved that there was significant difference in the posttests after the treatments. In fact, the two groups of input and collaborative output showed a significant difference after the instruction.

**Discussion**

This study investigated the effect of input and collaborative output FonF tasks on Iranian EFL learners’ WTC. The result showed that input and collaborative output tasks influenced the participants’ WTC, but the improvement was not significant. Thus, the first null hypothesis is not rejected. In this study, the input and collaborative output tasks increased the participants’ WTC. Based on the result, these tasks and the importance of L2 learners’ attitudes towards classroom tasks and activities are considered important factors in L2 learning motivation. The study by Dornyei and Kormos (2000), in British and Hungarian classes found that the students’ engagement in classroom oral activities and tasks correlated significantly with their attitudes towards the language tasks they were asked to perform. In this study, both tasks increased the participants’ motivation and, consequently, led to their WTC improvement.

L2 learners’ attitude to classroom activities is, also, emphasized by researchers working from a sociocultural theoretical perspective. In the study, the input and collaborative output FonF tasks provided the participants with positive attitude and made them active agents to perform the tasks and receive feedback. As Lantolf and Thorne (2006) argue, L2 learners are viewed as active agents who assign significance to things and events in their life. This process of L2 learners as the active agents in their learning is appropriate when investigating adult classroom contexts. Such L2 learners display a wide range of learning goals, expectations, and abilities.

In this study, both the input and collaborative output tasks provided the participants with the perceived communication competence and low levels of anxiety; however, it was not very effective. According to MacIntyre’s (1994) WTC model, WTC was predicted by two variables of perceived communication competence and communication anxiety. That is, the model predicted that high levels of perceived competence combined with low levels of anxiety would lead to greater WTC, and, in turn, more frequent communication in an L2. Although L2 learners’ attitudes to the tasks are evaluated as an important consideration in explaining their willingness to
actively contribute to the task, there has been relatively little classroom-based research on their attitude and willingness towards such tasks.

The influence of the input and collaborative output tasks on the participants’ WTC was not significant. There are several reasons to support this finding. First, more sufficient time was perhaps required to improve their WTC effectively, and tasks usage over time could lead to the improvement of their WTC. More research is required in order to investigate the effect of different types of tasks overtime and their influence on L2 learners’ WTC. Second, as MacIntyre and MacKinnon (2007) mention, the choice to speak or to remain silent seems to be a factor here. According to MacIntyre (2007), both individual factors (i.e., anxiety, motivation, attitudes, interpersonal attraction, etc.) and social contextual factors (i.e., ethno-linguistic vitality, language contact, etc.) either enhance or reduce WTC. Consequently, the influences of these factors on L2 learners’ WTC should be considered. Finally, the type of tasks could be a variable affecting the result.

The second research question considered if collaborative output tasks were more effective than input-based tasks in improving the participants’ WTC. It was approved that there was a significant difference in the posttest of WTC in the input vs. collaborative output groups. In fact, the two groups of input and collaborative output showed a significant difference after instruction; collaborative output tasks appeared to influence the participants’ WTC more. Thus, the last null hypothesis is rejected.

There are several reasons why collaborative output tasks were more effective than input tasks in improving the participants’ WTC. The first reason is that collaborative output activities (i.e., jigsaw, text reconstruction, & dictogloss) push L2 learners to develop their interlanguage by drawing their attention to form while they are creating meaning. Consequently, the interactive nature of the collaborative output tasks influenced the participants’ WTC and made them more willing to communicate in the classroom. They were in line with sociocultural approach. Some researchers (Lantolf & Appel, 1994) consider sociocultural approach as the knowledge which is constructed through social interaction and between individuals and is then internalized (Vygotsky, 1978). This view has led to the effect of, and interest in, collaborative tasks, where language use and language learning take place simultaneously (Swain & Lapkin, 2002).

In the current study, the collaborative output tasks of reconstruction cloze task, dictogloss, and jigsaw tasks were used. Reconstruction cloze task is claimed to be an effective form-focused task, as L2 learners work collaboratively and peer feedback is available (García Mayo, 2002; Kowal & Swain, 1997; Storch, 1998). In this study, during the reconstruction task, the texts were devoid of function words and the participants had to come up with an accurate product. Consequently, they exchanged their grammatical information and received peer and L2 instructor feedback. Also, dictogloss encouraged them to reflect on their own output (Wajnryb, 2001). As Swain (1998) argues, dictogloss could make L2 learners process syntactically, pay attention to the gaps in their interlanguage, and consider the mismatch between their own language use and L2 (Doughty & Williams, 1998), or notice metatalk on the connections between form and meaning and in relation to the writing process (Kowal & Swain, 2001). Finally, jigsaw task, as an information gap
activity, could lead L2 learners exchange the part of the necessary information and perform the task. According to Swain and Lapkin (2001), jigsaw task is a type of task where opportunities for negotiation of meaning are likely to be generated. WTC in an L2 is defined as the individual’s “readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2” (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). As far as the readiness is concerned, language competence is the first thing to have. Good language proficiency will result in good communication. According to this study and concerning the mentioned features of collaborative output tasks, using these tasks may influence L2 learners’ language proficiency and, in turn, affect their WTC.

The second reason may be that the collaborative output tasks engaged the participants and attracted their attentions to task orientation. According to Peng and Woodrow (2010), there are three influential factors of teacher support, student cohesiveness, and task orientation in language classrooms. Dorman, Fisher, and Waldrip (2006) define teacher support as the extent to which the teacher helps, supports, trusts, befriends, and is interested in the students. Student cohesiveness refers to the extent to which students know, help, and support each other (Dorman et al., 2006). At last, task orientation refers to the extent to which it is important to complete the activities and solve the problems (Dorman et al., 2006).

It is possible that collaborative output tasks, as the attractive and useful tasks, led to the participants’ engagement. In this study, collaborative output tasks were considered to be more effective than input tasks in improving their WTC. In fact, collaborative output tasks may decrease L2 learners’ anxiety. In Peng and Woodrow’s (2010) study, a negative correlation was found between communication anxiety with L2 WTC, perceived communicative competence, teacher support, student cohesiveness, and task orientation. Also, a positive correlation was found between L2 WTC with perceived communicative competence, teacher support, student cohesiveness, and task orientation.

The last reason is that the collaborative output tasks provided the participants with repeated exposure to grammatical structures. MacIntyre et al. (1998) mention the L2 WTC heuristic model and consider the frequency of L2 use along with the situated approach. At the top of the model, the frequency of L2 communication is mentioned. WTC is placed directly underneath the use of L2. Also, WTC is influenced by the situational factors of L2 learners’ desire for communication and self-confidence. Hence, collaborative output tasks could expose L2 learners to grammatical structures repeatedly, and this fulfills WTC heuristic model’s requirement of the frequent use of L2. The above finding is inconsistent with the findings made by Barjesteh, Vaseghi, and Neissi (2012) who demonstrated that the Iranian learners were highly WTC in two context-types (i.e., group discussion and meeting) and one receiver-type (i.e., friend). As the majority of Iranian learners have the opportunity of speaking English only in the language classroom, both input and collaborative output tasks, particularly collaborative ones, can provide the chance of group discussion, meeting, and friendly chat.
CONCLUSION

In this study, the influence of input and collaborative output FonF tasks instructions on L2 learners’ WTC was examined. The results showed that there was no significant difference between the pretest and posttest of the participants’ WTC. Also, the analyses revealed that the collaborative output tasks were more effective than the input tasks in improving the participants’ WTC. According to this study, collaborative output tasks provide L2 learners with communication opportunities in L2 classes. The only opportunity for EFL learners to use their ability to communicate is in the classroom. Communication is a process in which people influence each other. Communicating in class by performing different types of tasks can make the learning atmosphere more relaxing, which hopefully can lead to better L2 performance with the teacher’s better understanding of the students’ WTC. Perhaps, the learners’ readiness to use those opportunities which arise in the classroom can lead to their success in learning an L2. Monitoring students’ WTC and improving their learning skill should, thus, be seen as one of the goals of L2 teachers.

There are still reasons to be cautious about the findings of this study. One limitation could be the sample size of this study. This study aimed to address a specific group of 50 Iranian EFL students. Despite the fact that the number of participants was sufficient for the purpose of the study, a larger sample size would have yielded more robust results so to make stronger generalization. Moreover, the current study did not examine communication orientations of the participants. Another limitation concerns the WTC instrument employed in the current study. Although the validity and reliability of the instrument were checked to satisfy the requirements of data collection, the depth of the information that the self-report tests could collect was limited due to the nature of questionnaire instruments; to obtain more comprehensive information about WTC in L2, qualitative methods such as interview and observation could be employed to complement the data.

REFERENCES


Roohani, A., & Hashemian, M.


ABSTRACT
Nowadays, technical terminology translation plays an important role in human life. Specific groups of people all over the world refer to learn these terminologies in order to be familiar with a subject and improve their knowledge in that domain. On the other hand, saving the technical translation equivalent is a particularly salient challenge for technical translators. The present study was conducted to investigate the difference between the translation of banking terminology in the dictionaries and that used by banking experts. To fulfill the purpose of the study, 40 Banking experts, consisting of male and female in different ages, were randomly selected from six banks. They were given a questionnaire including 197 sentences consisting of 214 underlined banking terminologies. The obtained data was analyzed and the results of the present study indicated that there is no activity by Persian Language and Literature Academy in making equivalents for economic terminology. Moreover, the results demonstrated the insufficiency of dictionaries in offering the equivalents for some economic terminologies. Besides, banking experts mostly suggested their own equivalents for the terminologies, but in some cases the offered translation by experts, were not unified or sometimes entirely opposite and in some cases, they offered descriptive definition for the terminologies. Thus, the results were interpreted to have implications for the educational system of translation studies to enhance its syllabus in training the technical translators. The significance of this research lies in the fact that the Persian Language and Literature Academy, which is responsible for creating economic terminology equivalents, develop a unified procedure for this purpose.

KEYWORDS: Technical Terminology, Technical Translation, Banking Terminology, Banking Terminology Translation

INTRODUCTION
Around the world, translation plays an important role in human life. When thinking about it, everything in life is a translation. Nowadays, technical text is one of those texts that play an important role in human life, because these texts help readers solve problems. Markel (2003)
Technical translation involves translation of documents produced by technical writers or more specifically, texts that relate to technological subject areas or texts which deal with technological information and the practical application of science. The presence of specialized terminology is a feature of technical texts. Specialized terminology by itself is not sufficient for classifying a text as "technical", since numerous disciplines and subjects which are not "technical" possess what can be regarded as specialized terminology (Byrne, 2006).

Moreover, many non-technical documents are aimed at specific groups, but technical documents are more special, regarding the audience they are aimed at, than most documents (Byrne 2006, p: 47). It means that these special groups of people refer to these texts, in order to be familiar with a subject and increase their knowledge in that area.

Additionally, he also adds that with the increasing level of globalization of world markets and the ever-shrinking nature of the world because of modern communications, transport and multinational companies, there have been quite significant changes in the way international markets and communications work. An increasing number of companies are using English as a working language, so these technical texts should be transferred between companies and countries with different languages (Pinchuck, 1977).

The aim of technical translation is to present new technical information to the wide new audiences, not to reproduce the source text, or reflect its style or language. Technical translation is a communicative service provided in response to a very definite demand for technical information, which is easily accessible so these texts should be comprehensible, clear, and fast in delivery (Byrne, 2006).

Technical translation as technical text has different kinds; "It is commonly supposed that technical translation includes not only the translation of text in medicine and engineering but also such disciplines as economic, psychology, sociology, geography and law texts" (Javier, 2004,p:92). One kind of technical texts as Javier mentions is economic text, which is practical and consists of financial, banking etc. Stolez (2003) also defines that" economic text is not just a "source text,” it has to be conceived as a text from the word of economics"(p: 188).

As Stolez (2003) believes: Economic texts have long been a central field of translation activity and hence of study and analysis. The core of economic specialized language is found in academic articles or business reports, financial accounts, forms, purchase or license contracts, etc. About the characteristics of economic texts there are some ideas such as" the discourse is often mathematical, with lots of formulas and proofs. Second, writing styles vary widely. Authors are
very dry and technical; a few are rather eloquent "(Neugeboren & Jacobson, 2001, p: 9). They also believe that economic writers do not have to be a great “writers” to produce good economics writings. This is because economics writing is different from many other types of writing. It is essentially technical writing, where the goal is not to turn a clever phrase, hold the reader in suspense, or create multi-layered nuance, but rather to achieve clarity. Elegant prose is nice, but clarity is the only style that is relevant for this purposes.

Others such as Byrne (2006) believes that technical translators needs to impersonate the original author who is generally, though not always, an expert in a particular field and they need to write with the same authority as an expert in the target language. Therefore, in this case, the challenge for the technical translator is to be able to research subjects and to have expert knowledge of the way experts in a particular field write texts. Byrne summarizes the essential areas of expertise for technical translators as subject knowledge, writing skills, research skills, knowledge of genres and text types and pedagogical skills. In other words nonliterary translation according to Galinski and Budin (1993, p: 209) is:

The non-literary translator must also be in possession of considerable subject matter knowledge (emphasis added)". Although technical translators have different concerns, such as transferring the information accurately, correctly and effectively, their challenge is to ensure that all of the relevant information is conveyed in such a way that the readers can use the information easily, properly and effectively. Their aim is precisely the same as that of technical writing, but on the whole when considering all the above mentioned characteristics, two factors are prominent; one is the translators' subject knowledge and the other is their translation ability or even their writing skill in translation (Byrne, 2006). Fluck (1992) defines these two factors in another way "the ideal non-literary translator is often defined as a sort of a combination of the subject matter expert and the trained translator”.

Technical translation covers the translation of many kinds of specialized texts in science and technology, and in other disciplines such as economics and medicine (Williams & Chesterman, 2002). Especially compared with literary translation, Aixelá (2004) argues against the view that scientific prose can be perfectly or more easily translated: “The contrary is true: the extremely high requirements set for scientific and technical translation mark it out clearly from other genres, making it into an independent research field in its own right.” One kind of technical texts as Javier (2004), mentions is economic text, which is practical and consists of financial, banking etc. Stolez (2003) also defines that economic text is not just a source text; it has to be conceived as a text from the word of economics.

Economy is a branch in social studies, which aims to study the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth. Knowledge in economy helps in understanding economic condition of a person or a country or understanding how the various economic agents behave or interact with each other and how the economic activities take place. Therefore, studies in economy are crucial in many aspects. In every society, laws sound to be the result of its economic conditions and development. The relationship between law and economics has increased nowadays according to
economic activity and expansion so that a new discipline called as Economic Law has been emerged.

As economic translation is a kind of technical translation, also because the bankers do economic translation for the economic documents and journals of their own organizations, as well as giving banking services to their customers it is the economy translator who should choose the exact word from the equivalents by his/her economic appreciation. But based on the website of the Academy of Persian Language and Literature, and phone talking with Mr. Mahrami, the public relations manager of the academy, there is no activity in the selection of equivalents for banking terminologies by the academy. Since different equivalents offered for economic terminology by different dictionaries, besides the lack of existence of equivalents for economic terminology in some dictionaries, there is no, based on the researcher’s experience as a banker, uniform procedure in the selection of the equivalents for banking terminologies by translators. Therefore, at present research, two factors such as subject knowledge and rate of banking experts’ acceptability, which may influence the quality of selected equivalents and their suggestions for banking terminologies, will be discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As a field, technical translation has been recognized, studied, and developed since the 1960s. Thompson (1967), Daniel (1967) and Finch (1969) argue that Stemming from the field of translation studies, the field of technical translation traditionally emphasized much importance on the source language from which a text is translated. However, over the years, there has been a different movement from this traditional approach to focus on the purpose of the translation, and on the intended audience. In this regard, Kingscott, (2002) maintains that perhaps this is because only 5-10% of items in a technical document are terminology, while the other 90-95% of the text is language, most likely in a natural style of the source language.

Newmark (1988) believes that technical translation is only one subset of the different types of professional translation. It is the largest subset as far as output is concerned. Currently, more than 90% of all professionally translated work is done by technical translators, highlighting the importance and significance of the field (Kingscott, 2002).

What Is Translation?

The definition of translation as mentioned in the Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2003), as to change words into a different language or change something into a new form, especially to turn a plan in to reality. Nonetheless, translation has been variously defined. The following represent some chronological definitions, which have been uttered by eminent features of translation field:

Bassnett (1980, p.11) says that "What is generally regarded as translation involves the rendering of a source language (SL) text into the target language (TL) so as to ensure that the surface meaning of the SL will be presented as closely as possible but not so closely that the TL structures will be seriously distorted."
Seleskovitch (1977) believes that translation is a separate activity from interpretation. He defines translation in this way: "Translation is often a code-switching operation implying that a sequence of symbols from one language is substituted for a sequence of symbols in another language." It seems that the definition above focuses on the structure of translation rather than the meaning transference.

**Translation Competence**

A translator is a person who expresses in a language (generally in his/her mother tongue and writing) what is written in another language. It is obvious that translation is much more than just knowing two languages. There is something that distinguishes a bilingual person from a professional translator: translation competence. The competence needed to translate has also evolved due to different factors, mainly technological factors.

First of all, the term competence and then more specifically the term translation competence will be defined. Competence is the combination of skills, attitudes, and behavior that leads to an individual being able to perform a certain task to a given level. Translation competence is "a complex concept that has been addressed by a number of researchers in the field of Translation Studies" Ezpeleta (2005: 136).

**Translation Equivalence**

An equivalent term should thus primarily represent the referred concept by its informative content and be usable from the perspective of its user. Secondly, but still important, comes the demand for coherence with the practice of the field and linguistic and terminological acceptability. In this study, translation equivalence refers to a specific kind of technical equivalence, which is used in banks as banking terminologies.

In this regard, Karimi (2006) argues that the process of finding equivalents in two languages is that the translator should first decode the source text (ST). That is, to figure out the meaning message/intention of the original speaker or writer, and then ask himself or herself how the same decoded meaning/message/intention is encoded in the target text (TT). Kade (1968) also suggested four equivalent types: (a) Total (one-to-one correspondence), (b) Facultative (one-to-many correspondence), (c) Approximation (one-to-part-of-one correspondence), (d) Null (no correspondence).

**Technical Translation**

Technical translation covers the translation of many kinds of specialized texts in science and technology, and in other disciplines such as economics and medicine (Williams and Chesterman, 2002). As translations send technical information throughout the world, a wide range of people can use it. The aim of technical translation is to transmit technical information, as Pinchuck (1977) believes, and this would be just half of the story. Although, he states that technical texts are utilitarian and are intended to serve a relatively finite purpose, namely to clearly present information to the target language readers, there is more to technical translation than just simply transmitting information.
Technical Competence

Technical competence is the ability to perform the activities within a defined standard, consistently and over time. In addition, knowledge of skills in the exercises of, practices required for successful accomplishment of a business, job, and task.

Economics

There is a variety of modern definitions of economics. Some of the differences may reflect evolving views of the subject itself or different views among economists Backhouse, Roger E, and Steven Medema (2008). Antoine de Montchrestien (1615) believes that the earlier term for 'economics' was political economy. It is adapted from the French Mercantilist usage of économie politique, which extended economy from the ancient Greek term for household management to the national realm as public administration of the affairs of state. James Steuart (1767) wrote the first book in English with 'political economy' in the title, explaining that just as:

Economy, in general, is the art of providing for all the wants of a family, so the science of political economy seeks to secure a certain fund of subsistence for all the inhabitants, to obviate every circumstance which may render it precarious; to provide every things necessary for supplying the wants of the society, and to employ the inhabitants in such manner as naturally to create reciprocal relations and dependencies between them, so as to supply one another with reciprocal wants.

Translation of Economic Texts

Economics is a broad and complex subject field with several sub-fields like macro- economics, micro economics and economics of a particular state and like that. For perfect economic translation, the economic translator must have in-depth knowledge on the particular part of economics that he or she is going to translate. For non-academic economic document translation, knowledge on the specific field is required. By the way, proficiency in both source and target languages is necessary for accurate economic translation. Robbins (1932) believes that economic translation is the translation of documents related to economics as an academic discipline and non-academic documents like bank articles, sales reports, and more. In this regard, based on Newmark’s (1988) definition, economic texts are technical texts and consequently their translation is a part of technical translation. Newmark (1988) believes that technical translation is a kind of specialized translation, institutional translation, the area of politics, commerce, finance, government etc.

Terminology

Terminology is regarded as the systematic designation of defined concepts within a specific field, requiring specialized knowledge and the authorization to exercise a specific profession connected to this specialized knowledge. Terminology is also defined socially: people with specific qualifications for exercising a given profession also connect it to language use in specific professional situations .One might say that since in the realm of science and technology, a set of standard terminology with predefined equivalents exist, there is no terminological level problem in translating technical texts. However, International standardized terminology is very rare (Stolze, 2009). The reason is that new technical concepts are made every day. Many dictionaries
suggested meanings for technical concepts are not equivalent to the original because of different cultural implications and backgrounds.

**Banking Terminology**

Banking terminology refers to terminologies that are used in banking process in journals, especially in the International Affair Department, Business Affair Department, Money Laundering Department, and the Letter of Credit Department of selected branches that are dealing with foreign countries. These affairs include export, import, and opening of letter of credit.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

What is the difference between translation of banking terminology in dictionaries and that used by banking experts?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The participants of this research were banking experts. To this regard, 40 banking experts participated in this study. They were male and female, between 35 to 45 years old. They had years of experience in the fields of English translation, English teaching, English literature, General Linguistics, Applied linguistics, Economics, Management, and political law. They were employees of the International Affair Department, Business Affair Department, Money Laundering Department, and Selected Branches of six Iranian Banks, Melli, Eghtesad Novin, Tejarat, Refah, Sepah, and Keshavarzi.

**Material**

In order to fulfill the purpose of the present study, three different dictionaries and eight books were chosen as material. The chosen materials were as follows.

- Aria Banking and Economic Specialized Dictionary (2011)
- Aryanpour Dictionary (1988)
- Farhang Moaser Money, Banking and International Finance Dictionary (2011)
- Uniform Rules for Collections (1996)
- Uniform Customs and Practice for Documentary Credits
- Uniform Rules for Demand Guarantees
- Uniform Rules for Bank Payment Obligations
- United Nations convention on Contracts for the International Carriage of Goods Wholly or Partly by Sea
- Incoterms 2010 International Chamber of Commerce (ICC) Rules for the Use of Domestic and International of Trade Terms
- Case Study on Documentary Credits (Problems, Queries, Answers)

In order to capture all possible results of the research question, the instrumentation was cautiously presented in one section, which has been arranged in one questionnaire package. The questionnaire package was a banking terminology equivalents. The test used in this research was economic terminology translation test, consisting of one hundred and ninety seven sentences which included two hundred and fourteen banking terminologies. In every sentence, there was at least one underlined banking terminology that was extracted from sources that are used in banks. These sources were prepared from ICC (International chamber of commerce) and its equivalents in Persian language from three dictionaries, i.e. Aria Banking and Economic Specialized Dictionary, Aryanpour Dictionary, and Farhang Moaser Money, Banking and International Finance Dictionary.

Theoretical Framework
The theoretical framework of this study was based on the Katamba and Tajvidi’s model. (Katamba, 2006), in productivity of word-formation, explains three kinds of productivity:

Procedure
After preparing banking sources such as articles, books, and journals, all banking terminologies, which were two hundred and fifteen (excluding the repeated ones), were extracted and written down. From those sources, a questionnaire that consisted of four choices A, B, C, and D was prepared. Then, the researcher found Persian equivalents for those banking terminologies from three different dictionaries and wrote them in the choices A, B, and C. In the next step the researcher requested forty banking experts to select the best equivalent from one of the choices of A, B, and C. If none of the choices were equivalent for the underlined banking terminology, they were requested to write their own equivalents in choice D, based on their own banking experience. In the last step, the selected answers by banking experts were compared and analyzed on (Katamba, 2006) and (Tajvidi’s, 2000) framework model to select the best equivalent for banking terminologies.

Collecting the data
The present study reports the data analysis in a chronological order, discusses the description of banking terminologies equivalents in Persian language at first, and then illustrates the inferential analysis performed on the research question.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
According to the results tabulated in the table 1, most of the banking experts provided their own equivalents for underlined banking terminologies. The total descriptive result of the questionnaire investigation is as follows:
Table 1: Results Summary of the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>%11.90</td>
<td>%17.48</td>
<td>%18.74</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>%15.51</td>
<td>%100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in the above table, 5 out of 40 banking experts equal to 11.90 percent, have chosen banking terminology equivalents from choice A, which its equivalents in Persian language were extracted from Aria Banking and Economic Specialized Dictionary. 7 out of 40 banking experts equal to 17.48 percent, chose B, which its equivalents were extracted from Aryanpur Dictionary, and 7 out of 40 banking experts equal to 18.74 percent, choice C, which its equivalents were extracted from Farhang Moaser Money, Banking and International Finance Dictionary.

In addition, banking experts were asked to write their own equivalents in choice D if none of choices A, B, or C were equivalents for underlined banking terminologies in the questionnaire. In this regard, 15 out of 40 banking experts equal to 36.37 percent, produced their own equivalents for underlined banking terminologies in choice D. Moreover, banking experts were requested to select choice N if they had no comments on the underlined banking terminologies. In this regard, 6 out of 40 banking experts equal to 15.51 percent, had no comment. The total indicates that 100 percent of the choices were chosen by 40 banking experts.

As mentioned before, 15 out of 40 banking experts equal to 36.37 percent, made their own equivalents for underlined banking terminologies. Compound banking terminologies were part of them and the overall frequency and percentage were illustrated in the table below:

Table 2: Percentage of suggested equivalents of samples for compound words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (Compound words)</th>
<th>Equivalents in Persian Language</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Total Percentage</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Remitting Bank</td>
<td>بانک و اگزارت، بانک فرصت، بانک ارسال کننده، بانک و اگزارت در کسر یارایت، بانک پرداخت، کننده، بانک طرف صادر کننده، بانک و ارزیز کننده</td>
<td>%0.14</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performing Party</td>
<td>انجام دهنده، طرف مجزی، شرکت انجام دهنده جمل و قتل، شرکت عامل، عامل حمل، طرف نهیه کننده کننده، کالا، شخص عملیاتی، اجرا قرارداد</td>
<td>%0.33</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The examples above were samples of compound words for banking terminologies in this study, whose equivalents were produced by banking experts in Persian language. Apparently, whether based on the subject knowledge of banking experts or not, approximately most of banking experts tend to create their own equivalents for a number of compound words of banking terminologies.
There are a number of phrases among banking terminologies, but in the compassion of compound words, banking experts offered their own less equivalents for those phrases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (phrases)</th>
<th>Equivalents in Persian Language (Offered By Banking Experts)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Total Percentage</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bill of Exchange</td>
<td>No comment</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bill of Lading</td>
<td>بارنامه، بارنامه کشی</td>
<td>%27.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Influence of Education on the Equivalent Selection

Moreover, while analyzing the data, the researcher came to an finding that in the offering of the equivalents for banking terminologies, that were offered by banking experts, who had Ph.D educational degree, were different from other equivalents which were offered by other banking experts. The samples of this category were tabulated in table 4:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (Banking terminologies)</th>
<th>Equivalent(s) offered by Ph.D Degree Experts</th>
<th>Other Experts Equivalents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Facsimile</td>
<td>نگار تور</td>
<td>فکس، رونوشت برای اصل، کپی برای اصل</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apparently, based on data analysis of the samples of Ph.D degree banking expert equivalents, there is a significant difference between Ph.D degree banking expert equivalents and those offered by other experts. In the following sentence, “Details of the drawee, including full name, postal address, or the domicile at which presentation is to be made as well as applicable telex, telephone and facsimile numbers”, It is entirely clear that as “facsimile” is not a document and "دورنگار" is a proper equivalent, which is offered by a Ph.D degree banking expert, rather than the equivalent " رونوشت برای اصل، کپی برای اصل " which was suggested by other experts that talks about a document or "فکس" that is foreignized. Moreover, foreignization is one of the problems in finding equivalents for a number of banking terminologies. After analysis, the results were revealed and are indicated in the following table.

According to table 5, there are no equivalents for these samples of banking terminologies in Persian language and that experts used the exact English words while translating, as well as while
talking to bank customers. The problem is that the customers who deal with banking affairs, especially with the International Foreign Affairs Department, do not understand the exact meaning of these terminologies. In this regard, since all of the banking terminologies are international expressions, there were no choices and alterative options for banking experts. Thus, they use the English words as an equivalent for banking terminologies.

**Significant Differences and oppositions to the Selected Equivalents**

According to the results of this study, the researcher found that there are significant differences among the presented equivalents for banking terminologies by banking experts. After identifying the opposite equivalents, their classification is as follows:

**Table 6:** Samples of Significant differences and oppositions in the selected equivalents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items (Banking Terminologies)</th>
<th>Choice D (Banking Experts’ Comments)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Total Percentage</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Free Out</td>
<td>هزینه تخلیه از کشتی، تخلیه کامل، مسير دریایی درست، ارادسازی، تخلیه کامل در پایان قرارداد، بدون هزینه تخلیه</td>
<td>%0.13</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relent</td>
<td>با مشتری مدارا کردن، جشم یوئی کردن، تخفیف دامن، پول نکردن، زوربازان، اگز، فلک، نرم شدن</td>
<td>%0.17</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attestation de verification</td>
<td>گواهی تطبیق، نامید فیلی، تصدیق گواهی، صحت، احراز، اصل، سرویس تانی گواهی، انگلیسی نیست</td>
<td>%0.20</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen, in the data analysis of banking terminologies, the researcher found significant differences among the samples of the presented equivalents in choice D. In this regard, a number of banking experts produced their own equivalents as they were dealing with a general text, and use general equivalents for an economic expression. In the terminologies "free out" and "relent", respectively 0.05 and 0.07 out of 40 banking experts equal to 0.13 and 0.17 percent, offered their own equivalents. Apparently, in both cases, banking experts have an opposite idea about them. Moreover, in the expression"attestation de verification" a number of banking experts believed that the mentioned word is not an English word and had no idea about it, but other experts offered their own equivalents.

**Descriptive Explanation and Collocation of Banking Terminology Equivalents**

When words appear next to banking terms and within a banking context, their meanings may differ from their general or common meanings. Collocation is a problem known as a translator’s trap. For instance, based on Aria Banking and Economic Specialized Dictionary, and Farhang Moaser Money, Banking and International Finance Dictionary, the equivalent for the compound word "advising bank" is "بانک ابلاغ کننده". But most banking experts believe that since the word "ابلاغ" has judicial meaning, hence there is no collocation between "بانک ابلاغ کننده" and "ابلاغ". In this regard the violence of collocation range in Persian language occurs according to most
banking experts as the proper equivalent for “advising bank “بایانک اطلاع دهنده”. Apparently, deciding upon collocations and their meaning are important issue in banking terminology equivalents.

According to table 7, 0.12 out of 40 banking experts equal to 0.31 percent, offered “بایانک اطلاع دهنده” as an equivalent for “advising bank”.

Moreover, Based on Newmark (1988), “usually descriptive terms which suddenly become technical terms, their meaning sometimes hides innocently behind a more general or figurative meaning”. Due to the results, a number of banking terminologies are categorized in the following table.

As table 8, shows, based on the principle of economy, it is not possible to consider equivalents for a number of banking terminologies, thus the experts have to describe the term and use it as an equivalent.

**Failure of Banking Experts in Giving Banking Terminology Equivalents**

After analyzing the results of this study, the researcher found that banking experts could not offer their own equivalents for a number of banking terminologies, even for some simple ones. The following table shows the results.

According to table 9, the results show that a number of banking experts were unable to offer a number of terminology equivalents. For the item "Intended", it was predicted that most of the
banking experts knew the terminology equivalent in Persian language, but 0.04 out of 40 banking experts equal to 0.11 percent of them were unable to offer it.

All Agreement of Banking Experts in Compound Words Equivalents of Banking Terminologies

By analyzing the results of this study, the researcher came to an interesting result. For a number of banking terminologies especially compound words the equivalents of banking terminologies were approximately chosen by common consent of banking experts. The results are shown below:

Table 10: Samples of all agreement of banking experts compound words equivalents of banking terminologies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item (banking terminologies)</th>
<th>Choice D</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Common Consent percentage</th>
<th>Common Consent Frequency</th>
<th>Total Percentage</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Debt</td>
<td>%0.40</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>%0.34</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>%36.37</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As was previously mentioned, banking experts tend to offer their own equivalents for compound words. As seen among the samples, a number of compound word equivalents, offered by banking experts, are the same suggested equivalents. For example, for the term “foreign debt” 0.16 out of 40 banking experts equal to 0.40 percent, offered their own equivalents, in which 0.34 percent of offered equivalents for the term is "پرداخت خارجی".

Shortage of Banking and Economic Specialized Dictionaries in Offering Banking Terminology Equivalents

After analyzing the prepared questionnaire of banking terminologies, which were answered by banking experts, the researcher found that there were no equivalents for a number of banking terms in Banking and Economic Specialized Dictionaries. A number of banking experts selected the equivalents from Aryanpour General Dictionary, in which the offered equivalents were not related to banking and economics. Table 11, indicates the results.

Table 11: Samples of shortage of banking and economic specialized dictionaries in offering the banking terminology equivalents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item (banking terminologies)</th>
<th>Choice A</th>
<th>Choice C</th>
<th>Percentage Choices A and C</th>
<th>Frequency Choices A and C</th>
<th>Total Percentage choice A</th>
<th>Total Frequency choice A</th>
<th>Total Percentage choice C</th>
<th>Total Frequency choice C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courier</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%11.90</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>%18.74</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>%11.90</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>%18.74</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 11, it is clear that there are no equivalents for the underlined term in the choices A and C that respectively were extracted from Aria Banking and Economic Specialized Dictionary, and Farhang Moaser Money, Banking and International Finance Dictionary.
In the investigation of banking expert’s skills or their tendencies to suggest their own equivalents for banking terminologies, which were described throughout this study. Therefore, what was conspicuous here was that in comparison of the translation of banking terminology in the dictionaries and that used by banking experts, the researcher found that banking experts, to a large extend, reflected their own equivalents for most of the banking terminologies. As there is no activity by the Persian Language and Literature Academy in developing equivalents for economic, financial, and banking terminologies in Persian language, the researcher had to compare banking terminology equivalents in and among dictionaries and banking experts. It was concluded that through this study that more investigation and work is needed in financial translation field from both sides, the banking experts and, especially, the Academy, which is responsible in these areas. It is necessary for the Academy to make a reliable reference of equivalents for economic, financial, and banking terminologies.

CONCLUSION

According to the results of this study, the researcher came up with the conclusion that there is no effort by the Persian Language and Literature Academy to make equivalents for economic terminologies. Moreover, the results demonstrated that there were no equivalents for a number of economic terms in dictionaries, even in specialized ones. Besides, banking experts mostly suggested their own equivalents for them. But among them, there were significant differences or entirely opposite and descriptive definitions for a number of the equivalents.

The outcome of this study was that by scrutinizing various aspects of banking terminology equivalents, and by examining the ways they have been translated, the researcher concluded that there are no equivalents for a number of economic terms in dictionaries, even in specialized ones. Besides, the banking experts’ current information is not enough in suggesting economic equivalents, and thus more investigation and work is needed in the economic translation field by banking experts. Moreover, there is a need for an academy to create a teamwork effort in the field of economic terminology translation, in the sense of being more specific, in order to develop a reliable reference for presenting proper equivalents in economic translations.

Limitations of the study

As the limitations of this research, it is necessary to mention that: the gender and age of the experts is not considered in this research. Also, despite the variety of economic texts that contains banking terminology, there are not enough proficient translators for these texts. In fact, many economic texts are not translated yet. Since in this research it is necessary to compare the dictionary equivalents of banking terminology and those suggested by banking experts, therefore, despite the many books in this regard, only seven books which are most commonly used in banks are selected as the materials of this research.

On the other hand, as the researcher is a banker, thus he prefers to work on economic translation. But, it is out of reach of this study to analyze the equivalent of all types of economical terminology. Therefore, only banking terminology is chosen as the main focus of this research.
REFERENCES


THE COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THREE DIFFERENT GENRES ON THE BASIS OF HOLLIDAY'S SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR FRAMEWORK

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ABSTRACT
This genre-based study aimed to investigate three different genres on the basis of Holliday's ideational metafunction. To this end, three genres, drawn from high school and university books of Iran, have been selected for the investigation. The purpose was to see whether we can consider some unique characteristics for each genre in terms of used processes or not. The three genres used in this study were economy, biology, and theology. In order to determine the frequency of different processes of ideational metafunction, the verbs indicating the processes have been counted. After data analysis, it was found that in three mentioned genres, the relational and martial processes have been used with more frequently as compared with other processes, and relational process have been used in theology genre with less frequently as compared with the other two genres. Furthermore, the economy genre was similar to biology genre in terms of the frequently of existing processes. But, both economy and biology genres were quite different from theology genre. The overall conclusion is that the aim of biology and economy genres is to demonstrate the relationship between the phenomena which are of concrete nature, and the theology genre pays much more attention to man and his behavior. Finally, the findings of this study can provide worthwhile implications and insights in light with educational and scientific objectives, which are useful for textbook designers, teachers and other practitioners. The insights resulting from this study can also be influential for educational objectives and methods.

KEYWORDS: Genres, Metafunction, Process, Context, Content Analysis.

INTRODUCTION
According to Swales (1990, p.58), a genre “comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style”. This definition has prompted lots of researchers to carry out different studies with the aim of analyzing different texts; to the extent that lots of structural components of different text types along with their distribution patterns have been identified.
Many textbooks all over the world have been designed and developed based on these genre-based analyses. Generally speaking, genre is associated with the applied specific situation as well as the specific communication goals. It should be noted that "a genre consists of three basic parts: the context of the situation, role and relations between the two parts, the first feature-language" (Baber & Conrad, 2009). In other words, a genre is first described based on its salient grammatical and lexical characteristics; in addition, its situation context is described. For example, whether a text is written or oral, or whether it is interactive or not, and what is the communication goal? On the other hand, the relationship between the linguistic features and properties of context (e.g., the purpose of the association) should be determined. That is because genre is basically a functional approach. Hence, there is an intertwined interaction between genre-based studies and linguistic doctrines, and many studies have used linguistic doctrines in analyzing written genres. One of the functional linguistic doctrines that have been widely used in analyzing spoken and written genres is Holliday's systemic functional grammar. This theory is a functional theory of language. In other words, it explores the language in terms of its functioning in human lives (Tavernier, 2004). Systemic-functional linguistics (SFL), as its name suggests, considers function and semantics as the basis of human language and communicative activity (Martin, Mathieson & Painter, 1997). The term 'systemic' refers to the view of language as “a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning” (Halliday, 1994, p.15).

One of the basic concepts in Holliday's systemic functional grammar is language metafunctions. Halliday (1985) identified three metafunctions, namely ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction of language deals with language as representation: it focuses on the role of language in representing and shaping reality. Language is able to fulfill this function by subdividing reality into processes that take place, entities that can take part in these processes (living beings; concrete and abstract things), and qualities that we can use to describe these entities (Tavernier's, 2004). As Holliday and Mathieson note (1997, p.14), “the ideational metafunction is concerned with ‘ideation’ that is grammatical resources for construing our experience of the world around us and inside us. One of its major grammatical systems is TRANSITIVITY, the resource for construing our experience the flux of ‘goings-on’, as structural configurations; each consisting of a process, the participants involved in the process, and circumstances attendant on it.” As different types of processes are used in the analysis, so the concentration is being made on describing the different types of processes and their associated configurations of particular roles. This study is based on ideational functional language which consists of six types of processes one of the functions of a clause is to represent experience: to describe the events and states of the real (and unreal) world. In the SFL model, a representation of experience consists of: 1. Processes: Processes: what kind of event/state is being described. 2. Participants: Participants: the entities involved in the process, e.g., Actor, Sayers, Sensor, etc. 3. Circumstances: Circumstances: specifying the when, where, why and how of the process.

Register is also an important notion in Holliday's systemic functional grammar, which is based on the selection among different varieties of the language. This selection is not actually accidental and is restricted based on the given register. Halliday (1990) interprets this notion as “a semantic concept” which “can be defined as a configuration of meanings that are typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, mode, and tenor.” (p.38). The linguistic features...
(specific expressions, lexicon-grammatical and phonological features) and the particular values of the three dimensions of field, mode and tenor determine the functional variety of a language (Halliday, 1994, p.22). These three parameters can be used to specify the context of situation in which language is used. Field of discourse is defined as “the total event, in which the text is functioning, together with the purposive activity of the speaker or writer; it thus includes the subject-matter as one element in it” (p. 22). The field describes activities and processes that are happening at the time of speech. The analysis of this parameter focuses on the entire situation, e.g. when a mother talks to her child. The mode of discourse refers to “the function of the text in the event, including therefore both the channel taken by the language – spoken or written, extempore or prepared – and its [genre], or rhetorical mode, as narrative, didactic, persuasive, ‘phatic communion’ and so on” (ibid). This variable determines the role and function of language in a particular situation. When analyzing the mode of a text, the main question is ‘What is achieved by the use of language in this context?’ For example, a fairy tale (in written form) may have a narrative or entertaining function. A spoken conversation can be argumentative (in a discussion) or phatic (e.g. to contact someone or to keep in touch with someone). Tenor of discourse (sometimes also referred to as style) describes the people that take part in an event as well as their relationships and statuses. “The tenor refers to the type of role interaction, the set of relevant social relations, permanent and temporary, among the participants involved” (Halliday 1994, p.22). There might be a specific hierarchy between the interlocutors, e.g. when the head of a business talks to an employee, or they may have only a temporary relationship, e.g. when a person asks an unknown pedestrian for the time. All three variables (field, mode, tenor) taken together enable people to characterize the situational context specifically, and, thus, to recreate part of the language that is being used (Halliday, 1994).

On the account given above, different processes may be used in different genres. As an example, in instructions it is believed that substantial processes are used more common as compared with other processes. On the other hand, in news and reporting genres, verbal processes are used more often. Therefore, based on the kind of genre, the frequency of processes are different, and since the change of the processes play an essential role in determining the meaning of the texts, it seems important to find out what processes are used more in different text types. Hence, this study is conducted to finding out how the processes of ideational metafunction are distributed in three different genres, namely biology, theology and economics aiming to find out how the kind of genre can influence the frequency of processes. Resolving this issue can bring about some worthwhile insights in designing textbooks for students at schools and universities.

PERVIOUS STUDIES
Many studies, using Linguistics doctrines, have analyzed literary genres. For example, Hassan (1989) has analyzed the text from the point of view of functionalism. He believes that this approach can enhance the quality of education, and it also can resolve the social problems. That is because this way the instructors can teach better and learners can better understand and learn the language.
At the end of her dissertation titled as examining discourse texts in Sport in Persian, Sudabeh Zarei (1999) reported that like any language, the language of sport has its own vocabulary treasures and processes. In this context, the speaker sometimes uses specific terms and sometimes borrows words from a foreign language and sometimes uses fixed processes in the language. On the other hand, because of the similarities between sports and combat phenomenon, some words in this specified operational field has come into sport genres.

In a genre-based article conducted by Aghagolzade, Kord Zafaranlu and Razavian (2011), four Persian short stories from Jalal Ahmad and Sadegh Hedayat have been analyzed based on transient state within Halliday's functional grammar. The frequency of occurrence of the metafunctional ideational processes, after reviewing all the verbs in the stories, has been considered as a style index. The goal of the authors was to determine the attitude of Al Ahmad and Hedayat through the verb used that show the met functional ideational processes in the works of these authors. So to achieve this goal, they first extract all the verbs and used six ideational processes. In each of the short stories Setar and Vasvas from Al Ahmed and David koozhposht and Madeleine by Hedayat, the extracted processes were grouped based on Halliday's theory. After that the percentage and frequency of types of processes have been specified. In the end, they concluded that because Al-Ahmad in his stories has used more substantail process, so he has the more realistic view. According to what we have in the definition of substantail process, since substantial process are more tangible and concrete concepts , it can be said that their conclusion seems fairly reasonable.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**
The question that this study is going to answer is:

1. How do the different processes of ideational language metafiction differ in terms of frequency in economy, biology and theology?

**METHODOLOGY**
Since this study tries to compare the frequency of ideational processes in three different genres, it can be considered as a genre-based study in which three different genres on the basis of Halliday's ideational metafunction, especially their processes are compared. The processes to be compared are mental, verbal, relational, substantial, existential, and behavioral processes.

**Materials**
In line with the research objectives, three different genres were compared. Each of the three selected genres consists of 30 pages. The number of sentences in all three of genres is the same. Three selected genre are: a religious text (theology), an economic text and a biology text. The reason for the selection of these three genres is that each of the selected genres has its own structure, specialized words, and style .The texts to be analyzed have been drawn from high school and college text books in Iran.
Data collection and analysis
To gather data, this study tried to count all the paragraphs used in the texts and classify them based on the type of processes. They type of processes was determined through the kind of verbs they used. Furthermore, that a diagram for each text according to frequency of processes has been shown. Furthermore, for each genre the percentage of processes have been estimated and displayed in a separate table. After determining the frequency of the processes, \( \chi^2 \) chi-square has been find out whether there is a significant difference among the occurrence of processes in different genres.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Result of economic text
176 processes have been economic texts. A sample of analyzing economic text is presented in appendix A. Table 1 illustrates the frequency of each process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>types of process</th>
<th>of relational</th>
<th>substantial</th>
<th>existential</th>
<th>behavioral</th>
<th>verbal</th>
<th>mental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>frequency process</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 shows the most economic process in economic text is relational. Figure (4-1) also demonstrates this point clearly:

![Figure 1: Distribution of economic genre processes](image)
Result of biology text

As table 2 shows, like the economic genre of the most frequent process here is also relational. After relational process, substantial process is more common than other processes. A sample of analyzing biology text is presented in appendix B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>types of process</th>
<th>relational</th>
<th>substantial</th>
<th>existential</th>
<th>behavioral</th>
<th>verbal</th>
<th>mental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>frequency of process</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>%46</td>
<td>%24</td>
<td>%14</td>
<td>%5</td>
<td>%9</td>
<td>%2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, the frequency of processes is also illustrated through following graph.

![Biology Graph](image)

Figure 2: Distribution of processes in biology genre

Result of theology text

The analysis showed that the total of number processes is 242. A sample of analyzing theology text is presented in appendix C. The table below shows the number and type of each process used in this genre.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>types of process</th>
<th>relational</th>
<th>substantial</th>
<th>existential</th>
<th>behavioral</th>
<th>verbal</th>
<th>mental</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>frequency of process</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>%28</td>
<td>%35</td>
<td>%13</td>
<td>%10</td>
<td>%8</td>
<td>%6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As the table 3 shows the most frequent process in this genre is substantial. After this process, the relational process is used more often. The following graphs also confirm this point:

![Theology Process Distribution](image1)

*Figure 3: Distribution of processes in theology genre*

In what follows, the distribution of processes for three genres and how they are distributed differently are indicated clearly:

![Process Distribution in Three Genres](image2)

*Figure 4: Distribution of processes in three genres*
Additionally, the Chi-square results showed that there are significant differences in terms of using processes in three different genres.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: Chi-square values for the selected text processes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square in theology &amp; economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square in economic &amp; theology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square in economic &amp; biology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the values showed there is a statistically significant among the distribution of processes in different selected genres. In what follows, we try to justify these differences.

**Discussion**

Now it’s time to answer the question of the research based on the result of the study. As was mention before: How is the frequency of the ideational processes in economy, biology and theology? As was seen in the economic text, a total of 176 processes, and the highest process that has been used in this context, was the relational process. The reason is that this process deal with economic phenomena using linking verbs after relational process, the substantial process had the highest frequency, which indicate the important of material issues in this genre. On the other hand the mental process was the least abundant. In other words, this process is rarely used in Economic texts. Thus, the interpretation of this genre with regards to not having mental concepts should not be difficult (a part from technical words). All in all, it can be said that economic text is virtually made up of relational and substantial processes. The abundant of these two processes indicate that in economic, the purposes of material action are accompanied with economic phenomena (Clark, Feldman, & Gentler, 2000).

Relational process was also the most frequent process in biology text, and mental process was the least frequent, and it may be because biology deals with concrete stuff rather than mental entities (Lucy, 2000). Finally, in theology text substantial process was use more often. It seems that theology uses substantial processes to focus on what human being does in the word.

The result also show that economy text had less processes compared with the other three genres and that is because this genre uses less clauses and less verbs as a result.

**CONCLUSION**

The purpose of the study was to find out how different processes of ideational metafunction language are distributed in three different genres. The results of the study showed that each genre regarding its communicative goal has its own distribution of processes. The overall conclusion is that the aim of biology and economy genres is to demonstrate the relationship between the phenomena which are of concrete nature, and the theology genre pays much more attention to man and his behavior. The findings of this study have some valuable implication for textbook
designers and teachers in increasing their awareness of how different genres have used different processes to convey meaning. There are some limitations with this study which should be considered. The first limitation concerns with the number of texts used in the study. Furthermore, finding relevant literature regarding the application of Holliday's theory for Persian text types was difficult.

REFERENCES
د را از او نی اقتصاد لته سیدها سه مز سید علامت ای با افعالی مانند شدن، بودن، و هستن، و فرایند مادی با افعالی مانند فروختن، خریدن و دریافت کردن بیشتر از تابعیتی که در عبارت به ذهن خطور کردن نمایان می‌گردد. بنابراین، یک نمونه از فرایند ذهنی که در عبارت به ذهن خطور کردن نمایان می‌گردد، به‌عنوان وسیله مبادله می‌باشد. همین تنظیمی که برای رفع مشکلاتی که برای رفع آنها پول روانده می‌شود، می‌تواند دسترسی را برای دسته‌ای از فردانی که در هستی وجود دارند، به همین بخش می‌دهد. در مقابل فقط یک نمونه از فرایند ذهنی که در عبارت به ذهن خطور کردن نمایان می‌گردد، به‌عنوان وسیله مبادله می‌باشد. همین تنظیمی که برای رفع مشکلاتی که برای رفع آنها پول روانده می‌شود، می‌تواند دسترسی را برای دسته‌ای از فردانی که در هستی وجود دارند، به همین بخش می‌دهد.

**APPENDIX D: SAMPLE OF ANALYZING ECONOMIC TEXT**

آگه هر نکاته‌ای علائمی که در یک اصطلاح اغلب سبب علل واقع می‌شود نهایت یک رسیه چهار نوع، نمونه‌ای از عنوان تا G و A علل بیش از مواریکوی 20 نوع امینو اسید، نخواهد بود. در سطحی که رمز در حرفی پایین فقط 16 نوع امینو اسید علائم رمز خواهد داشت. بنابراین رمز در حرفی نیز جواگری 20 نوع امینو اسید، نخواهد بود. در سطحی که رمز در حرفی به‌عنوان کریزی اساسی سبب می‌شود که نقشی که در نکاته‌ای از یک رمز داشته باشد. در واقع رمز در حرفی نتیجه‌ای از این می‌باشد.

من اصلاً از فردانی را بیان می‌کنم که با افعال علی بین شده‌اند. این می‌تواند به‌جورا نشان دهد که افراد را پس از محصول بسیار مهمی در تدوین متن‌های زیست شناسی دارد.

**APPENDIX E: SAMPLE OF ANALYZING BIOLOGY TEXT**

خداوند در قربان کریم، خوشی در نور آسانی‌ها و زمین معرفی می‌کند. نور بودن خدا به چه مغزه؟ نور آن جتری است که خوشی پیدا و اشکار است و سپس بی‌پایی و اشکارشدن جزه‌های نیسکر می‌شود. همین نور معمولی را در رطوبت بگریم نیز جواگری در آنها. در خوشی روش درست و هم سبب روشنی و اشکارشدن آشامی دنیا اتفاق می‌شود. این نور خود از هم تابعیت با پیام باشد. این نوع است که در همیشه ممکن است که در همیشه در موجوداتی که در همیشه جویا و درد زندگی هستند. می‌گویند به چه سبب است و اشکارشان می‌شوند و اشکارشان به‌وجود باشند و این به همین تجربه باشد. همین هچگی هر جری در این جهان، بی‌پایی جوی آب‌و باریک خلق و ایجادی از ایجاد الهی محبوب می‌شود. می‌توان این مسئله را واگذار کرده.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN REFLECTIVE TEACHING AND EFL TEACHERS’ EVALUATION OF STUDENTS’ ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT
This study aims to investigate the relationship between reflective teaching and EFL teachers' evaluation of students' achievement. The participants in this study consist of fifty English as foreign language (EFL) teachers of Dourod city in Iran. The data for this study was collected via three different instruments, namely questionnaires, observation, and document analysis. First, the participants completed three questionnaires, the first one dealt with some personal information about participants and their teaching interest. The second questionnaire dealt with the statements relating to teachers' cognitions on their teaching process, (Adopted from Levin, B. (2001)). This questionnaire consisted of some statements checking different aspects of their teaching process. The third questionnaire prepared by Hilisbourough Colledge in 1968 is a questionnaire for faculty evaluation of student performance. This questionnaire deals with the evaluation of different aspects of students’ achievement. Following the administration of questionnaires, some random observations were carried out. Data management and analysis were conducted with SPSS software. I also used the teachers' evaluation of students' achievement in the form of standardized tests, submitted by the participants to support the findings from the third questionnaires. The analysis revealed that most of the participants' practices were consistent with their stated cognitions in all aspects. The analysis of the data also revealed that many of the teachers in this study are not aware of the outcomes of their stated cognitions on their teaching process, and consequently, on their evaluation of students' achievement. The results of this study revealed that there is a moderate relationship between reflective teaching and teachers’ evaluation of students’ achievement. The results of this study implicated that the local in-service teacher education and training program should aid teachers in identifying and refining their evaluation of students' achievement, as a means of improving their beliefs Towards teaching and consequently evaluation process.

KEYWORDS: Reflective teaching; Teachers' evaluation; Students' achievement; In-service Teachers.
INTRODUCTION
Reflective practice has been widely researched, starting with John Dewey in 1933, who introduced the idea of reflective thought, described as an active consideration of any belief in the light of the prior knowledge and future objectives. Before the 1970s, research in the area of teacher cognition was influenced by Behaviorism. Research in the effectiveness of teaching was measured through the correlation of students' performance. During the 1980s and the years after, researchers investigated a number of different aspects and dimensions of teachers’ cognitions. The main focus was on studying the way teachers think about their own works, their mental processes in planning and carrying out their teaching process, the kind of decisions made in the course of teaching, and how these beliefs may change over time.

Teacher cognition researchers have been concerned with identifying teachers' cognitions and their practices with respect to specific subject matters, foreign/second language was also among the subject which has received attention in this respect. Comparison of teachers' teaching practices with their stated cognitions has been among the common concerns as it could be inferred from Borg (2009). Researchers have employed different instruments which are classified into four categories, including self-reports, verbal commentaries, observations, and reflective writing. Applying these instruments, the researchers have produced data from pre-service and in-service teachers in different contexts as suggested by Borg (2006).

In language teacher cognition research, however, not all the curricular areas within the field of foreign/second language learning have received adequate attention. Evaluation of students' achievement is among those instances in language teacher cognition research which have been scarcely regarded in studies on teachers' cognition and practice.

Purpose of the study
This study might be helpful for those pre-service teachers who want to prepare themselves for teaching in an unexpected classroom situation. Wright (2010) states that "research and states of practice provide us [teacher educators] with inspiration for our own teacher education practice" (p.289). Integral to the process of evaluating students' achievement is that of self-evaluation by teachers. This is so because a question such as how mentally prepared were students for a given lesson cannot be divorced from the question of the degree to which the teacher tries to focus students' attention on the learning activities. During the evaluation process, the literature also suggests that teachers should include an assessment of their actions in relation to the learning activities presented and students' participation in these activities. That is why, the individual teachers are also to benefit from the results of this study, if they care about teaching as their job.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY
Reflective Teaching
This section deals with a brief historical overview of reflective teaching research. In this area of research, different aspects of reflective teaching and teachers' reflection are reviewed.
Background of the reflective teaching

Language teaching research in the 1970s, can originally be seen as some classroom studies, in which there was a "process-product approach toward teaching. That is, the teachers' practical teaching and the learners' achievement were observed to see how much a particular type of teaching would lead to learners' learning". If they were found to be effective, the procedures would be recognized as helpful ones which could be adopted by other teachers (Borg, 2006, pp. 5-6).

The beginning of reflective teaching research, focusing on teachers' thought, however, can be traced back to the publication of the report by National Institute of Education in 1975. "The report, then, urged for considering the relationship between thought and action as far as the teachers are concerned" (quoted in Borg, 2006, p. 7). Therefore, the researchers began to think on and search teachers' thought as one of the factors affecting their teaching behavior.

In the studies that were done in the 1970-80s, however, the subject matter to be taught was neglected. This is what Shulman (1986) refers to as "missing paradigm". Shulman (1986) suggested the term "content knowledge" including subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge which is to be used in a study of teacher cognition" (as cited in Tsui, 2003, p. 50). They can be defined, respectively, as knowledge of the subject matter (i.e. what is to be taught) and the knowledge of how to teach a particular subject matter. That is why teachers' knowledge of the subject matter to be taught became significant in reflective teaching.

Richards (1990, p. 12) believes that second language teacher education is to "provide opportunities to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers." This involves an awareness and understanding of the helpful skills and competencies on the part of the teacher educators. It should be noted that to understand teachers and teaching, and consequently those skills and competencies, as Borg (2009) states, we need to understand "the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence what teachers do" and also language teacher cognition research "has made a significant contribution to our understandings of the process of becoming, being, and developing professionally as a teacher" (p. 163).

The focus of language teacher cognition research, primarily, was on first language and it was "in the mid-1990s" to quote Borg (2009), that "second and foreign language teacher cognition research emerged" (p. 163). Since then, the research on second/foreign language teacher cognition has been mostly on five major themes: cognitions of novice teachers, in-service language teacher cognitions and stated practices, cognitions and practices of in-service teachers, cognitive change in in-service teachers, and comparison of novice and expert language teachers, as inferred from (Borg, 2006). In the present study, the third theme, i.e., cognitions and practices of in-service teachers, has been mainly focused upon. That is, the aim was to compare teachers' stated cognitions with regard to evaluating students' achievement and what they do inside the classroom.
Reflection-in-action involves teachers in critically thinking on the spot, in ‘the thick of things’ as discussed by (Schon 1983) about what is being taught and the intended outcome, sometimes having to assess, revise and implement new approaches and activities immediately. Schon (1987) stated that reflection occurs before and after action. This he refers to as reflection-on–action. Therefore, before teaching, teachers reflect and plan their teaching procedure and, after doing it, they consider or think about what occurred.

Areas of research in language teacher cognition

This section provides a review of the studies in language teacher cognition with regard to different curricular areas. Although this study focuses on foreign language teaching, this does not mean that language has been the only subject of studies in language teacher cognition research. Many studies can be found in relation to subjects other than language teaching. Conroy (2009) in teaching mathematics, Kenreich (2004) with geography teachers, and Zembylas (2005) with elementary school teacher.

Among the language skills, reading and writing have received some attention and in the language components, grammar can be claimed to have received the most attention in language teacher cognition research and it seems that evaluating students' achievement has been studied rarely. Communicative language teaching also was studied from this perspective. It should be mentioned that the order in which the groups of studies are presented here is based on the amount of attention that has been given to each area.

Grammar in language teacher cognition research

"Grammar has been one of the areas in language teacher cognition research which has received remarkable attention" (Borg, 2006, p. 109). Review of the related literature shows that studies focusing on grammar have concerned with one of the three dimensions discussed in this section. A group of teacher cognition researchers has focused on teachers' declarative knowledge. That is, they investigated teachers' knowledge of what they were teaching (rather than how to teach it). Andrews (1999) realized that non-native teachers did better in their knowledge about language than the native ones. It was noted that this knowledge does not suffice, although it is necessary. Berry (1997) has studied students' knowledge of grammar by using a questionnaire to teachers' estimation of their students' knowledge. Many incongruities were observed between what the students knew and what the teachers thought their students would know. These incongruities were not helpful at all, as they would not lead to a satisfaction of the expectations. It was observed that teachers' views about teaching grammar were based on their own learning experiences rather than formal research (as cited in Borg, 2003).

Beliefs about teaching grammar

In another group of studies, the focus has been on teachers' stated beliefs about teaching grammar. In Iran, this focus has been observed in a few of studies, that two of them reviewed here. Farshchi (2009) studied 117 male and female teachers' beliefs about the role of grammar and teaching grammar by using questionnaire. The results show that teachers' gender and the place they taught were of determined factor. In another study by Moini (2009), the beliefs of 130
Iranian teachers by means of a grammar belief questionnaire have been reviewed. The findings showed that teachers' educational backgrounds and experiences were significantly influential. In addition, their workplace seemed to have a determined role in their beliefs, although the gender difference was not influential.

Teachers' grammar teaching representing their cognitions
These kinds of studies mainly considered teachers' stated cognition with respect to some specific behavior. In one of the recent studies, Borg (2005), following "an exploratory-interpretive view of research," (p. 326) considers teachers' grammar teaching and the cognitions behind these by analyzing two EFL teachers from different countries through interviews, observation, and found that for one of them, his knowledge of grammar was thought to be the influential element in the way he treated grammar in class while this was not the case for the other participant. In another study in Turkey in an 18-month period Borg and Philipps through using interviews and observations found that teachers' beliefs are of two kinds: core and peripheral, claiming that although the teachers may peripherally seem to be incongruent with their beliefs, their practices are in line with their core beliefs.

Reading in language teacher cognition research
Some of the studies on language teacher cognition have focused on Reading. Johnson (1992) studied practices and beliefs of six novice teachers and found that" novice teachers with little experience in teaching apply the most functional and recent theoretical stance whereas more experienced ones apply the least recent beliefs". (p. 528). In an Iranian context, Khonamri and Salimi did a study in 2010, which dealt with high school teachers' beliefs on reading strategies and incongruities between the stated beliefs and the stated practices through questionnaires. Although most of the participants declared that it is necessary to explicitly teach the reading strategies, their reported practices did not indicate their beliefs (Khonamri and Salimi, 2010).

Writing in language teacher cognition research
Another area in language teacher cognition research which has been dealt with very peripherally is writing. Tsui (1996) studied the experience of an EFL teacher with respect to process writing for two years and found that teachers’ cognitions and practices change by passing of time. He also sheds some light on the way in which" institutional and curricular factors can restrict teacher’s capabilities to carry out actions they feel are desirable" (Borg, 2003, p. 103).

Vocabulary in language teacher cognition research
One of the few studies in teacher cognition research focusing on vocabulary instruction is a Ph.D. dissertation by Zhang (2008). In this study, Zhang examined seven Chinese EFL teachers through interview, observation, and stimulated recalls to understand their knowledge of vocabulary instruction, their practical vocabulary teaching, and the relationship between their cognition and practices. The findings showed that teachers were in appropriate level from the aspect of knowledge of vocabulary instruction. The knowledge was found to contain three different broad categories of knowing a word, i.e., form, meaning, and use. The observed practices were reported to be congruent with their cognitions except for their practices on the pragmatic use of the words
and this mismatch, according to Tsui (2003), was considered being probably due to the teachers' own lack of knowledge.

**Teachers' evaluation of students' achievement**

In this section, I deal with teachers' evaluation of students' achievement. Before I do so, let me discuss evaluating students' achievement, how it is used and what its characteristics are.

**Evaluation of students' achievement**

Steinberg (1991) supported the idea that evaluation is an integral part of learning development. Through regular evaluation, the teacher is better able to prepare work on students’ learning needs in mind and will be able to address individual problems when they arise. Moreover, the process, if carried out effectively, will eventuate into students’ progress and the improvement of teaching procedure.

James (1983), while agreeing with the statement that evaluation should be an on-going process, took the idea further, when she stated that teachers should be deliberate in planning for evaluation. In the process of planning for evaluation, they should determine the purpose and decide on the means of measuring the processes and outcomes and collect information via observation and careful monitoring of activities. This statement highlights the fact that observation and monitoring of activities are critical to the process of evaluating students' achievement. If teachers are to follow James-Reid’s idea, there is the need to firmly establish, before teaching process, what to observe. For example, as Moyles (2002) states in a classroom they may look at how often individual students interact with them or, while checking for students’ understanding of a particular concept or skills, they may look at the number of those who indicated and those who remained neutral. At the end of the teaching session, observations made during the session should be critically evaluated via the use of questions. The act of questioning is an integral aspect of the evaluation process. Highlighted later in this chapter are the kinds of questions used at the evaluation stage of teaching process. Other characteristics of evaluation highlighted by James included the fact that evaluation does not have to be on a large scale and that, overall, evaluation is concerned with the process and product of teaching, that is, teaching procedure and the outcome or results, which is, student learning.

There seems to be a consensus according to Sparapani (2000) that questions regarding students’ response to various learning activities are necessary during evaluation process. However, these questions should not only focus on the achievement of cognitive skills but also on the affective. The following are some practical suggestions of how to assess students during the process of evaluating, according to Ferris and Hedgcock (1998), Foxworth (2004). They suggest the need to ask yourself: How well did students respond to the activities you planned? Were they mentally prepared for the learning activity? Were they actively involved in the learning process most of the time? Did all students learn something from the content taught? Then, try to recognize the cause of problems you encountered. Record what worked and what did not work well. Search to identify students with special weaknesses and to whom special attention must be given.
How teachers evaluate students' achievement
There are many questions which are essentials in evaluating students' achievement, such as forms of evaluation, areas to evaluate, and process of evaluation are critical to an understanding of how teachers evaluate students' achievement.

The forms of evaluating students' achievement
Computer software specifically designed for evaluation has revolutionized the form and process used by teachers to evaluate students' achievement. Bryant (1992) elaborating on the use of computer software in the process of evaluation, states that it enables the conversion of check sheets used for evaluating students’ progress into electronic form making them more quantifiable. It enables not only the assessment of students and records their progress on the computer, but it also generates reports that can be used for parent reporting sessions and offer greater flexibility in modifying various aspects of a written report. It also enables teachers to reflect on the abilities that they wish to measure and minimize ‘paperwork’ because it allows the scanning of actual copies of students’ work into the computer and have them easily available for reference.

Evaluating teachers’ performance during teaching process
Integral to the process of evaluating students is that of self-evaluation by teachers. This is so because a question such as how mentally prepared were students for a given course of instruction cannot be separated from the question of the degree to which the teacher tried to focus students’ attention on the learning activities.

The literature does not exclude teachers looking at their actions during evaluation process. Rather, it encourages critical assessment via the use of questions directed at teachers’ actions during teaching process. Ferris (1998) support this idea. During the evaluation process, the literature also suggests that teachers should include an assessment of their actions in relation to the learning activities presented and students’ participation in these activities. During this process, Foxworth (2004) suggests a number of useful questions. For example, teachers should ask, "Did I guide the students through problems or examples, checking how well they were doing? Did I assess whether or not the students were ready to go on to independent practice? " (p.65). The other areas that would require teachers’ attention during evaluation process are teaching methods and objectives.

Reflective Teaching and evaluation of students' achievement
Having identified potentially how teachers’ evaluate students' achievement, I try to examine what actions and thoughts indicate their use of reflective teaching in their evaluating students' achievement. As stated in the foregoing discussion by James (1983), the overall aim of the process of evaluation is to enable teachers to prepare work with students learning needs in mind but, more important, if the process is carried out effectively, it will eventuate into students’ progress and the improvement of teaching and the teacher as a teacher. The idea of teacher and students’ progress is integral to reflective teaching. According to Cole (1997), Coyle (2002), reflective teachers are involved in analyzing, discussing, evaluating, changing, and developing their practice, which will eventuate into student improvement.
There are a number of other characteristics of reflective teaching which demand that teachers, recall, consider and evaluate their teaching experiences as a means of improving future ones, as inferred from (Farrell, 2001; Coyle, 2002). Elder and Paul (1994) pointed out that teachers need to think critically. This involves the willingness to question, take risks in learning, try out new strategies and ideas, seek alternatives, take control of learning, use higher order thinking skills and be able to reflect upon their own learning processes. According to Cunningham (2001), they discuss and analyze with others problems they encounter in their classroom, to aid their analysis of situations, which can eventuate into improved future classroom encounters. Reiman (1999) suggests that they identify personal meaning and or significance of a classroom or school situation, confront the uncertainty about their teaching philosophies and, indeed, their competence. In addition, they should include self-examination. This involves assessing beliefs and values and engaging in discussions that lead to self-understanding and self-improvement which can eventuate into being a better teacher-learner, thus facilitating necessary changes both in self, others and teaching context, as inferred from (Coyle, 2002; Posner, 1989; Hatton & Smith 1995). Calderhead (1992) stated that reflective teachers also analyze and evaluate their own practice, school, classroom relationships, context, and make use of what they have learnt to inform decision-making, planning and future action, and this can eventuate into school improvement.

**RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS**

Based on the related literature, it can be assumed that reflective teaching influences their practices as it could be also induced from Foxworth (2004). That is, their cognitions are among the factors in taking responsibility for their actions as mentioned by Farrel (2001). Since, reflective teaching and its relationship with evaluating students' achievement have not been the focus of the recent studies, to a considerable extent, the nature of such a relationship will be investigated in this study.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

This study tries to answer the following question.

Is there any relationship between reflective teaching and EFL teachers' evaluation of students' achievement?

**RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS**

The research hypothesis of this study is as follows:

**H1**: There is a relationship between reflective teaching and teachers’ evaluation of students’ achievement.
METHODOLOGY

Participants
In order to answer the research question for this study, and understanding the action of reflective teachers, fifty participants who were teachers, teaching in high schools were selected. The participants include both male and female teachers having different teaching experience.

Regarding the sampling procedure in this study, it should be mentioned that it took place purposefully. To do this, different criteria were considered. One of these criteria was the awareness of teachers with the concept of reflective teaching and what reflective teachers do in their classes. If they had enough knowledge about the concept of reflective teaching, they would be selected as a participant in this study and if they had not, they would be acquainted with it. Based on that, the researcher talked to sixty five teachers among whom fifty agreed to participate in this study. The purpose and the data collection procedure of the study were clarified, besides the things they were asked to perform.

Instrumentations
The data for this study was collected through three different sources, as follows:

Questionnaires
The main sources of data collection in this study were three questionnaires. They contain closed and ranked questions and also open-ended questions. In order to collect some biographical information and become familiar with participants’ characteristics, their teaching experiences and also their teaching interest, I prepared and distributed the first questionnaire. The second questionnaire deals with some questions relating to teachers' cognitions on their teaching process. This questionnaire consisted of some questions that ask respondents (teachers) if they have checked different aspects of their teaching procedure or not. In this questionnaire, participants are required to see if they have check some basic elements in their teaching process or not. Those elements are categories such as: Purpose for learning, attention, learner-centered focus, thinking skills, assessment, anticipation of problems and finally evaluation. In the second questionnaire, the teachers are asked to answer the questions about their reflection which deals with evaluating students' achievement. In the third questionnaire, the participants were required to complete three sections. In the first section, respondents were asked to answer to questions that deal with the number of students on first day roster and also number of students who failed to complete the course due to the quality of the work or lack of attendance. In section two, the respondents were asked to check the general education core curriculum statements (minimum of three) that they chose as applicable to this course. Finally, participants must evaluate students' performance as measured against your selected general education and cluster outcomes. In order to reduce the difficulty that some of the respondents had in translating the questionnaires, I provided respondents with Persian equivalent of questionnaires which this also improves validity of the results of this study. The questionnaires of this study have been used in different articles and this could illuminate that they are reliable and valid enough to be adopted for this study, I also calculated their reliability value for them which this also could validate the results of the study. My supervisor and advisor also affirmed this issue. Members of the committee and subcommittee must be thanked to allow me to use their questionnaires.
Observations
As the second source of data, the researcher had some class observations which were all recorded during fall semester. For this reason, at first, I prepared an observation sheet which controlled different aspects of the second questionnaire, and then, compared what I observed in their teaching practices with their stated cognitions on second questionnaire. The researcher made these observations randomly for ten of the participants in order to confirm or reject the data obtained from the second questionnaire answered by participants.

Documentary analysis
The fact that meaning and perception are evident in documents, as inferred from Hodder (2000) affirms the use of documentary analysis. Hence, the analysis of a document could reveal many of the author’s perspectives. One way to elicit people’s perceptions is to examine their writings. For this study, participants’ stated cognitions to questionnaire for faculty evaluation of students’ performance and their evaluation of students' achievement in the form of final English language tests are compared and analyzed.

Data Analysis
This section deals with the data analysis procedures that have been followed for this study. As it was mentioned earlier, for analyzing the data, the software, SPSS 21, has been used.

Descriptive and statistical analysis
To analyze the data in this study and to answer the research question, descriptive statistics in the form of graphs for describing participants’ characteristics and also their answers to different questions in questionnaires was used. In inferential section, to determine the normality of the data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was used, and also to specify whether there is a relationship between the variables in this study Pearson Correlation was used.

In this study, for analyzing the data, at first, descriptive statistics was used to reveal the participants’ characteristics such as: age, gender, teaching experience and so on, next description of respondents’ responses to different questions in questionnaires was carried out, then, respondents’ stated responses to questionnaires were compared with observations. Finally, based on the hypothesis, to specify the accuracy of the data obtained in previous section, related statistical tests were used by using spss21 software. In order to receive a clear picture or a detailed description of some of the participants’ responses who comment to some of the questions in questionnaires, the researcher also employed both a within case and a cross case analysis of the respondents’ comments to some of the questions in the questionnaires.

Within-case analysis
The within-case analysis involved a detailed description of each participant’s stated response to different questions in questionnaires. The purpose as stated by Creswell (1998), was to allow me to become intimately familiar with each participant’s response to different questions, which in turn allowed me to identify the unique patterns in each of their views and according to Eisenhardt (1989), performing this process accelerated the cross-case comparison. The fact that there was no set standard formats to carrying out within-case analysis or content analysis, as stated by
Eisenhardt (1989), gave me the freedom to create my own with the help of the writing of Powell and Renner (2003).

Cross-case analysis
A cross-case analysis is valuable to compare the cases systematically to see factors that are present in all the responses, those that are present in some responses and not others, and those that are entirely absent. Day (1999) is of the opinion that researchers give little thought or effort to the involvement or learning of teachers who are their subjects. A cross-case analysis involves examining themes or categories across cases, to find those that were common to all cases. I started this process with the development of categories based on my examination of the responses from the within-case analysis. In cross-case analysis process, I first categorized the answers given to the questionnaires, through a process of moving between these responses, I looked for similarities and differences, as suggested by (Powell & Renner, 2003). I then through a process of further analysis, draw conclusions about differences and similarities in respondents’ views, according to the identified category.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In this section, at first, participants' responses to self-reflection questionnaire and questionnaire for faculty evaluation of students’ performance will be presented. Next the observations have been made to determine the congruity between responses and their practices with respect to what they have checked in self-reflection questionnaire. Then, teachers' evaluation of students' achievement in the form of final tests have been provided to possibly confirm the findings obtained from the questionnaire for faculty evaluation of student performance. Participants’ real names for the ethical matters and with the same aim, presenting some exact personal data is avoided according to Borg (2009) and Duff (2008). Participants’ responses to self reflection questionnaire have been classified in Table 1. In this table FY stands for frequency of participants who check the question in their teaching. FN stands for frequency of participants who did not check the question in their teaching. PY stands for percentage of participants who check the question and PN stands for percentage of participants who did not check the question in their teaching process.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-reflection questionnaire</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>FY</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>FN</th>
<th>PPY</th>
<th>PPN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Did you share your objectives with the students you were teaching? If not? Why not?</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why are objectives important?</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you tell the students why they were learning the information in your lesson?</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If not, did you ask the students to share what they would get out of learning the information?</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If neither you nor the students set a purpose for learning, why not?</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why is setting a purpose for learning important?</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you capture their attention?</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you keep their attention?</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If not, what would you do differently?</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was the lesson appropriate for most of the students at the age level?</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If not, was it too easy or too hard?</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was the lesson related to the students’ interest? How do you know?</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you build on the students’ knowledge?</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes, how do you know? If not, why not?</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why should you build on prior knowledge?</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you discuss meta-cognition with the students? If not, why not?</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why should the students discuss meta-cognition?</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you assess student learning and performance? If not, why not?</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes, was your assessment in line with your objectives?</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was your assessment authentic? If yes, how do you know?</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did the students achieve your objectives?</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which ones did they achieve?</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Which ones do you not know whether they achieved?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you teach or assess for transfer? If not, why not?</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Why is transfer important?</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you have enough time? did you have plans for what to do with the extra time?</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were there any problems that you had anticipated? Describe what happened.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were there any problems that you had not anticipated? Describe what happened.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What worked best about your lesson?</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 reveals that to what extent there is congruity between participants’ stated cognitions and their observed practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observations</th>
<th>Frequency matched</th>
<th>Frequency of not matched</th>
<th>Percentage of matched</th>
<th>Percentage of not matched</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Observation 1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 6</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 7</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 8</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation 10</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Pearson correlation formulae for hypothesis testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation value</th>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Error value</th>
<th>Significant value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>correlated</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

To provide a discussion of the findings of the study, in this section the research question is restated again, and the answer to this question will be developed as follows: The research question was this: Is there relationship between reflective teaching and teachers’ evaluation of students’ achievement?

According to Borg (2009), it is not a flaw if teachers' stated cognitions are not in line with their practices. Important point is to explore the possible reasons of such incongruities. I checked the categories which they answered in questionnaires and made a comparison between what I observed in their teaching practices which were registered in the observation sheets. The results showed that there is a difference between respondents’ stated cognitions and their practices and it could be inferred from table 1&2. It seems that participants’ cognitions to self reflection questionnaire, mostly match with what they perform in their classes, although in some cases some incongruity observed in what they have checked in self reflection questionnaire and their practices.

Questionnaire for faculty evaluation of student performance was used to reveal participants' cognitions with respect to evaluating students’ achievement. To see to what extent
they are congruent with their stated cognitions, participants’ final tests of students’ performance were used to determine to what extent they are right with respect to their cognitions. Analyzing participants’ final tests revealed that participants are in correspondent with their stated cognitions in most of the cases but some incongruities were also recognized. In order to analyze some of the participants’ comments on some questions in questionnaire for faculty evaluation of student performance, within case and cross case analysis of responses were carried out. Analysis of participants’ responses revealed the similarities and differences among participants’ responses with respect to different categories of questionnaire for faculty evaluation of student performance. It also brought about some of the participants’ cognitions on the surface which may not be derived from their responses to questionnaires. Based on what literature revealed with regard to reflective teaching and evaluating student’s achievement, especially as Foxworth (2004) suggests that some crucial questions such as: ‘Did I guide the students through problems or examples, checking how well they were doing?’ ‘Did I assess whether or not the students were ready to go on to independent practice?’ It seems that there is a kind of relationship between reflective teaching and teachers’ evaluation of student achievement. To determine the normality of the data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was used, and also to specify whether there is a relationship between the variables in this study Pearson Correlation was used. Table 3 revealed that since the significance value for two variables which are teachers’ cognitions and their evaluation of students’ achievement is likely bigger than the value of (.5) (sig > 0.05), consequently, teachers’ cognitions and their evaluation of students’ achievement could be regarded as normal variables.

Table 3 depicted that correlation value was equal to 0.555, which this signify the existence of the moderate relationship between reflective teaching and teachers’ evaluation of students’ achievement. Consequently, it seems that researcher’s hypothesis was confirmed. Taking into consideration what has been stated with respect to reflective teaching and teachers’ evaluation of students’ achievement, it seems that there is a moderate relationship between reflective teaching and teachers’ evaluation of student achievement and this relationship could modify teachers’ evaluation of student achievement if they "reflected on their actions before and after their actions" as suggested by Schon (1987). In order to depict this relationship some graphs were provided as follows:

![Fig 1: Percentage of correspondence between stated responses to self-reflection questionnaire and observed practice for participant 1](image-url)
Fig 2: Percentage of correspondence between stated responses to self-reflection questionnaire and observed practice for participant 2

Fig 3: Percentage of correspondence between stated responses to self-reflection questionnaire and observed practice for participant 3 & 4

Fig 4: Percentage of correspondence between stated responses to self-reflection questionnaire and observed practice for participant 5
CONCLUSION

An overview of the results of the study suggests that there exists a moderate relationship between the participants’ beliefs, emotions or mood, practical knowledge, teaching context and evaluation of students' achievement. However, the results of the study also strongly suggest that reflection was pertinent to the relationship. It helped participants in coping with, understanding the characteristics of the relationship, and using their understanding to make appropriate decisions and adjustments to teaching and learning. Adjustments were usually conducive to learning and sensitive to context and situation.

Based on the results of the study, reflection also seems to be a tool to safeguard feelings or emotions, preserve self, and job. Above all, it helped respondents to cope with perceived contextual challenges. The results of the study probably point to the fact that schools’ contexts exerted influence. Therefore, I am of the opinion that they need to be monitored to reduce the negative effect they may have on teachers and, by extension, on evaluation of students' achievement. What is required in the ever changing, demanding, and sometimes-difficult schools’ contexts are teachers who employ a model of teaching which incorporates an understanding of their particular contexts, personal beliefs, practical knowledge and particular content knowledge. This model possibly enables them to survive the many contextual constraints and irritations and allow them to draw on knowledge to solve problems that are unique to their particular teaching situation. This model likely enables creative and innovative approaches to classroom and school situations and problems, which lead to improved learning opportunities for students. Reflective teaching provides an excellent opportunity to achieve these. So, if after I reflected on a challenge to my beliefs about an aspect of teaching, given the constancy of the conceptual frameworks of the areas being considered, I could decide to end a teaching process with a video instead of the written work, as I had previously intended. Alternatively, I may decide to use one method or activity over another quite successfully, as long as my decisions and subsequent actions are for a purpose, would benefit students, would aid in transmitting information and could be evaluated to ascertain what and how much the students learnt.

From this study, I found the following to be pertinent elements of the teaching and learning process: students’ cognitive and affective needs, administratively mandated policy, teachers’ belief, practical knowledge (knowing what works), and the use of questions for reflection on action and reflection in action. These were pertinent because the respondents frequently engaged with these elements. Based on these, a useful conceptual framework for the local teacher education and training program should aim to develop teachers who are sensitive not only to the cognitive, but also to the affective needs of students, and be able to adapt administratively mandated policy to their unique context. It also may develop teachers who are able to critically examine their beliefs and practical knowledge, as a means of improving their practices.
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THE IMPACT OF BILINGUALISM ON LEARNING ENGLISH VOCABULARIES AMONG FEMALE BILINGUAL PRIMARY SCHOOL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
In recent century, bilingualism notion as a research goal has been studied and analyzed in different areas such as linguistics, psychology, learners education, and sociology (Bhatia & Ritchie 2004). Because bilingualism is an interesting and old topic in education and language learning, the aim of this study presents the results of the effects bilingualism on learning new English vocabularies on female Iranian pre-school children, who can speak Farsi and Arabic (bilinguals). This research attempted to find that whether bilingual female children would learn new vocabularies better than monolingual ones or not. In order to answer this question the study was conducted in Susangerd in Iran, the city with more than 70% bilingual. All of participants of this study were Iranian female primary school learners between 9-10 years. These participants were selected randomly from four English institutes. In order to find homogenous participants the placement test used, after that participants divided in two groups (bilingual and monolingual) then we used pre test, treatment and post test. The data were collected, and analyzed by use of t-test. Finally, the findings of the study show that bilingualism can play high role in learning and understanding confusion English vocabularies among female primary school learners. Moreover, knowing the meaning of English vocabularies in two languages can facilitate English vocabularies learning.

KEYWORDS: bilingualism, monolingual, vocabulary, primary school, female learners.

INTRODUCTION
Contrasting bilingual with monolingual has attracted by too many studies over the past 100 years. These research tried to answer that whether bi or multilingual kids work as well as monolinguals in each field of their languages acquisition, or not.
In this study the main reason behind selecting the effect of bilingualism was my experiences in learning and teaching English as a foreign language (EFL). This experiences lead me to great interest in the process of language acquisition, exclusively the acquisition of two or third languages simultaneously. So the aim of this study is exploring the effect of being bilingual on female primary-school kids when they want to learn new English vocabularies in institute or language schools. As you know many kids around the world learn and use more than one language, and they do this in different ways. Some kids learn two languages from birth and others start to learn a second language when they go to daycare or preschool. In this study, I focus on female bilingual children who know two languages from birth, or shortly after birth. In other words, I focus on Iranian children who have two first languages (Arabic-Farsi) and they could speak both languages very well.

According to some linguistics learning two languages from birth occurs when family speak different languages and decide to use their different languages to raise their child. In other families, the parents may speak the same language, but it is different from the language used in the community at large, for example, Arabic- or Turkish-speaking parents in the Iran. These parents might decide to use only Arabic or only Turkish at home while the child is exposed to Farsi or English with most children in language school they encounter outside the home. The study aim to find that when children continue to develop their abilities in two languages throughout their primary school years, can they gain and understand a new English words faster than monolingual or not. Some scientists believe that Learners/ Individuals who are bilingual switch between two different language systems. Their brains are very active and flexible (Zelasko & Antunez, 2000). Some other claim bilingual kids benefit academically in many ways. Because they are able to switch between languages, they develop more flexible approaches to thinking through problems. Their ability to read and think in two different languages promotes higher levels of abstract thought, which is critically important in learning (Diaz, 1985).

More than half of the world’s population is bilingual and two thirds of the world’s children grow up in a bilingual environment (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004). Mackey (2000) claims that bilingualism is the ability to produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language.

Definitions of the main key expressions
Arabic language
Arabic is the official language in many countries including Egypt, Iraq, Libya, K.S.A and north of Africa. Arabic is also the language of Koran. So Muslim of all nationalities such as Iranian and Arab are familiar with it. There are many Arabic dialects, but there is only one version that is taught in schools and used by the media (Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia-2009).

Persian Language
Persian Language, also known Farsi, is the most widely spoken member Iranian branch of the Indo-Iranian languages, a subfamily of the Indo-European languages. It is the language of Iran (formerly Persia) and is also widely spoken in Afghanistan and, in an archaic form, in Tajikistan and the Pamirs mountain region. Modern Persia had developed by the 9th century. Persian has absorbed a vast Arabic vocabulary (Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia-2009).
Bilingualism

Up to now, there is no agreed definition of bilingualism among scientists and researchers. Because they believe that bilingualism is a complex psychological and socio-cultural linguistic behavior and has multi-dimensional features. Mackey (2000) claims that bilingualism is the ability to produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language. Bloomfield (1933) believed bilinguals could be defined as individuals who have native like control of two languages. Briefly, bilingualism is the ability to use two languages. Although, defining bilingualism is complex since people with different bilingual features could be classified as bilingual.

A lot of bilinguals had learned two languages at the same time, most of time in early childhood and as a result of the parents or friends bilingualism. These individuals are called simultaneous bilinguals and bilingual who had learned a language after than the other for example as the result of living in a foreign country or academically learning a second language at a school or university are usually called consecutive bilinguals. Normally, simultaneous bilinguals have a more native like accent in two languages, although older learners may have useful knowledge about language, that could help them in the language learning. Bilingualism can be observed everywhere in the world. It is said that “more than half of the world’s population is bilingual and two thirds of the world’s children grow up in a bilingual environment (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2004).

The Benefits of Being Bilingual on kids

Bilingual helping kids in many cases of interaction, such as interaction with family, community and culture. Bilingual kids are also able to make new friends and create great relationships in their second language. Latest research had also found that children who raised in bilingual condition shown better self control and confidence which is an important factor of school success. Some bilingual teachers say bilingual kids are more advanced than monolingual ones in solving problems requiring the inhibition of misleading information.

In the past, some families thought learning more than one language could be bad for a kids, but nothing could be further from the truth. In fact, there are great advantages to knowing more than one language. For example, some of linguists claim that knowing a another language clearly benefits a kid's cognitive development. In recent century, the findings of studies addressed that bilingual kids had function as:

- learning other languages (Jessner, 2008)
- thinking about language(Castro et al, 2011)
- focusing, remembering, and making decisions (Bialystok, 2001)
- understanding math concepts and solving word problems more easily (Zelasko & Antunez, 2000)
- developing strong thinking skills (Kessler & Quinn, 1980)
- using logic (Bialystok, 2001)
Moreover, research shows that bilingualism may delay the onset of Alzheimer’s disease. Bialystok (2009) notes that superiority of bilingualism can be found in tasks and processes demanding a high level of selective attention as well as inhibitory control.

King and Mackey (2009) have indicated potential benefits of bilingualism. One of the most important benefits of bilingualism was taken for granted, bilingual kids know multiple languages, which is important for employment, travel, speaking with members of one’s extended family, maintaining a connection to family culture and history, and making new friends from different backgrounds.

Bilingualism and vocabulary

Generally, vocabulary knowledge, based to unique systems of concepts or notions that are acquired in special condition refers to their varying levels of usage and complexity. Although grammar is the essential component of English language, vocabulary is beyond any doubt regarded the most indispensable elements of any language. Vermeer (2001) notes that, vocabularies are the primary carriers of meaning.

Recent research confirms that bilinguals generally control a smaller vocabulary in each language than monolinguals (Bialystok, 2009). Similarly, some evidence suggesting that bilingualism constrains children’s vocabulary development. Bilinguals tend to attain lower scores on receptive vocabulary tests. In a study in which 40 children were tested in the Peabody Vocabulary Test, Bialystok & Feng (2009) further confirmed the above-mentioned results.

Feng (2009) further confirmed the above-mentioned results. The participants were divided into two groups, one bilingual group and one monolingual group, and later compared in terms of vocabulary size. The same pattern of results emerged in this study. Bilinguals share an overall smaller average vocabulary in each language than their monolingual peers (Bialystok, 2009).

However, modern researchers have put these results into question. As opposed to Pearson (1993) argue that bilingual children share the same variety of vocabulary sizes as monolingual children. Pearson (1993) argued that both languages must be taken into account when evaluating the development of vocabulary in bilingual children. They take on a holistic approach to the study of bilingualism and argue that it is inappropriate to evaluate bilingual individuals’ linguistic skills based on single-language performances, as a bilingual speaker by no means equals two monolingual speakers in one (Pearson 1993).

Rather than comparing monolingual and bilingual children in terms of vocabulary in each language, Pearson (1993) compared monolingual and bilingual children in both total vocabulary and total conceptual vocabulary and found that the overall bilingual vocabulary was comparable to the monolingual one. Although each individual language included fewer words than what is found in the vocabulary of monolingual children, monolinguals did not outperform bilinguals in terms of total vocabulary size (Pearson 1993).
Taking both total vocabulary and total conceptual vocabulary into account, their research demonstrates that bilingual vocabulary development reflects the monolingual rate of development in children between 8 and 30 months of age (Pearson 1993). It is therefore unfair to judge bilingual children’s language abilities based on performance in only one of the two languages. Although bilingual children acquire translation equivalents for most words, the exposure to some words is “circumstance-specific” which makes translation equivalents superfluous.

**EFL Background in Iran**

Like other Asian countries, Iran regarded as an EFL country. The Iranian communicate with each other by using Persian (an official language).

Sociologists believe that, economic and business factors played important roles in spreading English in Iran. Because Iran plays a leading role in supporting of the world economy through its contribution to international organizations.

Generally, during the last five decades Iran economy has grown rapidly. The economic power of Iran mostly dependent on the oil products. The raised of the economy of Iran after world war II has achieved worldwide attention and interest among other nations. So, Iran became a great economic market for P.R.C, European countries and Japan as well. This considerable factor effect the English learning at schools and language institutes. Moreover, as an active member of the UN, Iran had deep political relationships with too many native and nonnative countries of English as well. For these activities and economic movements, for most of Iranian English language used as universal communicative tool and most of Iranian family send their kids to English schools to learn it before they go school.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Research into bilingualism effect on individuals had been addressed in research literature and worldwide. Studies on the effects of bilingualism on cognitive issues began with the using of IQ tests and most of those studies shown negative effects of bilingualism on children’s intellectual development. Adler (2001) notes that an interest in the way bilingual students learn vocabularies and solve mathematical problems has drawn on variety of theoretical frame works. Romanie (1995) claimed most of the studies done before the 1960s indicated that monolingual kids were better than bilingual ones in different skills related to verbal and non-verbal abilities. Kaushanskaya and Marian (2009) suggest that monolinguals' ability to learn new words depends on whether they learn new words silently or out loud. Conversely, bilinguals' performance does not depend on any particular learning strategy, and they can acquire new words efficiently under any learning conditions.Paradis (2009) said, bilingual kids produced more right-headed compounds than monolinguals.

In a 2001 Bialystok showed that bilinguals did indeed show enhanced executive control, a quality that has been linked, among other things, to better academic performance. Grosjean(2008) said,
bilingual person is an integrated/ unique language user, and must not be thought of as a double monolingual.

**THE QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS**
The present study aims to answer the following research question:

**Research Questions:**
Are there any benefits in bilingualism on learning new English vocabularies among female Iranian primary school students?

**Hypotheses:**
H1. Bilingual female students (Farsi-Arabic) learn English vocabularies better than monolinguals?
H0 .There is no difference between bilingual and monolingual female students in learning new English vocabulary.

**METHODOLOGY**
The present part of this research presents the main methodological principles that build framework of study. This research was conducted in a small city in khouzestan province in southeast of Iran.

**Participants**
The participants of current study in two groups were homogenous in terms of context (same city) age (9–10 years old), nationality (they were all Iranian), sex (they were all female), and level of instruction (beginners). The participants were selected randomly from state and private schools (Safir, Rahele,Shokoh, Somayie), and then divided into two groups, based on their language background.
14 Female students ....Persian monolingual
14 Female students .... Persia_ Arabic bilingual

**Instruments**
In this study, in order to find and reach the main goals of research, two forms of tests were applied during the research. The following instruments were used:

*Placement Test for Kids:* Contains 35 multiple choice tests .Cited from Dynamic Teaching Corporation 2014.
*Elementary Vocabulary book* (Thomas, 1990). Elementary Vocabulary book, is for students who are doing a starter course in English and want to check and improve their basic vocabulary. The book presents fundamental vocabularies that students will need to know at an early stage of their studies.
*EFL Vocabulary Tests book* (Meara, 2010). This book contains tests that design to be used with learners of EFL/ESL. These tests were graded into 6 levels of difficulty, and there were 20 tests...
at each stage. The basic tests are Levels one and two. These tests cover the vocabulary of English that every speaker needs to know if they want to understand what they hear or read.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>TEST NUMBER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Placement Test for Kids</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Vocabulary book</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL Vocabulary Tests book</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Procedure**

In order to find the purpose of this study, these research steps were followed:

First of all, the aim of the researcher was to choose a homogenous of participants. As mention before, participants were homogenous in context, sex, age and nationality. The Placement Test was given to 44 bilingual and monolingual females learners. The placement test was objective and each test just had one correct answer. The result shown that only 32 ones (15 monolingual and 17 bilingual) could pass the exam but we only select only 28 learners in both groups based on the best obtained scores. After finishing grouping with names BG and MG the pre test based on Elementary Vocabulary book addressed to participants of both groups. The pre test was objective and contained 40 test, the participants should answer the test at 45 minutes. By finishing pre test we had a treatment, the treatment was on based of EFL Vocabulary Tests book. The treatment sessions were 12 ones at Safir Institute in Susangerd and the timing for each sessions was 40 minutes on different days as below:

- MG on even days from 5:30 to 6:10 P.M
- BG on odd days from 5:30 to 6:10 P.M

The sessions were three days a week, after finishing treatment the participants were given four free days to study for (post-test). The post test include 40 objective tests and its style was similar to pre test but a bit harder.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In this part of research we tried to present the data that collected concerning the study topic. The data were collected by using different elements such as Placement Test, pre test and post test based on the subjects that introduced before (Elementary Vocabulary book and EFL Vocabulary Tests book). These result will be show through tables and figures. The purpose of the pretest was to make certain that the MG and BG were homogeneus at the outset of the study. T-test was used to help achieve the purpose of the pretest. The results of the t-test analysis for the comparison of the MG and BG are presented below.
Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the monolingual and bilingual pre test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre test</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.8571</td>
<td>1.83375</td>
<td>.49009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monolingual</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bilingual</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.2857</td>
<td>1.72888</td>
<td>.46206</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Such descriptive statistics as mean and standard deviation are shown for both groups in Table 1. The mean score of the BG ($M = 17.2$) is greater than the mean score of the MG ($M = 16.8$). This difference does not seem to be significant, but to ascertain whether it is or not, one needs to look down the Sig (2-tailed) column in the t-test table below.

Table 2: Results of the Independent-Samples T-Test for Comparing the monolingual and bilingual pre test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F.</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TG Pretest</td>
<td>Equal Variances Assumed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal Variances not Assumed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 2 there is not a statistically significant difference in pretest scores of MG ($M = 16.8$, $SD = 1.8$) and BG ($M = 17.2$, $SD = 1.7$) and the $p = .53$ (two-tailed). This is so because the $p$ value is greater than the specified level of significance (i.e. .05). The conclusion would be that the two groups were heterogeneous prior to the experiment. The results of the pretest are also graphically shown in Figure 1.
As it can be seen in Figure 1, the difference between the pretest scores of the MG and BG was only infinitesimal.

**Result of the Research Question**

After the treatment sessions ended, the posttest was given to the participants of the study. The research question of the study asked that: Are there any benefits in bilingualism on learning new English vocabularies among female Iranian primary school students? Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics for this analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>post test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monolingual</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.07</td>
<td>1.59153</td>
<td>.42535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bilingual</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18.64</td>
<td>1.33631</td>
<td>.35714</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As you can see in Table 3, the mean score of BG learners (M=18.64) is greater than the mean of MG (M = 17.07). To make certain that the difference is indeed statistically significant; the following t-test table should be consulted.
I. Sobhani, Y., et al

Table 4: Results of the Independent-Samples T-Test for Comparing the monolingual and bilingual post test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Equality of Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F.</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TG Pretest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Variances</td>
<td>.134</td>
<td>.718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Variances</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not Assumed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As you see that the p value is less than the specified level of significance (.009 < .05), it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the posttest scores of the learners in the BG ($M = 18.64$ $SD = 1.33$) and MG scores ($M = 17.07$ $SD = 1.59$). Another bar chart is also drawn for the analyses related scores:

![Figure 2: The Mean Scores of the monolingual and bilingual on the post test](image)

This bar chart also signifies the great difference between the posttest scores of the learners in both groups. This result implies that the two groups performed differently on the posttest, indicating that the difference between BG and MG was statistically significant. The paired samples t-test analysis revealed that there was a difference between pretest and posttest scores of the learners in both groups. Likewise, a t-test was conducted and the results showed that learners’ performance on the posttest outweighed their performance on the pretest. So we found that, the
training (treatment) along four weeks was affective and bilingualism had a significant positive effect on learning English vocabularies among female primary school learners.

CONCLUSION

Today, bilingualism is a feature not just of people, but also of communities. States, countries, or communities in which two or maybe more languages are used in which can be called bilingual community. For instance Algeria (in north of Africa) regarded a bilingual country because French and Arabic are official languages there. Some cities in Iran are also regarded bilingual cities or communities, because most of the people there can speak Arabic and Farsi very well, although Arabic has no official status. In the analysis part of this study it was indicated that bilingualism has positive effects on English language acquisition. That analysis also addressed that female bilingual kids were more successful than monolinguals in learning new vocabularies of English language. This is due to that, there are too many words that common in three languages. Moreover during treatment sometimes the bilingual teacher used both languages (Arabic and Persian) to describe or definite some confusion English vocabularies, and because of this competence the bilingual group learn those vocabularies faster and better than monolingual ones. For more research, it is suggested that the study can be conducted with larger number of participants from all of Republic, so the study will be more practical and useful to find the differences between bilingual and monolingual kids regarding the level of education , age and sex. It suggests that in bilingual parts of country the government can design bilingual education programs in schools and university like many European countries.

Limitations

The present study suffered from several numbers of limitations and delimitations which will pose inevitable restrictions on the generalizability of its findings which are as below:

There were limitations in generalizability of the results and findings of this study since the level of proficiency was limited to primary school level and participants were randomly selected from 4 language institutes.

It was a very hard task to find 28 students with the suitable characteristics for this study and to convince them to attend in all treatment sessions.

The above-mentioned limitations and some other limitations such as time limitation, cultural limitation and linguistic background of participants must be taken into consideration before any conclusions and generalization based on the findings and results of this study. So any generalizability of the findings of this study must be treated and interpreted cautiously.

REFERENCES


LEXICAL PRESUPPOSITION TRIGGERS: A SEMANTIC-PRAGMATIC APPROACH TO VAGUENESS

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ABSTRACT
Antonyms play a significant role in everyday conversations. According to the Croft’s point of view (Craft & Cruse, 2004) of classification of adjectives, their application in conversation can lead to vagueness and hence misconception. This paper is an attempt to provide an analysis for the application of a few lexical presupposition triggers in sentences containing gradable antonyms in order to make presuppositions for assigning the scale to scale-free adjectives and hence, remove vagueness. To this end, the authors clung on their own linguistic intuition as well as administration of a survey followed by a qualitative analysis of the data. The research revealed that Persian speakers, when using comparative structures containing comparative free-scale gradable antonym, whenever scale specification is necessary use two types of lexical presuppositions called ‘intensifier’ and ‘receder’. Their shared characteristics is that they lack any semantic content and even lack any similar grammatical function in other contexts. The implication of utilising these lexical presupposition triggers would be removing vagueness within a course of conversation.

KEYWORDS: Lexical Presupposition Triggers, Vagueness, Gradable Antonyms

INTRODUCTION
Due to the great importance and everyday application of comparisons, and significant function and application of adjectives, specifically speaking antonyms, in conversations and linguistic functions, antonyms and their characteristics (semantics of antonyms) have always been the subject of study since Aristotle. In the recent decade, also, a great number of researchers have paid significant attention to characteristics of gradable antonyms and their classification and have presented some categories. According to the Croft’s point of view (Craft & Cruse, 2004) of classification of the adjectives and considering the fact that since in his perspective there is at least one group of adjectives -disjunct equipollent- having the characteristics of system-specific and scale-free, their application in conversation can lead to vagueness and hence misconception, the authors
have studied one of the strategies used by the speakers to make the message scale-specific. This paper is an attempt to provide an analysis for the application of a few lexical presupposition triggers in sentences containing gradable antonyms, or as Craft puts it disjunct equipollents, in order to make presuppositions for assigning the scale to scale-free adjectives.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Vagueness and presupposition triggers in general and lexical presupposition triggers in particular have been scrutinized in different languages. Drave (2001) conducted a corpus-based study into the forms and functions of vague language in intercultural conversations between speakers of English and Cantonese. It was found that, whilst English speakers use more vague language than Cantonese speakers, the range of different types and major collocations were similar for the two groups of speakers. In addition, the results showed that there were important functional differences.

In another study on vagueness, Channell (1994) categorizes vagueness and focuses on linguistic expressions that are, in Sadock’s (1977) formulation, ”purposely and unabashedly vague” (1994: 20). She provides a comprehensive description of different ways of approximating quantities in English, of various ways of referring vaguely to categories (e.g. with tags such as or something like that), and of totally vague words.

Schmid (2001) studied lexical presupposition triggers, namely abstract nouns. This study showed that depending on the types of nouns that English speakers use, speakers can exploit the N-be-that-construction in the service of an array of presuppositions, among them existential and factive semantic ones as well as pragmatic ones.

In their recent work, Chemla and Bott (2013) developed and tested two processing accounts of presupposition projection, the global-first model and the local-first model. They tested these predictions using a verification task. The results showed that across two experiments, using different materials and instructions, participants were faster to derive the global interpretation than the local interpretation, in contrast to the local-first model.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
In the present study the following research questions are addressed:
How Persian speakers avoid vagueness while using gradable antonyms?
What role do presupposition triggers play in avoiding vagueness?
What are the lexical presupposition triggers used to avoid vagueness?

METGODOLOGY
In the present study, the authors -all Persian native speakers- exploited their linguistic intuition to provide the study with some data. To this end, first and second named authors came up with the example sentences as the data which were then double checked by the third and forth named au-
thored in terms of their grammaticality and acceptability as well as the implications they may have. In addition, in order to have more reliable study, we have demonstrated occasional surveys to shed light on the implications of the Persian sentences. It is note worthy to mention that all the participants were Persian native speakers and university students. The data was then subjected to a close qualitative analysis in the light of the objectives of the study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Gradable antonyms

While discussing lexical semantic relations, the term semantic opposition is used as a general tag for a couple of relations among lexicons. But semantic opposition consists of various kinds with having unique characteristics. Antonyms usually consist of verbs, nouns and adjectives. The present study targets gradable adjectives. According to the research revealed in Kennedy (2007), Kennedy and McNally (2005), Kameon, et al. (2011), adjectives can be categorized by their syntactic-semantic behaviors in two main categories of absolute and relative adjectives. The differences can be summarized as follows:

B. Syntactic criteria: negating either pole of the antonyms can be considered as the proof of the other pole. For example:
(1) The door is open.
means:
(2) The door is not closed.
On the other hand:
(3) The door is big.
does not mean:
(4) The door is not small.

B. Semantic criteria: using any type of adjectives peculiar to structure of the other type is not allowed.
(5a) The door is utterly closed.
(5b) *The door is utterly big.
(6a) * The door is very closed.
(6b) The door is very big.
(7a) * This door is more closed that the other one.
(7b) This door is bigger than the other one.

Hence, it can be concluded that relative adjectives share the same characteristics, which is being gradable. That is, all of them are gradable.
(8) and (9) are not ungrammatical with any substitution for a and b if relative antonyms are used:

X, Y, W, Z
(8) X is more a than Y, or
(9) W is more b than Z

So we can call them gradable antonyms. But Croft and Cruse (2004) believe that the classifica-
tion does not suffice since the words categorized, as antonyms are not all the same and have different characteristics. They categorize relative antonyms into four categories; overlapping antonyms, monoscalar, disjunct equipollent, parallel equipollent. The present research targets comparative structures containing gradable antonyms (relative antonyms) belonging to the category of disjunct equipollent. These antonyms have the following characteristics:

A. Both poles of the axis are scale-specified, i.e. on the axis formed by the two poles of adjectives a and b, for the arguments X and Y:

(10a) If X is more a than Y, one cannot necessarily conclude that:

(10b) X is a.

And inevitably:

(10c) Y is b.

B. Both poles of the axis are system-specified, i.e. in the mentioned axis all the time and in any condition:

If (11a) is true, it cannot be claimed that (11b) is always true:

(11a) X is more b than Y.
(11b) Y is more a than X.

The interaction of the two characteristics mentioned above makes a neutral point in the middle of the axis (Kennedy, 2007), which is usually stated by a neutral adjective. For example, considering an axis with the antonyms ‘hot’ and ‘cold’ being the pole, there is a median point which Persian speakers define as ‘velarm’, meaning tepid. In fact, for the two maximum standard adjectives ‘hot’ and ‘cold’, there is a common minimum standard adjective named ‘tepid’.

Vagueness

In comparative sentences containing comparative structure, disjunct equipollent antonyms, due to feature A, are scale-free. Consider the following example:

(12a) Jack is fatter than Tom.

(12a) Can be interpreted differently in different contexts. Consider the following contexts:

(12b) Jack is a middle-aged man who is 56 kg in weight and Tom is his twin brother who is 54 kg in weight.
(12c) Jack is a middle-aged man who is 143 kg in weight and Tom is his twin brother who is 140 kg in weight.
(12d) Jack is middle-aged man who is 90 kg in weight and Tom is a nine-year-old boy who is 18
Therefore, the feature scale-free of the comparative adjective ‘fatter’ is extended to the whole sentence and has made it scale-free. In this condition, it is only with the help of a context that one can judge, for example, the conditions of (12c) whether:

(13a) Jack is fat.
(13b) Tom is fat.

or unlike the mentioned adjective in the sentence, for the context (12b) judge:

(14a) Jack is thin.
(14b) Tom is thin.

However, context conditions are not always clear. In some occasions, the judgment about the context is not the same, or even the speaker and listener are uninformed about their same judgment about the context. In such a condition, the speaker and listener should employ a strategy to adjust their same judgment on a specific scale. The trend can be named ‘Scale Specification’; a prevalent strategy among Persian speakers to use lexical presupposition triggers.

The word ‘ham’, meaning ‘also’ and ‘even’
The word ‘ham’ is used in two positions in these sentences:

(15) Jack ham az Tom chaghtar ast.
    Jack even than Tom fatter is
    Even Jack is fatter than Tom.
(16) Jack az Tom ham chaghtar ast.
    Jack is Tom also fatter is
    Jack is also fatter than Tom.

The present paper first deals with (16).

Having asked any Persian speaker what assumption (16) holds, we assume that the answer is similar to (17) -16 Persian speakers were surveyed and solely one different answer was observed.

(17) Tom is fat.

Now, the question is that whether (17) is the presupposition, entailment or Grecian inference for (16)? First, we adjust the superficial-logical features of the presupposition for the above-mentioned example. Considering the sentence (2) as p and (17) as q, the logical features of the presupposition (Saeed, 2003) are as follows:

A. \[ \text{if } p \equiv T \rightarrow q \equiv T \]
B. \[ \text{if } p \equiv F \rightarrow q \equiv T \]
The given example fully confirms features A and C, but has a dual function for feature B.

(18) Jack az Tom ham chaghtar nist.
Jack than Tom even fatter not
Jack isn’t even fatter than Tom. (NOT Tom is fat)

(19) In Jack nist ke az Tom ham chaghtar ast.
This Jack isn’t who than Tom also fatter is
It isn’t Jack who is also fatter than Tom. (Tom is fat.)

Both two negations are common in references and it is usually expected to keep one presupposition in the two types of negation and remove the implication or entailment. However, such examples have a weird reaction toward the test and the issue demands further study. Now we study the semantic features of presupposition and adjust to the table provided by the references.

Table 1: Comparing the features of presupposition, entailment and implication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Entailment</th>
<th>Presupposition</th>
<th>Implication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Projection when embedded</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancelable when embedded</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancelable when unembedded</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Projection Feature**

(20) Negation:
In Jack nist ke az Tom ham bolandtar ast.
This Jack isn’t that than Tom also taller is
It is not Jack who is also taller than Tom. (i.e. Tom is tall.)

(21) Making an introduction for the condition:
Agar Jack az Tom ham sari’tar bashad, mosabeghe ra mibarad.
If Jack than Tom also faster be, race (object marker) wins
If Jack is also faster than Tom, he will win the race. (i.e. Tom is fast.)

(22) Making question:
Aya Jack az Tom ham khasistar ast?
(Question marker) Jack than Tom also stingier is
Is Jack also (even) stingier than Tom? (i.e. Tom is stingy.)

(23) Possibility:
Ehtemalan Jack az Tom ham shoja’tar ast.
Possibly Jack than Tom also more courageous is
Possibly, Jack is more courageous than Tom. (i.e. Tom is courageous.)
Considering examples (21) to (23), it can be said that the assumption presented in (8) and the like sentences behave similarly to presuppositions. Most specifically, example (22), which is the most
famous and the commonest remover structure in recourses, vividly illustrates this feature.

The word ‘digar’, meaning ‘else’ or ‘anymore’

The word ‘digar’ is used in two positions in these sentences:

(33) Jack digar az Tom chaghtar ast.
    Jack else than Tom fatter is
    Jack, else, is fatter than Tom.
(34) Jack az Tom digar chaghtar ast.
    Jack than Tom else fatter is
    Jack is fatter than Tom, else.

It can be judged about these two sentences that both convey the same descriptive semantic content. However, their emphatic meaning can differ. Hence, at this level of study, these two sentences can be considered as paraphrases. Anyhow, to observe the structural similarity to the previous examples, the sentence (34) has been used as the main subject.

Having asked any Persian speaker what assumption (33) and (34) hold, we assume that the answer is similar to (35) - 16 Persian speakers were surveyed and 16 similar judgments were observed.

(35) Tom is not that much fat.

Once more, the query rises whether (35) is really the presupposition for (34)? Hence, similar to the steps taken to study whether ‘ham’ is a presupposition trigger, ‘digar’ has been studied. The mentioned example finely adjusts to the features A and B mentioned in part 4; however, it has a dual behaviour toward feature B. This dual behavior is even more complicated that the sentence structure with raising negation doesn’t seem to be acceptable.

(36) Jack az Tom digar chaghtar nist.
    Jack than Tom anymore fatter isn’t
    Jack isn’t fatter than Tom anymore. (NOT Tom is not that much fat.)
(37) (*) In Jack nist ke az Tom digar chaghtar ast.
    This Jack isn’t who than Tom anymore fatter is
    It isn’t Jack who is fatter than Tom anymore. (Tom is not that much fat.)

Again, table (1) is illustrated for an easy comparison of the features as table (2).

| Table 2: Comparing the features of presupposition, entailment and implication |
|-------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Projection when embedded     | No          | Yes         | No          |
| Cancelable when embedded     | ---         | Yes         | ---         |
| Cancelable when unembedded   | No          | No          | Yes         |
(38) Negation:
In Jack nist ke az Tom dige bolandtar ast.
This Jack isn’t that than Tom else taller is
This is not Jack who is else taller than Tom. (i.e. Tom is not that much tall.)

(39) Making an introduction for the condition:
Agar Jack dige az Tom sari’tar bashab, mosabeghe ra mibarad.
If Jack else than Tom faster to be , race (object marker) wins
If Jack is else faster than Tom, he will win the race. (i.e. Tom is not that fast.)

(40) Making question:
Aya Jack az Tom dige khasistar ast?
(Question marker) Jack than Tom else stingier is?
Is Jack else stingier than Tom? (i.e. Tom is not that much stingy.)

(41) Possibility:
Ehtemalan Jack dige az Tom shoja’tar ast.
Possibly Jack else than Tom more courageous is
Possibly, Jack is else more courageous than Tom. (i.e. Tom is not that much courageous.)

(42) Probability:
In ke Jack az Tom dige chaghtar bashad, momken ast.
This that Jack than Tom else fatter to be , probable is
Probably Jack is else fatter than Tom. (i.e. Tom is not that much fat.)

(43) Belief:
Mike mo’taghed ast Jack az Tom dige naghash behtari ast.
Mike believes Jack than Tom else painter better is
Mike believes that Jack is else a better painter than Tom. (i.e. Tom is not that much a good painter.)

It is clear that the assumption in (34) has the projection feature.

Deletion without substitution
(44) ? Jack az Tom ke chaghtar ast, harchand Tom chagh ast.
Jack than Tom else fatter is, however Tom fat is
Jack is else fatter than Tom; however, Tom is fat.
(45) ? In ketab az aan pirahan ke gerantar ast, ama an pirahan geran ast.
This book than that shirt else more expensive is , but that shirt expensive is
The book is else more expensive than the shirt, although the shirt is expensive.

As is implied –at least based on the authors’ linguistic intuition- (44) and (45) are unacceptable and weird. And the unacceptability is again merely due to the lack of the word ‘digar’. A Co-
parison with the acceptable sentences (46) and (47) confirms the claim.

(46) Jack az Tom chaghtar ast, harchand Tom chagh nist.  
    Jack than Tom fatter is, however Tom fat isn’t  
    Jack is fatter than Tom; however, Tom is not fat.

(47) In ketab az an pirahan gerantar ast, ama an pirahan geran nist.  
    This book than that shirt more expensive is, but that shirt expensive isn’t  
    The book is more expensive than the shirt, although the shirt is not expensive.

Deletion with substitution

(48) Ehtemalan Jack az Tom ham shoja’tar ast, harchand Tom shoja’ nist.  
    Possibly Jack than Tom also more courageous is, however Tom courageous isn’t  
    Possibly, Jack is also more courageous than Tom; however, Tom is not courageous.

(49) Agar Tom ghach bashad, Jack az Tom ham chaghtar ast.  
    If Tom fat to be, Jack than Tom also fatter is  
    If Tom is fat, Jack is also fatter than Tom.

(50) Mike mo’taghed ast aahu az yuzpalang ham sari’tar ast, ama yuzpalang sari’ nist.  
    Mike believes deer than panther also faster is, but panther fast isn’t  
    Mike believes that deer is also faster than panther, but panther is not fast.

Considering examples (48) to (50), it can be said that the assumption presented in (34) and the like sentences behave similarly to presuppositions.

CONCLUSION

According to the studies in this research, it can be concluded that Persian speakers, when using comparative structures containing comparative free-scale gradable antonym, whenever scale specification is necessary can use two types of lexical presupposition triggers in line with determining the position of the mentioned noun in the sentence on axis of the adjective.

The first type of these presupposition triggers can be called ‘intensifier’ or ‘advancer’ presupposition trigger. This type, in which the word ‘ham’ was mentioned as an example and contains the word ‘hatta’-meaning ‘even’- and the phrase ‘hatta….ham’-meaning ‘even also’-, advances the internal argument of the adjectival predicate mentioned in the sentence on the axis of the adjective to intensify the external argument of the adjectival phrase in the sentence in having that adjective.

The second type of these presupposition triggers can be named ‘receder’ or ‘extenuator’ presupposition triggers. This type, in which the word ‘dige’ was mentioned as an example and contains the word ‘ke’- and the phrase ‘ke…..dige’, ‘recede’ the internal argument of the adjectival predicate mentioned in the sentence on the axis of the adjective to extenuate the external argument of the adjectival phrase in the sentence in having that adjective.

The shared characteristics of these two types of lexical presupposition triggers which differenti-
ates them from the other lexical presupposition triggers is that these types lack any semantic content and even lack any similar grammatical function in other contexts, and their only function is to make these presuppositions in order to specify the scale. It is noteworthy to mention that the current study only explicated a few number of the strategies to avoid vagueness, however, attempt can be made to elaborate upon the other strategies exploited by speakers not to sound vague.

REFERENCES


THE ACQUISITION OF L2 PREPOSITIONS AND THE IMPACT OF CROSS-LINGUISTIC AND META-LINGUISTIC FEEDBACK: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN THE CONTEXT OF ALES AT THE HIGHER COLLEGE OF TECHNOLOGY

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ABSTRACT
The acquisition of preposition can be one of the main problems face Second Language Learners. The researchers believe that to learn English Language as a second or a foreign language, one should realize that language is not an abstract construction of the learned, or of dictionary-makers, but is something arising out of the students' work. The authors believe that to predict or to analyze the learners’ errors may provide the teachers, researchers and the learners with valuable information in the areas of difficulties that learners may encounter. An empirical study was conducted on 60 Arab Learners of English (ALEs) which lasted about three months. A detailed analysis was made of the errors/mistakes of using the prepositions in 120 written texts produced by ALEs. Written texts were collected from each subject at two stages in the experiment (after the first week, and after the final exam). Quantitative analyses show the impact of error analysis in forms of meta-linguistic feedback and cross linguistic influence on the acquisition of L2 prepositions in the context of ALEs at the Higher College of Technology.

KEYWORDS: Prepositions, SLA, Cross-linguistic influence, meta-linguistic feedback, face-to-face interaction, and overgeneralization

INTRODUCTION
Mourssi (2013d) believes that we can realize the areas of grammar complexity by identifying errors, and by analyzing these errors. The aim behind analyzing the L2 learners’ errors/mistakes is to improve second/foreign language learners’ writing as well as speaking. It could be...
considered that when we want to improve speaking while teaching writing, instructors should follow the same stages in process writing. They can ask students to think, plan, form, think aloud individually, in pairs, or in groups, reform their speaking, and then produce their speaking about the task given. When learners fail to produce target-like form of the target preposition or forget about the usage of the L2 prepositions and used L1 preposition, here is the role of the teacher to interact and analyze the mistakes/errors and give feedback on the production of the learners. In this case, the instructor should know about how to use the preposition in L1. Since he/she has no idea about the usage of L1, this might create a gap between what the teachers teach and what the learners want to learn. Mourssi (2012b) thinks that the process of error analysis might determine how learners process and categorize the input data which they are exposed to. The current study focuses only on the acquisition of the prepositions and how to improve L2 learners’ written accuracy, and try to find suitable teaching techniques to be followed with ALEs in the acquisition of L2 prepositions.

This paper is divided into six main sections: section one is the introduction, the literature review is presented in section two, section three describes the methods used in the current study, the analysis and the discussion are presented in section four, the conclusion is presented in section five, and finally, the references are in section six followed by the appendices. The following section presents the literature review.

LITERATURE REVIEW

First of all, it is worth mentioning that a preposition in English Language grammar is often defined as a word which describes the location of one object in relation to another one. Based on our personal experience in teaching English Language for ALEs, we can assume that learning English Language prepositions is confusing for most of them.

This section which deals with literature review is divided into four subsections: in section 2.1, what is generally meant by Error Analysis is presented; this is followed by The Role of Transfer in Interlanguage in section 2.2. Then in 2.3 we will present the Cross-linguistic Influence of Prepositions and Meta-linguistic feedback. Finally, in 2.4 Types of Prepositions in L2 will be presented.

The reader should be reminded that the term of meta-linguistic feedback refers to both Errors/contrastive analysis presented for the L2 learners after their spoken and first written draft based on the target task provided, without providing them with the target-like form, (Mourssi and Al Doori, 2014a). In other word, it refers to explain the nature of the L2 learners’ mistakes. Gass and Selinker (2008) believe that although some linguists consider Error Analysis and Contrastive Analysis are out of date, they are still current in the field of SLA.

Definition of Error Analysis

Mourssi (2013d) cited that Brown (1987, p. 17) gave a practical and clear definition of error analysis in which error analysis was defined as a process through which researchers observe, analyze, and classify learner errors in order to elicit some information about the system operating
within the learner. Unlike the contrastive analysis hypothesis which only examines errors attributed to negative transfer from the first language, error analysis investigates all possible sources of error and thus, outperforms contrastive analysis, Mourssi (2013c and 2012b).

Ellis et al. (2008, p. 52) provided a detailed account of, and exemplified a model for, error analysis offered by Corder (1977). Ellis (1997, p. 15-20) and Hubbard et al. (1996, p. 135-141) on the other hand, gave practical advice and provide clear examples of how to identify and analyze learners’ errors. Gass and Selinker (2008) defined errors as “red flags” that provide evidence about the knowledge of second language learners. According to Richards (1974), researchers are interested in discovering errors as they are believed to contain valuable information that could be used to develop strategies towards better language acquisition techniques.

It is worth mentioning that Corder (1985, p. 25) distinguished between errors of performance and errors of competence by referring to the former as mistakes and the latter as errors. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 59), James (1998, p. 78) and Ellis (2000, p. 17) described the term ‘mistake’ as a random slip of a tongue and provided a criterion that might clarify the distinction between errors and mistakes. According to these authors, a mistake is a performance fault that the learner is able to correct when his attention is drawn to it, whereas, an error is believed to be not self-correctible since a learner cannot correct it when his attention is drawn to it. Errors represent a lack of learner competence, are systematic, and might occur many times unrecognized by the learner, Mourssi (2013c and 2012b). In the current paper, errors and mistakes will be used alternatively.

**The Role of Transfer in Interlanguage**

Transfer is one of the most important elements which affect interlanguage forms. Investigating it can lead to a better understanding of the source/origin and the development of interlanguage. Researchers were doubtful about the issue of transfer, but some of them have said that it is related to language acquisition and should be discussed. Lado (1957) believed that people rely on their first language when they learn the target language. On the other hand, other researchers such as Dulay and Burt (1974:24) said that transfer has nothing to do with interlanguage. This view was rejected by Mourssi (2013c and 2012b) replying with evidence that most of the interlanguage stages the L2 learners pass through are influenced by cross-linguistic influence of L1 which was termed as Transfer in the 20th century.

In particular, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008:4) argue that cross-linguistic influence refers to the influence of one language on another in an individual mind. They illuminated several areas of meaning and cross-linguistic influence which had not been carefully looked at before. They presented interesting findings and an analysis of the relationship between language transfer and SLA. Based on Odlin’s (1989) claims, and Jarvis and Pavlenko’s (2008) findings, the study will investigate the role of L1 in the acquisition of the L2 prepositions in the context of ALEs.
The Cross-linguistic Influence of Prepositions

A preposition is defined as an item which expresses a relationship between entities, it identifies a relationship in space (between one object and another), and/or a relationship in time (between events). It is a matter of fact that in English grammar generally prepositions are considered as very important linguistic items which should be learned efficiently. Pittman (1966) pointed out that learning prepositions earned a reputation for difficulty if not downright unpredictability. Similarly, Takahaski (1969) identified that the target-like form of prepositions can be seen as one of the greatest problem face English language learners.

Grubic (2004) classified prepositions according to their form, function and meaning. Regarding form, prepositions can be either simple (one-word preposition), or complex (also called two-word, three-word, or compound prepositions). Simple prepositions are known as closed class from which we cannot invent new single word prepositions. The second form is complex prepositions which are known as open class due to the new combinations which could be invented. Generally, there are about seventy simple prepositions in English grammar. Among these seventy, we can refer to the most frequently used ones which are: at, by for, from, in, of, on, to and with.

Quirk et al. (1993) viewed a prepositional phrase is made of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement which is a noun phrase (e.g. at the bus stop) or a WH-clause (e.g. from what he said) or V-ing clause (e.g. by signing a peace treaty). However, several studies (e.g. Mourssi, 2013c) conducted a study in which explored cross-linguistic influence of L1 in acquiring L2 linguistic items in general. However, some studies investigated the transfer of English prepositions across different languages. Regarding Arabic language, Hamdallah and Tushyeh (1993) and also Hasan and Abdullah (2009) examined the cross-linguistic influence of prepositions across English and Arabic languages. Similarly, Asma (2010) investigated the reality of the phenomenon of simple prepositions transfer from Standard Arabic into English by Algerian EFL learners.

Hashim (1996) conducted a similar study in the Jordanian context in which it was found out that a lot of errors have been found and presented in seven syntactic categories. The first category was verbal preposition. In the same vein, Kharma, and Hajjaj, (1997) reported that on Arab EFL learners’ errors, that the majority of their errors are in English syntax, and in particular, prepositions which can be considered as the most troublesome aspect of syntax. Similar studies reached the same findings in the context of ALEs, such as: Zahid (2006), Mohammed (2005), and Muortaga (2004).

However, we can notice that very few studies investigate the cross-linguistic of L1 in acquiring L2 preposition in other languages e.g. Delshad (1980) conducted a contrastive study of English and Persian prepositions. It was found out that Iranian EFL/ESL learners face difficulty in the use of English prepositions.
Types of prepositions in L2
Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2007) categorized any language under five main different categories. The first category is phonetics which refers to the study of individual speech sounds, the second category is phonology which refers to the knowledge of how sounds fit together to make words, while the third category is morphology which refers to the study of the structure of words, then syntax which refers to the study of how words fit together to form phrases, and the last category is semantics which refers to the study of the meaning of individual words and how they relate to each other. They added that there are two subcategories for syntax which are: content words and function words. The content words are those words which have meaning or semantic value. The content words include: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The function words are those which are used to explain or create grammatical or structural relationships into which the content words may fit. It is worth mentioning that the function words might have little meaning of their own and they are much fewer in number than content words. Function words include pronouns, articles, and conjunctions. They also added that prepositions are categorized as function words.

Jie (2008) pointed out that the mistakes that students make in relation to prepositions can be varied according to their language backgrounds. Mourssi (2013d) mentioned that realizing the mistakes is useful for learners and teachers as well. The former will know that he/she produced non-target-like form and the later will know the gaps in his/her learner’s internalized grammatical system.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and Cook (2009) mentioned that in SLA, when L1 and L2 are similar, it will be easy for language learner to learn the L2. They added that when L1 and L2 are different, it will be difficult for language learner to learn L2. Mourssi (2012d, and 2013d) pointed out that Arabic Language is different from English Language which resulted in committing many mistake by ALEs whether young or adult learners.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The current study seeks to answer the following questions:
To what extent do ALEs commit the prepositional mistakes in writing?
What is the evidence of L1 (Arabic) influence in the acquisition of L2 (English) linguistic items?
What the suitable teaching techniques should be used to help ALEs acquiring L2 prepositions?

This is to provide empirical evidence in relation to test hypotheses emerging from language transfer and thus contribute to the advancement of theory on Second Language Acquisition. In addition, to find a suitable teaching technique, this can be used successfully in the acquisition of L2 prepositions.

METHODOLOGY
This section discusses the subjects of the study, the research questions, the procedures and the methods used in the analysis of the written texts.
The subjects of the study

Two groups represent the subjects of the study. These groups were taught by one of the researchers (Ms. Al Hilali). The target location was at Higher College of Technology HCT in the Sultanate of Oman. Each group consisted of 30 Arab Learners of English (ALEs), with ages ranging between 20 and 24, Intermediate to Upper-intermediate level in English. The subjects were all Arabic speakers and had been learning English as a foreign language for 12 years attending four to five sessions per week on average. They were all enrolled in a full year as foundation course in English language. The samples were taken from their writing classes during their second academic year. In other words, after they finished the foundation course for one year. The number of the samples is 120 written scripts.

The procedures

The procedure started by getting permission from the HoD. He kindly forwarded our request to the dean of the college. As soon as the HoD got the approval from the dean, he gave us the written permission to take off in the journey of completing the research. We started to assign the methods for the research questions.

Methods assigned to the research question

For the research question presented above, quantitative analyses were followed for all target-like forms and the non-target-like forms of prepositions produced by the samples in 120 written texts. Mourssi (2013c) pointed out that writing is one way to get evidence of the state of a student's internalised grammar system, and suggested that different written texts should be collected from the samples of the study in different timing. We decided that in order to explore interlanguage phenomena and the influence of L1 in acquiring L2 prepositions, a full two writing texts were collected from each sample in the two groups. In addition, worksheets were prepared for the experimental group to get a real chance for meta-linguistic feedback and the face-to-face interaction with ALEs inside the classroom, see Appendix (1).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the written texts produced by the ALEs in two groups of writing classes appears to indicate that Arabic Language (L1) has influence in the acquisition of L2 preposition. The analyses indicate that meta-linguistic feedback has its own impact on the acquisition of L2 prepositions. In the following are the details.

Pre-test Analysis

In fact there were many types of mistakes in the writing texts but our aim was to sort out the errors related to the L2 prepositions. The authors think about adding a backup group to the main two groups namely the experimental group and the control group. Sometimes it happens that some groups are cancelled for fewer number of students enrolled in that group. That is why we also analyzed the errors in the backup group but when we reached to the post test, it was taken out because we had already analyzed the target groups.
able (1) below shows that when we calculated the errors related to the prepositions, we found out that experimental group made 47 errors. In the same range, the control group made 49 errors. That is why we continued our research because the two groups were equal or nearly equal in the level of proficiency related to the usage of L2 prepositions. In addition the backup group from which we collected writing texts as well but were not included in the analyses, made 51 errors in the area of using L2 prepositions.

**Table 1: Pre-analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number of Non-target-like preposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Backup Group</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The Experimental Group**

It was noticed that the ALEs in the experimental group used the prepositions *on* and *in* alternatively in a wrong way. We can see from the table below that they used the preposition *in* instead of the preposition *on* in 21 examples. They used *(in first day)* instead of *(on first day)* 14 times. They also repeated the same error and used *(in a hanger)* instead of *(on a hanger)* 7 times. On the contrary, they used the preposition *in* instead of *on* e.g. *(on open air)* instead of *(on open air)* for 4 times. Sometimes the ALEs omit the preposition because they do not have similar one in their L1 as it shown in example 8 in table 2 below. Also from table 2 below, it is noticed the amount of errors that ALEs in the experimental group made in their pre-test writing.

**Table 2: Pre-test Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non-target like form</th>
<th>Target like form</th>
<th>Number of non-target like forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The packaging should help bananas stay fresh to a long time.</td>
<td>The packaging should help bananas stay fresh for a long time.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The banana on a paper bag...</td>
<td>The banana in a paper bag...</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>On first day</td>
<td>On first day</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>In open air</td>
<td>In open air</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>In a hanger</td>
<td>On a hanger</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I heated each pan in 350 °C</td>
<td>I heated each pan at 350 °C</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I fried the chips on 350 °C</td>
<td>I fried the chips at 350 °C</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I fried the chips 20 min</td>
<td>I fried the chips for 20 min</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I poured olive oil for the first pot.</td>
<td>I poured olive oil in the first pot.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The effect of the factor in the freshness of bananas.</td>
<td>The effect of the factor on the freshness of bananas.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I added chips for the third pan.</td>
<td>I added chips to the third pan.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>In the other hand</td>
<td>on the other hand</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The Control Group**

Similar to the experimental group, the control group made nearly the same amount of errors in using the prepositions. Table 3 below shows the amount of errors made by the control group. They used the preposition *in* instead of the preposition *on* in 19 examples. They used *(in day1)*
instead of \(\textit{on day1}\) 12 times. They also repeated the same error and used \((\textit{in a hanger})\) instead of \((\textit{on a hanger})\) 5 times. Besides they repeated the same error 3 times in example 13 in table 3 below. On the contrary, they used the preposition \textit{in} instead of \textit{on} e.g. \((\textit{on open air})\) instead of \((\textit{in open air})\) for 4 times in example 4 in table 3 below. It can be seen from the table that most of the errors might be related to L1 or overgeneralization of one preposition on the others. They used the preposition \textit{at} instead of the preposition \textit{for} 5 times in examples 11 and 12 in the table below. Similarly to the experimental group, the AlEs sometimes omit the preposition as it does not have any equaling in their L1 as it is shown in examples 5 and 10 in table 3 above.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline
\textbf{No} & \textbf{Non-target like form} & \textbf{Target like form} & \textbf{Number of non-target like forms} \\
\hline
1 & \textit{I observed the bananas in day 1.} & \textit{I observed the bananas on day 1.} & 12 \\
2 & \textit{The effect of different types of oil in the freshness of potatoes.} & \textit{The effect of different types of oil on the freshness of potatoes.} & 2 \\
3 & \textit{In a hanger.} & \textit{On a hanger.} & 5 \\
4 & \textit{On open air.} & \textit{In open air.} & 4 \\
5 & \textit{Keeping bananas fresh a long time.} & \textit{Keeping bananas fresh for a long time.} & 3 \\
6 & \textit{I cooked the chips on 350 °C} & \textit{I cooked the chips at 350 °C} & 5 \\
7 & \textit{In the other hand} & \textit{On the other hand} & 3 \\
8 & \textit{Keeping bananas fresh of a long time.} & \textit{Keeping bananas fresh for a long time.} & 3 \\
9 & \textit{I poured oil on the pan.} & \textit{I poured oil into the pan.} & 1 \\
10 & \textit{I fried the potatoes 20 min.} & \textit{I fried the potatoes for 20 min.} & 3 \\
11 & \textit{I fried the potatoes at 20 min.} & \textit{I fried the potatoes for 20 min.} & 3 \\
12 & \textit{Olive oil kept the potatoes fresh at 1 hr.} & \textit{Olive oil kept the potatoes fresh for 1 hr.} & 2 \\
13 & \textit{At the first day, the bananas were fresh.} & \textit{On the first day, the bananas were fresh.} & 3 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Pre-test Analysis}
\end{table}

\textbf{Post-test Analysis}

Regarding research question number 3, the treatment started after analyzing the pre-test directly with the experimental group, while the control group followed the normal method of teaching followed in the college. The experimental group received meta-linguistic feedback and face-to-face interaction. The teacher followed Ex-implicit grammar teaching approach (Mourssi, 2013a). Nagata (1993); Carroll (2001), Rosa and Leow (2004), demonstrate that explicit feedback was more effective than implicit feedback. Similarly, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam’s (2006) study of the effects of recasts and meta-linguistic feedback on the acquisition of English past tense –\textit{ed} also found that explicit feedback is more effective than implicit feedback. On the contrary, Leeman (2003) found out that implicit feedback is more effective than explicit feedback. From the point of view of pre-intermediate and intermediate ALEs, Mourssi (2013a) thinks that it is better to employ both types in the classroom context (Ex-implicit feedback), where explicit feedback can be more effective with low level language learners, while implicit feedback can be more effective with higher level language learners. However, the findings of the current study reveal that meta-linguistic feedback explaining the nature of the learners’ errors without giving them the target-like forms seems to be the effective type of corrective feedback with both low and high level second language learners, Mourssi (2013a).
The Experimental Group

Table 4 below shows the errors made by the experimental group after the treatment. Analyzing the information in the table below reveals that the improvement that the ALEs achieved in the experimental group. The authors think that is due to the teaching techniques followed with the ALEs during the experiment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non-target -like forms</th>
<th>Number of mistakes</th>
<th>Target -like forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I kept the glasses in 20 °C.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>I kept the glasses at 20 °C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The material of glasses can affect on ice melting.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>The material of glasses can affect ice melting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The material of glasses can affect in ice melting.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>The material of glasses can affect ice melting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Glass material has an effect in the ice melting.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Glass material has an effect on the ice melting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I put 1 ice cube for each glass.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>I put 1 ice cube in each glass.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total (11)

From table (4) above, it can be seen that the total amount of errors committed by ALEs in the experimental group is 11. We think that the amount should have been less than that percentage; however, it might be because of the short time of the experiment. It is to remind the reader that the experiment lasted for about three months only.

We think that errors mentioned in the table 4 above reveal that ALEs still think in L1 and write In L2. We mean the Crosslinguistic influence of L1 is very clear in the acquisition of L2 preposition. We think that the main problem is using the two prepositions (in and on). Mourssi (2012d, 2013c, and 2013d) and Mourssi and Al Doori (2014a) pointed out the issue of crosslinguistic and the importance role of meta-linguistic feedback. However, some ALEs show remarkable improvement by memorizing the usage of the most common preposition. This learning strategy of memorization might be effective and helpful in the process of meta-linguistic feedback and face-to-face interaction.

Using the preposition (for) instead of the preposition (in) in example 5 in table 4 above shows the literal translation. However, we can see the improvement in the experimental group compared with the control group. This will be presented in the following section.

The Control Group

Analyzing the data derived from table 5 below reveals that ALEs in the control group committed 23 errors compared with 11 errors in the experimental group. One reason might be the teaching techniques followed with the experimental group. Another reason might be the normal feedback that the control group received. It can be seen from the data provided in the table that ALEs used a mixture of (in, on, at, of, for, with, and to) compared with the non-target-like preposition used by ALEs in the experimental group. Similarly, the most common errors were committed by the
ALEs in the control group were the prepositions of (in and on). They used the preposition *in* for five times in a wrong way, and the preposition *of* *on* four times in a wrong way. We think that if they had received meta-linguistic feedback and there were face-to-face interactions, they would not have committed that number of errors.

It is to remind the reader that the subjects in both groups committed many other types of errors but our main aim is to investigate the errors related to the usage of L2 prepositions in the writing context.

**Table 5: Post-analysis (Final Exam Data)**  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non-target-like forms</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The material of the glass affects <em>on</em> the speed at which ice melts.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The effect of glass material <em>of</em> ice melting.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><em>I kept the glasses</em> <em>in</em> room temperature.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The ice should be kept solid a long time.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Effect of the material of glasses <em>in</em> the ice melting.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The glasses were kept <em>in</em> 20 °C.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Leave the ice in the glass <em>to</em> 20 min.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ice was added <em>in</em> each glass.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td><em>I kept the glasses</em> <em>with</em> room temperature.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The customers were satisfied <em>of</em> the drinks. (2)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total (23)**

Summarizing the information provided in tables 4 and 5 and table 6 below shows the post-test analysis for both the experimental group and the control group as well. It can be seen the amount of error in the control group is double the amount of errors committed by the ALEs in the experimental group.

**Table 6: Post-analysis for both groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Number of Non-target-like mistakes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, it can be said that based on the different positions of English prepositions in the sentences as it happens in Arabic prepositions, where we can see the English prepositions can follow a nominal, a verbal or an adjectival as well. The ALEs committed this amount of errors. A common characteristic of English prepositions is that most of different prepositions can offer
many different meanings when they are used with the same word. Another issue is that the meaning of the verb itself can be changed totally when it is followed by different prepositions.

The main problem which resulted in negative transfer is that prepositions rarely have a one to one correspondence between English language and Arabic language. In other words, we can find out that an Arabic preposition might be translated into several English prepositions and vice versa we can find out that an English preposition might have several different Arabic translations.

To conclude, we think that there is a very clear impact of L1 on the acquisition of L2 prepositions. The technique of meta-linguistic feedback besides the face-to-face interaction and memorization of common prepositions usage might be the most efficient methods of teaching and learning L2 prepositions.

Limitations of the study
The ALES committed many types of mistakes/errors while writing the first and the second texts. We could not analyze all the types because our target was concentrating only on L2 prepositions. The second limitation was the amount of the samples which was 60 subjects only. We tried to cover all the groups in the study but it was difficult to achieve that due to organizing and administrative reasons.

REFERENCES


APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Different tasks given to the experimental group

Task One: Correct the following mistakes. (Group work) based on the non target-like forms

1. Smart phones affect for students badly.
2. Open the website for college.
3. Many students face problem in registration day.
4. They are aware about registration.
5. I poured some water on the glass.

Task Two: Correct the following mistakes.

6. In add and drop day.
7. You may think in creating a timetable.
8. Open the website for HCT.
9. The flowers should be fresh to a long time.
10. The flower on the first glass is fresh.

Task Three: Correct the following mistakes.

11. I added sugar for the first glass.
12. I heated the water for 50 °C.
13. In the other hand
14. In day 1, the flower was fresh.
15. Sugar has an effect for the freshness of flowers.

Task Four: Correct the following mistakes.

16. The effect of water temperature in the growth of plants.
17. How to keep flowers fresh at a long time.
18. The type of water in which flowers are kept affects in their freshness.
19. I poured oil for the first pan.
20. This spray should protect you of mosquitoes.

Task Five: Correct the following mistakes.

21. The growth of plants depend in water temperature.
22. She stopped the child of eating chocolate.
23. If you make so much noise I can’t concentrate in my work.
24. Both came in the same time.
25. Customers should be satisfied of the quality of the phones.
EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONS MEDIATE THE FACILITATIVE ROLE OF BILINGUALISM IN THIRD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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ABSTRACT
Executive functioning refers to a regulatory system of general cognitive abilities that includes processes such as attention and inhibition. These capabilities are responsible for handling cognitive processes such as problem solving, switching between the tasks and ignoring misleading features in a task. The relationship between bilingualism or the use of two languages by an individual and these executive functions has been investigated from different perspectives in the literature on bilingualism. This article aims to review and report the findings on the effects of bilingualism on children’s executive functioning and on learning a third language. After introducing executive functioning and bilingualism the literature on the relationship of these two phenomena are reviewed and classified along the categories of inhibitory control, task switching capacities, attention control and working memory. There is then a review of the facilitative role of bilingualism on third language acquisition and the significant role of executive functions in language learning to conclude that the facilitative role of bilingualism reported in the literature is due to its beneficial effects on executive functions. Executive functions mediate the facilitative role of bilingualism in third language acquisition. The results may also explain the observation that a difference in the type of bilingualism leads to a difference in this facilitative role. This may provide a better insight in interpreting the studies done on the relationship between bilingualism and third language acquisition.

KEYWORDS: executive functions, bilingualism, third language acquisition, inhibitory control,

INTRODUCTION
Executive function is an umbrella term that refers to higher cognitive mechanisms that account for the conscious control of thought and action (Zelazo & Muller, 2010). Executive functions, thus, refer to the management of cognitive processes like working memory, task switching, and inhibitory control, among other processes. There is a hypothesized executive system in the mind which is responsible for these cognitive processes. It is thought to be mainly responsible for handling novel situations outside the domain of automatic processes that could be explained by the reproduction of acquired schemas (Field, 2004). Tasks requiring planning, decision-making, error correction, and unrehearsed novel utterances are examples of these novel situations that call for executive functioning. Executive functions might be engaged to inhibit automatic responses
in such situations. Executive function abilities are in a state of change and development due to physical changes in the brain and life experiences. The earliest executive functions that appear are inhibitory control and working memory. These are the basic executive functions that make more complex functions like problem solving possible. Recent research has demonstrated that executive control is not a unitary construct, and can be decomposed into several functions. Miyake et al. (2000) identify three separate, but correlated, executive functions: updating of working memory, inhibition of distractors or responses, and shifting between mental sets. In other words inhibitory control, controlled attention, and task switching can be viewed as the basic components that form our executive functioning (Friedman, Miyake, Corley, Young, DeFries & Hewitt, 2006).

Bilingualism, roughly defined, refers to the ability to use more than one language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). The definitions of bilingualism can be viewed as sliding along a continuum from ‘maximal’ definition of the concept that implies equal ability in the two languages to a ‘minimal’ definition which implies an unbalanced knowledge of the two. The relationship between bilingualism or the use of two languages by an individual and the development of cognitive abilities of children has always been an interesting topic of investigation in the literature (Bialystok, 2011; Hakuta, 1986). Bilingual children are reported to show advantages in executive functions, specifically in inhibitory control and task switching. Speaking two languages requires controlling one’s attention and choosing the correct language to use and this may simply mean that bilingualism has advantageous effects on executive functioning. Indeed bilingual children have been reported to be more advantageous in cognitive functions like tests of creativity (Ricciardelli, 1992), spatial problems (Bialystok & Majumder, 1998), and ignoring misleading features (Bialystok & Codd, 1997). It seems that most studies support the advantageous role of bilingualism in a host of intellectual abilities: inhibitory control develops more rapidly in bilingual children and bilingual children are reported to outperform their monolingual peers in controlling their attention which is a key element in executive functioning. There is also a growing literature in the field of second language acquisition on the facilitative role of bilingualism in third language acquisition. The interest in the role of bilingualism in third language acquisition began in 1980s and a host of studies have investigated this relationship. The general conclusion is that, all other things being equal, bilinguals outperform monolinguists in learning an additional language (Cenoz, 2003).

This paper reviews the literature on the effects of bilingualism on children’s executive functioning especially inhibitory control, controlled attention and task switching and also the effects of bilingualism on third language acquisition. There is then an argument on the role of executive functions in language learning. The aim is to conclude that the facilitative role of bilingualism in third language acquisition is mediated by executive functions. In other words, bilingualism does not directly facilitate third language acquisition. This facilitative role is due to the advantageous influence of bilingualism on executive functions. The results may also be an explanation for the observation that the kind of bilingualism affects this facilitative role in third language acquisition.
LITERATURE REVIEW

There are different definitions for the term bilingualism in the literature. The definitions can be viewed as sliding along a continuum from a ‘maximal’ to a ‘minimal’ degree of bilingualism. Lam (2001) defines bilingualism as ‘the phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages’. Thus, a bilingual person is one who can communicate in two languages. Most bilingual children are those who brought up in families with bilingual parents. The two languages may be learned at the same time (simultaneous bilingualism) or the second language may be acquired after the first has been established (sequential bilingualism). From the 1920s on scholars were attracted by bilingualism and studies on this phenomenon started. The earlier studies reported negative effects for bilingualism and it was regarded as a disadvantage (Jespersen, 1922 cited in Herdina & Jessner, 2002). Since the counterclaims of Peal and Lambert (1962) that bilingualism actually is an advantage and bilinguals perform better in certain cognitive tasks studies on bilingualism expanded. They believed that the possibility of switching linguistic codes while performing cognitive tasks gave bilingual children an added flexibility that monolingual children did not enjoy. This hypothesis gave rise to a popular concept regarding bilinguals’ cognitive advantages, namely, bilinguals’ cognitive flexibility. The interest in the study of the effects of bilingualism on executive functions is a more recent trend in the studies on bilingualism. The main concern here is on the possible advantages of being bilingual on the performance of children on tasks requiring executive functions, that is tasks needing more than automatic routines (Bialystok, 2001). Starting in the 1960s and continuing into the 2000’s, dozens of studies were conducted on the relationship between bilingualism and cognitive abilities. In a review by Palij and Homel (1987), they examined bilingualism and its relationship with cognitive development from three perspectives: historical, examination of issues related to methodologies, and the role theory has played in guiding research and what is expected to happen in the future. The authors argued that in the past, bilingualism was viewed as a worry for the parents. It was believed that it caused confusion in children and it impeded their first language learning abilities. However, since that time, a different picture has emerged, an optimistic and supportive view of bilingualism in childhood. The effects of bilingualism on children’s executive functioning can be studied from different perspectives.

Bilingualism and inhibitory control

One of the main processes involved in the executive functioning of the cognitive system is the inhibitory control. It plays an important role in making different cognitive processes work together to successfully perform a task. Studies have shown that bilingual children excel in tasks requiring inhibitory control to ignore misleading features. Green (1998) and Bialystok (2001) believe that bilingual children have an advanced degree of inhibitory control. Bilinguals have at their disposal two languages and this means that they have to move or switch between their two languages at any given time and, thus, they need to inhibit or suppress one of their languages in favor of the other one. This constant practice of inhibitory control contribute to the bilingual’s advanced ability to ignore distracting or irrelevant input, first in language tasks and then in other general cognitive processes. Investigators suggest that bilingualism promotes inhibitory control mechanisms, and that bilingualism leads to a greater use of inhibitory control, because it is invoked every time language is used (Bialystok et al., 2004). Kovács (2007) argues that there is an advantage for the bilinguals because they constantly engage in selecting and inhibiting
competing responses for language output/motor response. Similarly, Kroll et al. (2008) believe that bilinguals do not avoid cross-language interference but rather they learn to deal with the competition of the two systems and, thus, develop more advanced inhibitory control. Indeed, the first reports on positive effects of bilingualism on inhibitory control rooted from the assumption that the two languages of a bilingual have to be processed on a constant basis. This implies that the speaker faces cross-language interference and, hence, has to promote his/her inhibitory control so as to resist the unintended use of the non-intended language in each situation. This is in line with Bialystok’s (2001; 2004) argument that there mere fact of bilingual experience leads to superior inhibitory control. Cross-language interference can only be avoided in normal language processing due to the inhibitory control mechanisms. This claims, however, presupposes the idea that both languages of a bilingual are activated while using one of the languages. This co-activation or parallel activation has well been documented in the literature on multilingualism. Bilingual picture-word is one of the paradigms that have been used in multilingual studies aiming to provide evidence for this co-activation (Costa & Garamazza, 1999; Hermans, 2004). This may be one of the reasons why bilinguals found to have a cognitive advantage over monolinguals; they have excessive practice in inhibitory control.

Bilingualism and controlled attention

We have an ability to tune in to certain inputs and exclude others. It seems that the mind has a hypothetical filter to allow certain pieces of information while blocking others. We are bombarded with auditory and visual information from the environment, but our perceptual system seems to filter out what is not relevant (Styles, 1997).

Attention requires mental effort, with some tasks requiring more than others. The ability to perform two or more tasks simultaneously depends on how much of the capacity of the working memory a task demands. Working memory, however, is said to have limited capacity. Apart from working memory some other factors are also influencing attention. They include issues like motivation, interest and emotional factors (Field, 2005). As well as influencing models of first-language reading and listening, the notion of attention plays a part in theories of second language acquisition. Like inhibitory control the bilinguals’ experience of using two languages seems to lead to enhanced controlled-attention than monolinguals. Bilingualism seems to help individuals to pay close attention to relevant information due to the presence of interference (Bialystok & Majumder, 1998). One of the first studies on the relationship between bilingualism and controlled-attention was Ben-Zeev’s (1977) study which employed certain metalinguistic tasks like Symbols Substitution accompanied by a context of competition between the usual and unusual semantic reference function. The bilinguals outperformed monolinguals in the tasks and this suggested that bilinguals might have developed certain strategies as a consequence of their dual language acquisition. Bialystok (1992 a) redefines these strategies as ‘control of attentional processing’, by which she means the child’s ability of executive attention to tune to or focus on certain aspects of a stimulus in the presence of distraction or conflict. She proposed the idea that bilingual children show significant advantage compared to monolingual children in tasks calling for advanced controlled-attention. Bialystok (1998) tested this hypothesis by designing a task that required children to make grammaticality judgment ignoring the semantic meaning of the sentence. The bilinguals’ higher levels of control processing were supported in a number of the
experiments and replications. It was, thus, concluded that bilingualism facilitates the direction of attention to relevant information in a distraction condition. Working memory, a component of memory responsible for holding short-term information for the purposes of performing the current tasks, is often mentioned in the studies on attention. In Baddeley and Hitch’s (1974) model of working memory there is a ‘central executive’ component that is the same as the ‘controlled-attention in Bialystok’s (1992 b) words. Attention is responsible for controlling the limited cognitive resources in all forms of information processing. There is, thus, strong correlation between controlled attention and working memory capacity on the conflict resolution task (Kane et al, 2001). In fact bilinguals are reported to show significantly greater working memory capacity than monolinguals on attention-impeded tasks (Yang et al, 2005). Compared to monolinguals, bilinguals can direct their attention to task-relevant information and further maintain their attention in spite of adverse interference.

**Bilingualism and task switching**

The ability to shift attention between one task and another is an executive function which is referred to as task switching. This ability allows an individual to rapidly adapt to new or different situations. Task switching may cause a slower performance and a decrease in accuracy on a task. This difference in performance and accuracy between tasks in a task-switching situation is known as the switching cost. Task switching is often regarded as a manifestation of cognitive flexibility. Given that bilinguals tend to switch languages rather often, one could readily hypothesize that, to the extent that language switching shares some components with domain- general task-switching, bilingualism should impact task-switching performance. Bilinguals switch between languages so as to select the language that is appropriate in different contexts. This may create or contribute to potential benefits for bilinguals in task switching (Hernandez et al, 2013).

Prior and Mc Whinney’s (2009) study on the effects of bilingualism on task switching is one of the earliest studies in this regard. They investigated the possibility that bilingualism may lead to enhanced efficiency in the ability to shift between mental sets. They compared the performance of monolingual and fluent bilinguals in a task-switching paradigm. Bilinguals proved to incur less switching costs than monolinguals. Based on the reported reduced switch-cost of bilinguals, Hernandez and colleagues explored the way bilingualism affects task-switching mechanisms. Their results qualified previous claims about the effect of bilingualism in reducing non-linguistic switch costs (Hernandez et al, 2013).

**Bilingualism and third language acquisition**

The interest in the influence of bilingualism on learning an additional language began in the late 1980s (Ringbom, 1987). Different aspects of this influence can be investigated. Bilinguals demonstrate more cognitive flexibility and more metalinguistic awareness in comparison to monolinguals (Cenoz, 2003). The studies show that bilinguals have more capabilities to control and use their linguistic resources (Bialystok, 2001). This privilege can exert positive effects on learning a third language. Moreover, skill transfer can happen much more easily (Cummins, 1991). De Angelis (2007) believes that bilinguals can transfer from both L1 and L2 and this is an advantage in itself.
Several studies have supported the advantages of bilingualism in the development of linguistic and cognitive capabilities (Ringbom, 1987; Bialystok, 1988). Kecskes and Papp (2000) believe that bilingualism facilitates the learning of another language. Other studies in the field have also confirmed that bilingualism assists learning an additional language (Cenoz and Valencia, 1994; Klein, 1995). McLaughlin and Nayak (1989) confirm the positive effect of bilingualism on learning a third language by referring to the fact that bilingual students are able to use a wider variety of learning strategies.

The general conclusion that bilingualism generally facilitates L3 acquisition rate has specially been documented in the area of morphosyntax. Thus, for example, Elaine Klein (1995) observed a general advantage for multilingualism when 15 high-school speakers of L3 English were asked to judge whether the separation of a preposition or a postposition from its noun phrase, or what is known as stranding, was grammatical. They did considerably better than another group of learners of L2 (as opposed to L3) English. This was despite that this phenomenon was absent in their L1s and L2s. The evidence suggests that ‘knowledge of two or more languages can accelerate the learning of an additional language. Research on lexical transfer in L3 acquisition has found substantial vocabulary rate advantage for multilinguals’ (Ortega, 2009, p.48).

Bialystok’s studies (2001) show that bilingual children have higher levels of metalinguistic awareness comparing to monolingual children. Bialystok asserts that there is a positive correlation between the higher levels of bilingualism and the ability to think better about language. A source of evidence for metalinguistic awareness along with mother tongue is other previously learned languages. Cenoz (2011) suggests to the advantages that bilinguals have in learning an additional language. They have more linguistic experiences, more learning strategies, and richer linguistic and cross-cultural repertoire.

One of the earliest studies on the effects of bilingualism on learning a third language was conducted by Ringbom (1987). He compared the monolinguals and Finnish-Swedish bilinguals who were learning English in Finland. The results of these studies showed that the bilingual learners outperformed the monolinguals. The learners were all of the same level of proficiency in English and the same tests were used to measure their achievement. Thomas (1988) noticed that Spanish-English learners of French performed significantly better than their peer monolinguals in learning French in the classroom setting.

Cenoz (1992, cited in Cenoz & Genesee, 1998) compared the monolingual and bilingual learners of English and found that bilinguals outperformed their monolingual peers in language proficiency tests. Moreover, in a series of studies conducted in Spain (Sanz, 1997; Munoz, 2000; Sagasta, 2003) the bilingual children outperformed their monolingual peers in learning English. Gonzalez (1998) studied the Turkish and Moroccan immigrants regarding their progress in learning English. He noticed superiority for bilinguals. In the immersion programs in Canada the studies showed that bilingual students performed better in French tests compared to their monolingual peers (Hurd, 1993). Brohy (2001) showed that Romanian-German bilinguals were more successful in learning French in Switzerland.
Molnar (2010) investigated the differences between second language acquisition and third language acquisition and the effects of bilingualism on learning an additional language. The results were based on the assessment of lexical competence of the Hungarian monolinguals, Hungarian-Romanian bilinguals and Roman monolinguals that were all learners of English. The results demonstrated that the Hungarian-Romanian bilinguals performed better than the Hungarian monolingual group. The results of this study supported this general conclusion that bilingualism has a facilitative effect on learning a third language. Sanz (2000) compared 124 Catalan-Spanish bilinguals with 77 Spanish monolinguals learning English. Their level of proficiency was measured by general proficiency tests of vocabulary and grammar. In this study lots of extraneous variables were controlled. These included the learners’ socio-cultural background, motivation, attitudes, and general intelligence. The bilinguals got much better scores than their peer monolinguals.

Cenoz (2003) investigated the effects of two previously known languages on the oral production of the third. The study focused on the cross-linguistic influence by comparing the same group of learners at two different times in their learning process: in grade four and grade six of elementary school. The participants were twenty learners of English as a third language who had received language instruction from the age of four. They were Basque-Spanish bilinguals. The same general conclusion on the facilitative effect of L2 knowledge on L3 acquisition was supported.

Keshavarz and Astaneh (2004) reported that female students at pre-university level in Iran who were speakers of either Armenian and Persian or Turkish and Persian outperformed a comparison group of L1 Persian-L2 English students on an English vocabulary test, even in the absence of any cognates that would be useful for learning English vocabulary. In this study the focus was on the effects of bilingualism on learning English vocabulary and potential variables that would affect the results were controlled. The results clearly show that bilingualism facilitates vocabulary learning in an additional language. Kassaian and Esmae’li (2011) compared the monolingual and bilingual EFL students for their vocabulary acquisition. Thirty Armenian-Persian bilinguals and thirty Persian monolinguals participated in the study. They were all females. Nationality, age, and level of instruction were also controlled. The subjects were all Iranian, aged 17 to 18, and they were all at the lower intermediate level. Nation Vocabulary Test was used to measure their vocabulary knowledge breadth and Burt Word Reading test was used to measure the participants’ word reading skills. The results showed that bilingualism displays a high correlation with vocabulary knowledge breadth and reading skill. The bilingual subjects had greater size of vocabulary knowledge breadth and reading skill.

**Executive functions and language learning**

Executive functions play an important role in language development and use. Most language processing models take into account executive functions such as attention, working memory, task switching, and inhibition in language processing, though it may be under the rubric of the general term of cognitive factors. This means that language processing is not mere a linguistic task (Gomes, Wolfson, and Lalperin, 2007). Executive functions are thought to influence language performance. They ‘allow us to organize our behavior over time and override immediate demands in favor of longer-term goals’ as Dawson and Guare (2004:1) put it. In other words, in
addition to their general cognitive contributions, the executive functions are vital in language development and language processing. Working memory, for example, has been mentioned as the most important cognitive skill needed for online language processing in both auditory and visual modes (Archibald & Gathercole, 2006). Hungerford and Gonyo (2007) even go further and suggest that language disorders happen because of executive dysfunction. The contribution of working memory, inhibitory control, and shifting abilities to English proficiency has been reported in the studies aimed to investigate the relationship between executive functions and language proficiency. In a study designed by Kaushanskaya, Gross and Buac (2014) to investigate the bilingual advantages in learning further languages they concluded that the bilingual advantages on word-learning tasks may be rooted in bilinguals’ ability to rely on domain-general executive function mechanisms in language learning. The role of attention as another component of executive functions in language development has also been investigated to account for the fact that one important mechanism of language is to direct attention to different semantic propositions in an utterance.

DISCUSSION
A comparison of the studies on the positive effects of bilingualism on the development of executive functions and also studies on the facilitative effects of bilingualism on learning a third language can lead to the generation of the idea that bilingualism may not affect L3 acquisition directly. The mere fact that executive functions play a crucial role in language learning in general can lead to the idea that the facilitative role of bilingualism in learning a third language is mediated by executive functions. From a descriptive and structural point of view previous languages seem to make further languages difficult to acquire and this is exactly the prevalent view mentioned earlier on the bilingualism as a disadvantage. Psycholinguistics brought about a totally different view and focused on the positive effects of the previously learnt languages on learning other languages. The review of the studies reveal a timeline from 1980s when the focus was on the facilitative role of bilingualism in third language learning to the 2000s when the focus shifted on the positive effects of bilingualism in better executive functioning. Interpreting these results by the insight provided from the strand of studies that focused on the crucial role of executive functions on language learning contribute to the conclusion that it is these positive effects of bilingualism on executive functions that pave the way for its facilitative role in third language acquisition.

A critical analysis of the studies which have investigated the relationship between bilingualism and third language acquisition can lead to the conclusion that it is not bilingualism per se that has provided the advantage in third language acquisition, but rather the underlying cognitive capabilities which have been reinforced by bilingualism. This may be the reason why Cenoz (2003) noticed that studies on the influences of bilingualism on L3 acquisition give mixed results. The advantage mentioned for bilingualism in these studies may be due to cognitive capability and flexibility that one gets because of learning another language. Further studies need to be done to investigate the role of bilingualism in developing any other skills that rely on executive functioning in order to come to the conclusion that in these studies it is the impact of bilingualism on executive functions that paves the way for a more efficient learning of a third language.
Intelligence may have played a role too. Bilinguals may have shown greater achievement not because they are bilingual, but because they are simply more intelligent. Intelligence is a multidimensional and dynamic predisposition that can be affected by learning experiences. Learning a second language on the part of the bilinguals has, thus, provided a kind of mental gymnastics for the mind and has made it more apt for learning an additional language. Thus the success observed for the bilinguals may be due to this mental aptness. Genesee (1978) found that intelligence can make a difference only for language skills, reading and structural expression, and not for communicative skills in conversation with other speakers. This may be the reason why Magiste (1984) reported a slower oral production rate for multilingual subjects in his study. In the literature on intelligence and aptitude high correlations have been reported between intelligence and vocabulary size (Skehan, 1989). This provides an additional support to claim that the subjects in these studies performed better because of intelligence, a factor which is more psychological than linguistic.

CONCLUSION

The general conclusion of this review is that executive functions mediate the facilitative role of bilingualism in third language learning. Bilingualism has advantageous effects on executive functions. These executive functions in turn are necessary in language learning. Thus, bilingualism contributes to third language learning through its positive impacts on executive functions. In other words, from a linguistic point of view bilingualism may not be beneficial in third language acquisition, but psycholinguistics has provided deeper insights in understanding the nature of language development specially the role of executive functions in this process and it is from this point of view that one can explain the reason of why bilingualism seem to be beneficial in third language acquisition. It should be mentioned here that the facilitative role of bilingualism on third language acquisition may not be merely due to its effects on executive functions but because of some other less observed factors. Bilinguals, for example, may have more motivation for learning another language or they may have more positive attitudes towards other languages due to their knowledge in two languages. In other words, bilingualism may facilitate third language learning not because of cognitive or linguistic reasons, but because of attitudinal factors.

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DE-MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS OF SPEAKING ENGLISH: A CASE OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
The effect of de-motivation in second or foreign language learning and its relevant causes cannot be underestimated. The present study was an attempt to examine the factors of de-motivation affecting English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ performance in speaking English. A questionnaire consisting of teacher-related, student-related and classroom-related de-motivating factors was administered to 100 first grade high school students in one of the institutions of Iran.Tabriz who had been studying English for three years. The data analysis revealed that although all three factors of de-motivation negatively affected the students’ performance in speaking English but the classroom related factor was the most effective one among all three factors of de-motivation. The most significant reasons of students in de-motivation were (a) little or no access to the Internet (b) computer equipment shortage, (c) no real-life situation for using English outside the classroom, and (d) no sufficient time for teaching English in classroom by teachers. With respect to the results obtained Instructional materials developers and policymakers can choose the appropriate subject matters, allocate sufficient time amount according to the learner needs. By identifying de-motivating factors, EFL teachers make attempts to decrease or prevent the causes of de-motivation or at least minimize their effect on students’ learning. They can use can use the advantage of de-motivation by identifying the real factors of them and will try to decrease or prevent the causes of de-motivation in order to stop or minimize their effect on students learning.

KEYWORDS: De-motivation, Motivation, De-motivating factors, Learner’s attitudes and behaviors.

INTRODUCTION
Motivation is one of the main factors in an individual success in developing a second or foreign language (Dörnyei & Otto,1998). Dörnyei (2001a,p.6) puts it “the term motivation is a convenient way of talking about a concept which is generally seen as a very important human characteristic but immensely complex”. In sharp contrast to motivation and motivating factors is de-motivating factors which have been completely or at least partly neglected in language teaching and learning studies especially in EFL contexts. Flout and Maruyama (2004) believe
that if motivation pushes learning for life, de-motivation cuts learning short for some reasons. De-motivation is “another side of motivation” (Falout & Marayama, 2004; Kikuchi, 2009). Experiences are showing that learners of a language can’t be motivated to learn while having strong reasons for de-motivation against learning and before motivating reluctant learners, the factors and perceptions which cause de-motivation and prevent engagement in learning or willingness must be recognized then removed. There are various factors affecting the language teaching and learning process of language learners. Among these factors motivation plays an important role in the learning process as it has been one of the main factors in an individual success in developing a second or foreign language (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). There have been de-motivating factors that impede learners learning motivation and hence lead to unsuccessful mastery of English language proficiency. According to Gorham and Christophel (1992), Christophel and Gorham (1995), two thirds of de-motivating factors which diminish communication are related with teacher. Song (2005) also reported that all the factors effect motivated students become motivated but among these teachers related factor played an important role in that process. In language learning process there are a lot of studies which indicate the effect of the motivation on the outcome of learning and results shows that motivation is one of the main determining factors in an individual’s success in developing a second (L2) or foreign language (FL). The darker side of motivation or de-motivation has almost been completely ignored in research on FL motivation. Reality shows that de-motivation is a frequent problem in schools, universities and language institutes and a bitter fact is that, the number of de-motivated students is increasing in regular. So in this study we want focus on this important matter in student’s learning and try to distinguish the darker side of it and try to shed light on some motivational problems and ganger areas. Therefore, in this study we investigated the main and significant de-motivating factors among Iranian High schools students which impede the learning process and for the result Iranian high school students give up the learning English as foreign language or get cold feet at this process.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1: Is there any difference in student-, teacher-, and classroom-related, de-motivating factors that discourage Iranian high school students to speak in English

H1: There is a significant difference among student-, teacher-, and classroom-related, de-motivating factors that discourage Iranian high school students to speak in English

RQ2: Is the teacher related factor is more effective than students related and classroom related factors in de-motivating Iranian high school students to speak in English?

H2: The teacher related factor is more effective than students related and classroom related factors in de-motivating Iranian high school students to speak in English.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants in this study were 100 students from Ashtab, and Emam Sadegh, two different high schools in Tabriz, Iran who were all males and about 14 years old at the first grade. All the
students had taken English classes at school for four years - three years at secondary school and one year at high school. Sampling of the data collecting was randomly done among two different first grade classes at each school.

**Instruments**

The instrument used to measure de-motivating factors is based on Kikuchi and Sakai (2007) de-motivation questionnaire consists of 43 items in a 5 point Likert-type questions about de-motivation. For the reliability and validity of the questionnaire among the pupils of the study, the de-motivation questionnaires were distributed among a sample group and then after collecting data 30 questions were elicited among those 43 questions which were in relation to de-motivational factors in the students learning to speak in English. The observations and data collection of research were quantitative and by collecting the data through papers given to the participants. In every question five choices were inducted which represent the students positive (True & To some extent true), negative (Not true & Mostly not true) and neutral (Not either true or untrue) for motivational components as suggested by Gardner (1985). For each item, the highest degree of de-motivation receives five points and the lowest one point. The students’ scores can range from 30 to 150. Thus, the higher the score, the stronger the de-motivating factor. For the aim of omitting the language understanding problems by the participants, the Farsi version of the scale was given to the participants for data collection in this study so the original questionnaire was translated into the Farsi language. For this, the students could easily read the questions and answer them because of thinking only about the matters which were asked in questions not translating English to Farsi in order to be simple enough to understand.

The questions were classified into nine parts:
1. Teacher’s behaviors 2. Inadequate English skills of teachers 3. Threats to self-worth
8. Inadequate facility 9. Test scores

Based on the reviewed studies on de-motivation, the de-motivating factors in language classes can be classified as: 1. Teacher - related factors 2. Student - related factors a) Experience of failure b) Lack of interest 3. Classroom - related factors a) Characteristics of the classroom b) Classroom environment c) Classroom materials

**Data Analysis**

The present section presents the results of the statistical tests which were used to test the research hypotheses. Before conducting inferential statistics, the normality of the score distributions was checked. As shown in Table 1, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to check for normality of distribution of data on the questionnaire. It was found that the data was normally distributed (p > .05).
As it was intended to assess whether EFL learners’ scores obtained on the de-motivating factors questionnaire would be statistically different with respect to the three factors (the teacher-related factors, student-related factors, and classroom-related factors), pairwise comparisons were made through an inferential statistic called the Tukey Honestly Significant Difference test or Tukey HSD (Wilkinson & the Task Force, 1999).

The Tukey HSD is based on a variation of the *t distribution* that takes into account the number of means being compared. This distribution is called the *studentized range distribution*. Also, because of the fact that the more means that are compared, the more the Type I error rate is inflated, it was decided to set the significance level at 0.01. For this purpose of the study, the means and variances of each group (factor) were, first, computed. They are shown below in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of Mean and Variance Calculation for the Three Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
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<tr>
<td>Teacher-related</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-related</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classroom-related</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.49</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*MSE*, which is the mean of the variances, was then calculated. It was equal to 0.64. Then, the studentized range statistic (*Q*) was computed through the following formula:

\[
Q = \frac{M_i - M_j}{\sqrt{\frac{MSE}{n}}}
\]

For each pair of means, where \(M_i\) is one mean, \(M\) is the other mean, and \(n\) is the number of scores in each group. Finally, for each comparison, \(p\)-value was determined. The degree of freedom was equal to the total number of items minus the number of means. For this study, \(df = 30 - 3 = 27\). The tests for these data are shown in Table 3.
Results (Table 3) show that the mean score of the teacher-related factors was not significantly different \((p < .01)\) from that of the student-related factors. In addition, the difference of the mean scores between the student-related factors and the classroom-related factors did not reach statistical significance. However, the only significant comparison was between the teacher-related factors and the classroom-related factors. Considering the results obtained, it can be said that the first research hypothesis \((H1):\) There is a significant difference among student-, teacher-, and classroom-related, de-motivating factors that discourage Iranian high school students to speak in English) is accepted whereas the second hypothesis \((H2):\) The teacher related factor is more effective than students related and classroom related factors in de-motivating Iranian high school students to speak in English) is rejected. All this suggests that classroom-related factors play an important role in comparison with the other factors.

**Discussion**

The current study intended to investigate the sources of de-motivation among Iranian high school students which discourage them to speak in English. The researcher originally assumed that three de-motivating factors caused those students to lose their motivation to speak in English. The results and findings showed that although the teacher related factors and student related factors are effective on the students de-motivation, the most effective factor is the classroom related factor. Participants at this study strongly declared the shortcomings of schools such as lack of audio and video usage and internet equipment, the classroom crowdedness of students and the idea of having no situation to use English for communication and also its usage out of classroom in real situation were emphasized as de-motivational factors affecting their learning quality which are grouped among the classroom related de-motivational factors.

The findings of this study are in line with the Oxford (1998) study in which she carried out an investigation on 250 American students about their learning experiences. The findings revealed that many shortcomings such as the degree of closure or seriousness of the class and the amount of irrelevant and repetitive subjects in the classroom were the de-motivating factors for the participants of the study. Also this study is in contrast with Gorham and Christophel (1992) studies in which the teacher related factors have played much more important roles in de-motivating the learners of English in comparison with other different factors. Also this study’s findings are in contrast with Lantolf and Genung (2002) studies in which they conducted a case study of graduate student learning Chinese as a foreign language in a summer intensive course. They found that the learner became de-motivated because of the teacher’s authoritative use of power.
In addition, the research findings revealed the teacher related and student related factors were not dominant factors to de-motivate the Iranian first grade high schools student’s learning to speak in English and mostly they suffer from the situation and also the equipments which are used at schools for the learning purposes. Furthermore, the findings pointed out student attitudes about teacher’s behavior, student laziness and motives vary one from one student to another.

Student motivation is also affected by various other factors associated with learning English. One of these factors is prior learning experience and also their background English knowledge which seriously affect their current outlook for the learning purpose of that language. By the time students enter to the high school, they have studied English for at least for 3 years at the secondary school and most of them have learned it out at different English institutes. So it is obvious that those more knowledgeable students with vast number of English words and grammar will be more successful and top students at the same classroom in comparing with other less knowledgeable ones at the same class. Another reason which caused the students to lose their motivation and self-confidence was the attitude toward the compulsory nature of language learning at Iranian schools which are designed by policy makers and also taught by the teachers. The students have to take English for the means of passing their current classroom examinations and then trying to succeed university entrance exams which led them have no desire to learn it for communication.

CONCLUSION
It became evident in this study that the classroom related factors play a major role in de-motivating Iranian high school students in speaking English. It seems that classrooms with lack of suitable equipment and interests make the students boring in the classroom and consequently this leads them to lose their eager and willing toward learning English as a language to speak. In order to overcome to this phenomenon, the classrooms should be equipped and updated with the new learning materials like internet and video sets according to the student’s needs. And also another possible way to enhance student’s motivation is to make the classroom as a friendly environment for their interaction and this will help them to improve their social skills and exert great influence on student’s spirit and willingness to work cooperatively. In summary, having a friendly atmosphere in class is worth the effort as it can undoubtedly help students overcome the factors which are de-motivating them from speaking freely in the classroom.

Limitations of the study
Eventually, it must be stated that like many other studies, this study is not without its limitations. The results of this study were based on a sample population of students from two different high schools in Tabriz, Iran. Therefore, the generalization of the findings may be limited to groups of students with similar characteristics only. It may not be applicable for other populations with different countries, educational system and cultural backgrounds.

Regarding the sample, the number of students participating in this study was small. So in order to have more reliable findings, larger groups of students across different cities are needed.
REFERENCES


ON THE ROLE OF REFLECTIVE THINKING IN COOPERATIVE LEARNING: AN INQUIRY-BASED STUDY OF IRANIAN TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT
Reflection and reflective thinking has come on the scene in the field of language teaching in the recent years. The present study attempted to investigate the familiarity of Iranian EFL teachers with reflective thinking practices in language teaching situation and the main obstacles in way of doing it in the country. Besides, the study attempted to bring to light the effect of reflective thinking in collaborative learning in classroom. Therefore, three instruments including two questionnaires and one interview was put to use by the researchers. The findings of the study showed that Iranian language teachers are not familiar enough with reflective practice and its influence on language learning and teaching and teacher development. Also, the results of the study lit upon the main obstacles in the way of doing reflective teaching in the country. Finally the results of the research brought to light the practical effects of using reflection in fostering collaborative learning in the classroom setting. This study has many implications for EFL teachers, teacher trainers, curriculum developers and sociolinguists.

KEYWORDS: Cooperative Learning, Reflective Thinking, Teacher Development, Teacher Training

INTRODUCTION
It was about one hundred years ago that Dewey (1933) in his classic works gave birth to the term reflective practice in the field of teaching. According to Liston (1987), reflection is a cognitive inquiry and a thoughtful examination of action considering educational knowledge, practices and values in which experiences are analyzed in the context of prior knowledge for the endeavors of finding meaning that will lead to the creation of a new knowledge and to the development of new alternative ways. Dewey, in his classic works, added flesh on teacher education and introduced a reflective approach as an alternative to the existing models of teacher education (1910; 1933). In
his writings, Dewey made a criticism that teacher education is dominated by technical orientation, in which candidate teachers were guided to acquire and master technical skills, and where utmost importance was given on how to teach, without considering principles or philosophy in their practice. It was for the same reason that the term "reflective thinking" became popularized in the literature on teacher education in both pre-service and in-service programs. Reflective thinking skills and its application in teaching plays a vital role in the preparation of many new teachers on one hand and improving the practice of experienced teachers on the other. According to Johnson (2006), entering into constant professional development activities, which is a hallmark of reflective thinking practice, is a key for change to happen because it gives rise to self-directed, collaborative, inquiry based learning that is closely associated with teachers’ classroom lives. In addition, reflective thinking provides enough resources for teachers to analyse, and evaluate their own practices, schools, classroom relationships and context of learning based on which teachers can make decisions and plan for future actions in the classroom and this could lead school, students and teacher to improve (Mrqlova, 2008). On top of that, according to research findings (Glazer, Abbott & Haris, 2004; Kraft, 2002), reflective practices play a role in collaboration and communication in classroom which is an integral part of any language classroom especially in EFL contexts that is largely dependent on classroom interaction. Also, according to Erginel (2006) reflective practices that involve active self-evaluation, effective communication with equal peers and with colleagues, create a supportive interaction for professional growth which in turn let the teachers know how to bring to use the implications of their reflective practice during tutorial courses in real classroom context. He has also asserted that a reflective practice in classroom entails cooperation and teamwork along with autonomy. In spite of the fact that reflective practices can play a crucial role in, pre-service and in-service teacher education in many countries around the world and its importance as an approach to teaching in general and language teaching in particular, it is not known to what extent Iranian EFL teachers are familiar with reflective thinking concepts, strategies and, on top of that, the way they think of reflective thinking in teaching practice. Furthermore, little is done to explore the ways through which reflective practices can help interaction and cooperation in classroom in EFL context, if at all.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

This study is an attempt to delve into Iranian EFL teachers’ attitudes toward reflective teaching and shed light on hindrances in the way of putting it into practice. Furthermore, the role of these practices in cooperative learning is classroom is studied. This part of the study, therefore, presents a report on the theoretical background of reflective teaching and offer the account of empirical studies carried out on this issue.

As it is also touched above, Dewey (1933) expanded an ethical scheme he named reflective morality in which he argued that every act, even an apparently minor action, is potentially of moral significance because it is joined to other actions. For the same reason, the separate actions of a teacher link together to shape behaviours and then habits, which consequently leave a lasting impression on the personality of the teacher, thus moral development becomes a critical element of teacher development and growth. In the past decades, the terms "reflection" and "reflective
reflection" or in general "reflective thinking" has been present in the educational circles and programs on teacher education. Not unlike other fields of study, in the field of language education this idea that teachers must reshape and reconstruct and renew their knowledge of teaching and learning has become in vogue (Farrel, 2007). This knowledge initially came on the scene in teacher education programs for pre-service teachers, then through reflective teaching practices became a permanent part of teacher education (Tedick, 2005). According to Grant and Zeichner (1984) "reflective practice" is in contrast with "routine action". While "routine practice" was considered as a behaviour which is directed by impulse, tradition and authority, reflective practice is considered as a "behaviour" which involves active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or practice in light of grounds that supports it and further consequences to which it leads. Also, reflective thinking has a deep root in Cartesian Philosophy and some social movements such as Feminism which are far beyond the scope of the present research. So, what that comes later are among those practical researches done in the field of reflective thinking and its application in language teaching and learning. Al-Issa and Al-Bulushi (2010) carried out a quantitative study and described the responses of 90 final year ELT- student teachers and eight of their trainers at Sultan Qaboos University in the Sultanate of Oman to study the roles, approaches and strategies used to help the student teachers to reflect on their teaching. A 25-item questionnaire was administered on line to collect the data from the student-teachers and trainers' responses for this aim. The results showed that while trainers have helped the development of student teachers as reflective practitioners, there were specific practices done by the trainers that impede the student teachers to be reflective practitioners and they have negative implications for the preparation of the teachers. Similar to this research was one carried out by Armutcu and Yamen (2010) to explore any change in teacher reflection artistry of 4th grade pre-service teachers in English Language Teaching Department (ELT) an on-going practicum was considering sex and type of instruction as independent variables from quantitative point of view. The study aimed to illustrate their thoughts, feelings and experiences qualitatively. Participants in the study were thirty-seven ELT pre-service teachers chosen non-randomly from both day and night. Twenty-nine of them were females while only eight of them were males. In this study,"Teacher Reflection Scale" (Kayapinar & Erkus, 2009) and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. The results of the study showed that pre-service teachers in ELT department had higher teacher reflection both at the beginnings and through the ends of practicum and no change was observed between these two measures. Also, in one more study, Enisa (2010) investigated the effects of collaborative reflection professional development on EFL teachers. This study was conducted at a preparatory school of an English Medium Turkish University in Istanbul. There were 26 teachers in this school but due to their loaded schedules only three (two female, one male) were able to participate in the study. The data was collected through three qualitative research methods: a) observers' field notes, b) electronic journals and c) notes from the teachers' dialogues. The results of this study showed that collaborative reflection might have positive effects on EFL teachers' teaching and foster teacher dialogue.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Taking into account the issues mentioned above, the current study is an attempt to answer the following questions:
1- Are Iranian EFL teachers with knowledge of different dimensions of reflective thinking?
2- What are main obstacles in the way of doing reflective teaching in Iranian setting?
3- Does reflective teaching help cooperative language learning?

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study was to investigate the knowledge of Iranian EFL teachers about reflective teaching. The second aim was to explore whether any hindrances exist in the way of Iranian EFL teachers to know about the concept of reflective teaching and its practice as a reflective practitioner. Thirdly, the effect of reflective practices in cooperative teaching and learning is investigated. Research designs in studies are vitally important because they, in large part, dictate the type of research design used, the sample size and sampling scheme employed, and the type of instruments administered as well as the data analysis techniques (i.e., statistical or qualitative) used (Mackey and Gass, 2006). Therefore, the design of the study is an inquiry-based qualitative one in which all questions of the research are looked into three different qualitative open ended questionnaire.

Participants

The participants were 100 EFL teachers selected through convenient sampling since the participants were available to the researcher. The teachers were from both Language Colleges and universities in the city of Tehran, Iran. 86 of them had M.A in TEFL and 14 of them had PhD in TEFL or English language and literature. With regard to gender, they were 91 male and 9 female teachers whose age ranged from 28 to 63 years old. Additionally, concerning their teaching experience, they had 5 to 32 years of service. For bringing to light different dimensions of the third question we selected 3 teachers performing reflective techniques and 3 teachers unpractised with reflective techniques in classes of whom we selected 20 students respectively. These teachers were selected purposively based on the results of the first and the second questions. To achieve the homogenous data all these 6 teachers were teaching at intermediate level in different language colleges.

Instrumentation

Three different instruments were used in this study. For the first question, an open-ended questionnaire consisting of 29 items and 5 dimensions was adapted and adopted from Akbari, et al (2010) the validity and reliability of which was considered through a pilot study. The questionnaire brings to light the different dimensions of reflective teaching practice. The first dimension of the questionnaire, 'practical element', includes items that deal with the tools and the actual practices of reflection such as journal writing, lesson reports, audio and video recordings, observations, etc. Second dimension of the questionnaire, 'cognitive element', is concerned with teacher's efforts aimed at professional development such as performing small-scale classroom research project (action research), attending conferences and workshops and reading the professional literatures are among the behaviours are included in this dimension. 'Learner dimension' or 'affective dimension' is the third in the questionnaire. It encompasses the reflection of the teacher on his/her students, the learning of the students, and their emotions. It also deals with the teachers’ reflection on cultural linguistic backgrounds of the students, interests and
developmental readiness for lessons. ‘Meta-cognitive dimension which is the fourth one which touches teachers and their reflections on their own beliefs and personality, their emotional and affective character and teacher's reflections on the effects of their personalities on teaching practices. The last dimension, the critical one, consists of items referring to the socio-political aspects of teaching and teacher's reflections upon teaching issues. The items of this dimension deal with teacher's reflections on political aspects of teaching practice and teaching topics related to race, gender and social class in the classroom context. The second instrument used in the research was an open ended interview aiming at uncovering the most prominent challenges and obstacles in the way of doing reflective practices in Iran. The third instrument was a questionnaire adopted from Mrglova (2008) to compare the cooperative learning in classes with reflective teachers and those with teachers unfamiliar with reflective practices.

**Procedure**
The first questionnaire was distributed among the participants through face to face methods. The date collected through interview - the second instrument- were also transcribed, coded and categorized. All interviews were audiotaped. For the sake of the third question we distributed our third instrument among 20 students with their teachers conversant with reflective practices and 20 students with their teachers unfamiliar with reflective practices to compare the amount of cooperative learning and teaching in respective classes.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Results of the First Questionnaire**
As mentioned above, in order to explore Iranian language teachers' familiarity with reflective teaching practices, qualitative data are collected and analysed, the results of which are mentioned below:

*Familiarity with Practical Dimension of Reflective Thinking*
Practical dimension is concerned with the instruments teachers put to use for reflection practice. Several instruments such as ‘portfolios’, ‘journals’, ‘audio and video recording’, ‘observation’ can be employed for reflective practices. The results of this section brought to light the fact that only 19 percent of Iranian EFL teachers have a file where they keep their accounts of teaching for reviewing purposes. Besides, only 23 percent of teachers talk about their classroom experiences with their colleagues and seek their advice/feedback. In addition, 22 percent of these teachers write about the accomplishments/failures of the lesson or talk about the lesson to a colleague, after each lesson. Too, only 10 percent of teachers discuss practical/theoretical issues with their colleagues. Furthermore, 25 percent of teachers observe other teacher's classrooms to learn about their efficient practices. And finally, 9 percent of teachers like their colleagues to observe their teaching and comment on their performance.

*Familiarity with Cognitive Dimension of Reflective Thinking*
Cognitive dimension of reflective teaching is concerned with teachers' attempts aimed at professional developments. Conducting small-scale classroom research projects (i.e. action research), attending conferences and workshops related to teachers' field of study, and reading the
professional literature are among the behaviours included in this dimension of reflective teaching. The results of the study showed that 38 percent of Iranian EFL teachers read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve their classroom performance. 23 percent of teachers participate in workshops/conferences related to teaching/learning issues, 12 percent think of writing articles based on their own classroom experiences, 24 percent look at journal articles or search the Internet to see what the recent developments in their profession, 8 percent carry out small-scale research activities in classes to become better informed of learning/teaching processes and finally 13 percent of them think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them.

Familiarity with Affective Dimension of Reflective Thinking
Affective dimension is includes items dealing with teachers’ reflection on his/her students; the way they learn, emotional behaviours of the students and the way they react emotionally in their classes. Learner dimension also includes reflection on linguistic and cultural background of the students and their interests. The results of the study showed that 17 percent of Iranian teachers talk to their students to learn about their learning styles and preferences. Also, 29 percent of teachers talk to their students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests and abilities. Also, only 17 percent of them ask their students whether they like a teaching task or not.

Familiarity with Meta-Cognitive Dimension of Reflective Thinking
Meta-cognitive dimension deals with teachers and their reflections on their own beliefs, attitudes, and personalities. Moreover, it considers emotional character of teachers and the way they define themselves as a teacher. The results of this section showed that only 22 percent of Iranian EFL teachers think about their teaching philosophy and the way it affects their teaching. Also, 17 percent of them think of the ways their biography or their background affects the way they define themselves as a teacher. Too, 49 percent of them think of the meaning or significance of their job as a teacher and 29 percent try to find out which aspects of teaching provide them with a sense of satisfaction. Besides, 69 percent of them think about their strengths and weaknesses as a teacher. Finally, 28 percent of them think of their consistencies and contradictions that occur in their classroom practices.

Familiarity with Critical Dimension of Reflective Thinking
Critical dimension refers to socio-political aspects of education and reflection upon them. It takes the broader aspects of society into consideration when defining reflective practice. Critical dimension of reflective teaching associates teaching with its broader social and cultural context. Teachers reflect on political facets of their teaching and issues such as race, gender, social class and how they can empower students for their social live. The results of the study showed that only 9 percent of teachers think about instances of social injustice in their own surroundings and try to discuss them in their classes, 6 percent of them think of ways to enable students to change their social lives in fighting poverty, discrimination, and gender bias, 11 percent of them include less-discussed topics, such as old age, AIDS, discrimination against women and minorities, and poverty in their teaching sessions, 9 percent of them think about the political aspects of their teaching and the way they may affect their students’ political views, 9 percent of them think of ways they can promote tolerance and democracy in the class and in the society in general and
finally 14 percent of them think of outside social events that may influence their teaching inside the class.

Results of the interview
The second instrument used in the research was an open ended interview aiming at uncovering the most prominent challenges and obstacles in the way of doing reflective practices in Iran. The Results of this section were audiotaped, transcribed, analyzed and then categorized in the following table, the results of which brings to light the main obstacles in the way of doing reflective teaching in Iranian setting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Obstacles</th>
<th>Main Codes of Obstacles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Obstacles</td>
<td>Lack of time for reflection</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past experiences (unfamiliarity with reflection in high school, teacher training centers or universities and both pre-service and in-service courses)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unawareness of worth and importance of reflection</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Negative attitude towards students roles</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Lack of writing skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>Affective obstacles</td>
<td>Fear of criticism in collective discussion</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Lack of self-critical mind</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Low tolerance for being criticized by others</td>
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<td>Lack of self-confidence for being observed</td>
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<td>Structural obstacles</td>
<td>Teachers workload</td>
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<td>Weak in-service courses (lack of in-service programs)</td>
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<td>Outdated views about teaching</td>
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<td>Physical environment of schools</td>
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<td>Low budgeting and non-facile research condition</td>
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</table>

Results of the Second Questionnaire
For the sake of the third question, we selected 20 students in a class with reflective teachers and 20 students in a class with non-reflective teachers. To select the classes with reflective and non-reflective teachers, purposive sampling was done but to select the students in each class, simple random sampling was exercised. A questionnaire adopted form Mrglova (2008) was distributed among students and the following result were obtained. The aim of this section was to shed light on the role of reflective teaching practices on cooperative language learning in class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class with Reflective Teacher</th>
<th>Class with Non-Reflective Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90% of Ss enjoy attending the class</td>
<td>80 % of students enjoy attending the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% of Ss view most of their classmates as friend</td>
<td>55% of Ss view most of their classmates as friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% of Ss can cooperate with anybody in class</td>
<td>45% of Ss can cooperate with anybody in class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5% of Ss think of their mates as rude to them</td>
<td>30% of Ss think of their mates as rude to them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10% of Ss do not like some of their classmates</td>
<td>35% of Ss do not like some of their classmates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50% of Ss can do their homework independently</td>
<td>50% of Ss can do their homework independently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20% of Ss feel bad when they do not know the answer</td>
<td>65% of Ss feel bad when they do not know the answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75% of Ss want to be the first in the class</td>
<td>80% of Ss want to be the first in the class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% of Ss believe that relationships in the class are very good</td>
<td>45% of Ss believe that relationships in the class are very good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% of Ss believe that they have a good relation with their teacher</td>
<td>65% of Ss believe that they have a good relation with their teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>95% of Ss like to participate in all discussions</td>
<td>55% of Ss like to participate in all discussions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30% of Ss like explanation of grammar, individual work and un-grouped class activity</td>
<td>55% of Ss like explanation of grammar, individual work and un-grouped class activity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

Concerning the first question which investigated the extent to which Iranian EFL teachers are familiar with concepts and practices of reflective thinking in teaching language, the results of the study showed that almost all of them are not versed enough with the concepts touched in the questionnaire. In the case of the first factor in the questionnaire, namely the practical dimension of reflective practice, the findings are not in line with Farrell (2007) who suggests language teachers come together in teacher development groups to reflect and this reflection helps them complement each other’s strengths and compensate for each other’s limitations and weaknesses. He also stated that teachers participating in these discussions stimulate each other to articulate their thoughts about their career and this in turn helps them to grow professionally together.

Besides, the findings of the first questionnaire are not in congruence with McDonough (1994) that maintains teachers who write regularly about their teaching experiences and events can become aware of their behaviours and underlying attitudes. With regard to second factor of the first questionnaire aimed at investigating teachers attempt for professional development, we see that these teachers are not at home with concepts such as action research and workshops and etc. These findings are not in line with Rock and Levin (2000) and Chant et al. (2004) who studied the intersection of reflection and action research in pre-service teaching and they stated that involving pre-service teachers in action research makes them more aware of students’ learning, classroom complexity, and their own agency as teachers. They also suggested that teachers are more likely to become reflective, critical and analytical when engaging in research actions projects. On top of that, Harmer (2003) discussed conferences, meetings and workshops allow teachers to know about the latest developments in the field of teaching, participate in investigative workshops and discuss about current issues in theory and practice. Participants in such conferences converse with each other about teaching problems and seek some solutions. The third factor of the first questionnaire dealt with teachers’ reflecting on his/her students, how they learn, and emotional behaviours of students and the way they react emotionally in their classes. The results of the teacher’s responses to this factor indicated that they are not also well up in this factor while understanding individual student learning is crucial for every teacher and she/he should focus on students’ needs, interests and abilities. Kagan (1992) discusses a “critical lack of knowledge about pupils” and calls on teacher educators to assist pre-service teachers focus on students’ needs and interest. Reflection can be helpful for teachers to recognize and understand their students’ styles and preferences emotional behaviours. The fourth dimension of the questionnaire was concerned with teachers and their reflections on their own beliefs, attitudes, and personality. It also dealt with emotional character of teachers and the way they define themselves as a teacher. In spite of the fact that teachers own image influences his career in a great extent, the results of this factor were also frustrating. In one study, for example, Johnson (1994) focused on pre-service English as second language teachers, and she found that images from formal language learning experiences influenced these teachers’ images on themselves as teachers, teaching, and the way they perceive their instructional practices. These findings indicated that the pre-service teachers tended to project their role in teaching and their instruction based on their experiences as a language learner. Teachers tended to project their role in teaching and their instruction based on their experiences as a language learner. Results of teacher’s responses to the latest questionnaire were also incongruent with literature in favour of reflective
practice. These teachers were little au courant with socio-political aspects of education and reflection upon them. Bartlett (1990) suggested that in order for teachers to become critical reflective practitioners they have to go beyond technicalities of teaching and think beyond the need to improve their instructional techniques. He believes that critical reflection can locate teaching in its broader social and cultural contexts. This reflection will able teachers connect the classroom world to the outside world and both students and teachers made aware of socio-political aspects of their teaching. In the same line, Webb (2001) raises attention to the necessity for guidance for practitioner to question his/her beliefs on ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic classes during reflection so that transformation towards equity and Multiculturalism could take place. Otherwise, he argues that the practitioner could be negatively affected by reflection, since s/he will focus on technical issues and his/her mainstream beliefs, and consequently, presumptions of individuals will remain unchanged. In fact, in his argument, Webb points out the necessity for reflection to move beyond technical level, and the importance of encouragement for critical reflection and its possible impacts on education for transformation.

Concerning the second question, the results of the interviews demonstrated that personal and structural obstacles are the main barriers of practicing reflection and reflective teaching. Personal obstacles include lack of time for reflection, teachers’ past experiences, lack of awareness on importance or worth of reflection, teachers’ attitude toward the role of students, lack of writing skills and teachers’ affective obstacles. Lack of time was mentioned by most of the teachers as an obstacle. According to Day’s (1999) research, time and opportunities are the main prerequisites needed to develop complex reflective skills for teachers. The teachers’ past experiences was also mentioned by some interviewees. According to Freeman (1992), the character of the people in general and the teachers in particular is under the influence of past experiences. Teaching methods of their teachers and teachers’ behaviour, character and the way of managing the class can influence prospect teachers. He also stated that these past experiences gleaned through teachers’ observations as a student function as a guide for them in their teaching and determine the way they approach what they do in their classes. Affective barriers were mentioned by some participants in the interviews. These results are in line with Farrell (2004) suggesting that in order to practice reflective teaching teachers need a sense of security. Structural obstacles were also mentioned. Finding a solution these kinds of obstacles is outside the limits of this study and they remain for further study.

The results of the third question, as it is indicated in table 2, shows that reflective practices fosters collaborative teaching and learning in the classroom because it helps teachers and students both, to shape their values and their identities and this in turn brings about good cooperation and collaboration in class (Hall & Hall, 1988). Besides, reflective practices help students to distinguish between “their public display, their blind spots, their dreamer spots, their untapped reservoir and their unknown potential which all in all result in more collaboration and more interaction in class (Easen 1985). Also, reflective practice help teachers to change their perceptions of pupils and therefore student are given more roles and more autonomy in interaction and classroom activities (Pollard, et al, 2005). Everybody will definitely agree with Claxton (1999) and Katz (1995) “that the way that children think of themselves in school will directly influence their approach to learning. The review of the literature shows that reflective
teaching practices help students to develop positive self-concepts among students (Richards, 2008). Reflective teachers provide more opportunities where student’s qualities can be appreciated, and these qualities are improved through group works and collaboration (Pollard, et al 2005). Besides, according to Mrglova (2008), reflective teaching techniques, exercised by a reflective practitioner can help the betterment of students’ attitude towards family, school, peers at school and the whole community, which this in turn fosters a sense of collaboration and cooperation in social settings. Reflective practices also change students' perception of their teachers. Whenever positive classroom climate is to be established, children’s attitudes towards teachers are changed positively.

CONCLUSION
The present study was an attempt to bring to light the amount of familiarity of Iranian EFL teachers with reflective thinking practices, the obstacles in the way of this practice and possible effects of reflective teaching in cooperative learning. The findings of the study showed that a great percent of participants are neither familiar with different dimensions of reflection nor they put it to use while teaching. Also, the results of the study brought to light principal obstacles in the way of doing reflective practice. Finally, the study showed that reflective practice fosters cooperative language learning in classroom context. The results of the study are then discussed from a variety of perspectives. Besides, these results can be discussed from the Piaget’s theory of cognitive developments; it is further on than the limits of this study, however. They remain for further study, therefore. The current study has implication for EFL and ESL teachers, teacher-training centers and sociolinguists.

REFERENCES


DOES INQUIRY-BASED LEARNING ENHANCE STUDENTS’ CRITICAL THINKING: A CASE STUDY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study aimed to investigate the relationship between inquiry-based learning and critical thinking. Inquiry-based learning is an approach which starts with questioning and leads to investigating an issue or idea. A well-organized inquiry-based learning can promote information literacy. Popular discussions on education as well as recent findings have come to the same conclusion that in the present society, new methods of learning and engaging students are required. The aims of this study necessitated the analysis of data produced by 40 advanced Iranian EFL learners who were randomly selected from different universities in Isfahan. The participants were asked to fill out two questionnaires (to see the extent to which they think critically) in the first phase of the study. In the next phase, the participants were divided into two groups as control and experimental group. Inquiry-based learning was taught to the experimental group, whereas traditional method was employed for the control group. The results of this quantitative investigation showed a significant relationship between inquiry-based learning and critical thinking. Among the implications of the study, which could be used by teachers and practitioners, could be that one possible way of having critical thinkers could be exposing them to inquiry-based instruction.

KEYWORDS: Information literacy, EFL learners, Inquiry-Based learning, Critical thinking

INTRODUCTION

Inquiry-Based Learning
Inquiry-based learning (IBL) is an approach, in which students have control over their learning. It begins with questioning and leads to investigation into a reliable issue or idea. Followers of this constructivist approach begin with questioning, gathering and analyzing information, creating solutions, making decisions, justifying conclusions and taking action. In other words, students construct their own recognition about the world.
A well-organized inquiry-based learning can expand problem-solving abilities and develop skills for lifelong learning. Researches have shown this approach is a procedure to motivate students. Students work cooperatively to solve problems and the depth of understanding is greater than other teaching approaches. Students learn better when they are at the center of their own learning progress. Inquiry-based learning is a learning process through questions stemmed from the interests, curiosities, and experiences of the learner. When findings generate from our own questions, curiosities, and experiences, learning is an organic and motivating process that is enjoyable from inside.

IBL is a flexible approach which is open-ended to the students' feedback. Students are supposed to benefit from their own inquiry and build information accordingly. IBL should not necessarily be appeared in the context of assessment. Group activities and peer works can be good examples of IBL contexts. The challenge for IBL in opposition with the traditional methods is embedded in meaningful learning to facilitate deep understanding of the students. (McKinney, 2010)

IBL covers a number of other approaches to teaching and learning. Sub-branches of inquiry-based learning include: (a) problem-based learning: learning that starts with an ill-structured problem or it can be a case-study, (b) project-based learning: in which students make a project or presentation as an indication of their understanding, (c) design-based learning: learning through working for design of a solution to a problem, and (d) constructivism: learning through the physical construction of a concrete object in the real world.

Some studies have shown that inquiry-based learning (IBL) is very helpful and beneficial in promoting different learning outcomes such as deep thinking and the ability to apply knowledge and reasoning skills when compared to the traditional educational approach (Chinn, Duncan, & Hmelo-Silver, 2007).

It worth mentioning there are two models for IBL. The first one is the model in which the students are aware of the process of IBL and the second one is the type of IBL in which students are not aware of the process of IBL. They do what the instructor says without knowing the process of IBL. This study belongs to the second group in which students participate in the study, answer questionnaires, receive pretest and posttest, and participate in experimental and control group with having information about IBL and traditional method of learning.

**Critical Thinking**

The term critical thinking (CT) can be defined as the ability to think rationally and logically. Critical thinking is a process of actively involving, analyzing, studying, and surveying the problem to come up to a final conclusion. People with self-guided minds attempt to justify at the highest level in a fair-minded way. They want to decrease the power of society tendencies and use principles and logic to strengthen thinking.

Critical thinking is believed to be the cornerstone of higher education, but it is very difficult to measure it because critical thinking is not a stable outcome. It means that an individual is consistently questioning about different assumptions, creating more information, and exploring alternatives (Brookfield, 1987).
A professional critical thinker asks essential and critical questions to ferret out a possible solution, collects a variety of concrete and abstract ideas from different sources, infers reasonable and logical connection among different opinions, and solves the problem through systematic gathering of information. Some researchers have suggested different skills for the development and promotion of critical thinking. These skills can be mentioned as the following: analyzing, applying standards, discriminating, information seeking, logical reasoning, predicting, and transforming knowledge.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As contrasted with more traditional forms of teaching and learning, inquiry emphasizes the process of learning in order to develop deep understanding in students in addition to the intended acquisition of content knowledge and skills. Popular discussions on education as well as recent findings in the learning sciences came to the same conclusion. Instructors should apply various methods for different societies in different times. The model of education of 20th century classrooms was effective for that era of human history, but the society we now live in requires new methods of thinking about the way of learning and engaging teaching. Teachers are now faced with the challenge that former definitions of learning is no longer beneficial in our present world where what we know is less important that what we are able to do with knowledge for various usages.

According to the National Science Education Standards (NRC, 1996), inquiry is an important teaching method in science. It includes various classroom activities, such as creating questions, examining and observing text books and other sources of information, analyzing data, synthesizing different sources of information, and communicating the results. Audet and Jordan (2005) expressed that teachers play the role of facilitator who can guide students to ask questions, state their opinions, and make discoveries in search for new understanding of science. Cowan and Cipriani (2009) even introduced their first-graders into scientific inquiry through an arts-integrated, pattern-searching approach to build a deeper understanding of science content and processes. In fact, the scientific inquiry is congruent to the concept of information literacy, because they both emphasize the reasoning and critical thinking.

A good definition that can be understood more easily is that critical thinking is the correct assessing of statements (Ennis, 1962). This definition suffers from creative aspects of critical thinking. The following definition can be better to minimize confusion in communication. Critical thinking is a kind of reasonable thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do. In other hand, for being reasonable and logical to know what to do, a person must be able to identify conclusions and reasons, judge the quality of argument and acceptability of its reasons and evidences, defend a position on an issue, ask questions to clarify the problem, be open-minded, draw conclusion with caution.

However, Chang and Mao (1998) investigated the effects of an inquiry-based teaching in science and received the meaningful higher achievement scores only at the comprehensive test, not at the factual level. National Research Council (2000) also claimed that inquiry-based teaching may not
be appropriate for the goal which made students to memorize information. In addition, an inquiry-based study conducted by Brickman, Gormally, Armstrong, and Hallar (2009) found that in inquiry students' literacy and research skills have improved, but these students gained less self-confidence in scientific abilities compared to the traditional students. Furthermore, the roots of both inquiry-based and problem-based approaches can be traced back to the progressive movement, especially to John Dewey’s belief (Audet & Jordan, 2005; Delisle, 1997; Savery, 2006). Their common characteristics included learner-centered, active learning, as well as real and ill-structured problems. By the same token, research results of inquiry learning were also found in the problem-based learning studies (PBL). Reviewing problem-based learning research from the past 30 years, Hung, Jonassen, and Liu (2008) concluded that PBL curricula had better knowledge application and clinical reasoning skills, but performed less well in basic or factual knowledge acquisition than traditional curriculum. On the other hand, Strobel and Barneveld (2009) used a qualitative approach to find the effectiveness of PBL. They expressed that problem-based learning was more effective for long-term retention, skill development and satisfaction of students and teachers, while traditional approaches were more effective and useful for short-term retention.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

The aim of the study was to find an answer to the following research question:

Does inquiry-based learning enhance EFL learners’ critical thinking?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

A sample of 40 advanced EFL learners was randomly selected from different universities in Isfahan, Iran. The participants were chosen from English majors who were advanced university students at Khorasgan, Najafabad, and Isfahan University. They aged between 25 and 35 and included both genders. These academic students were all native Persian speakers from different affiliations. They had normal economic status and were from different geographical locations in Iran. They were divided to two groups of experimental and control group. In this study there was an experimental group consisting of 20 participants and a control group with the same number of participants. The study became feasible due to existence of experimental and control group, inquiry-based learning treatment, critical thinking for pretest and posttest, and randomly selected participants.

**Materials and Instruments**

In order to explore the effect of IBL on CT, 40 participants from different universities filled in two different questionnaires regarding their way of learning and thinking. These two questionnaires were derived from the Internet and their reliability was found to be satisfactory (.81 and .93, respectively) by three EFL experts while they were checking their face and content validity. TOEFL test was used to measure the level of proficiency of the students. TOEFL test was used to neutralize the possible effect of background knowledge of the students. This test included 20 reading comprehension tests which were to be answered by two groups of the
students. There was another questionnaire to measure students' level of CT. It is a deductive test for critical thinking and each question belongs to two different categories. The first one is Delphi conceptualization and the second one is traditional categorization. The questionnaires were devised in Persian (learners' mother tongue) not English. This is because of the main format of these valid questionnaires and misunderstandings which may happen due to lack of the exact correspondence between expressions in two languages. The first questionnaire asked students to answer the questions according to the style of their learning. It asked about the expectations the students may have about themselves or the way they learn more easily. This questionnaire revealed the amount or level of inquiry-based learning in each student. The second questionnaire asked questions which led to the level of critical thinking. The questions were completely challenging in the way that they required concentration and critical thinking.

**Procedure**

The participants were divided into two equal groups. Each group had 20 members that belonged to experimental group and control group. Before applying the experiments, TOEFL tests were given to 40 members of two groups to ensure that the students were at the same level of proficiency. Then critical thinking questionnaires were given to the 40 members of two groups to ascertain that there were not meaningful differences between critical thinking levels of these students. Afterwards, the first group of student was taught reading comprehension by an ordinary traditional method and the second group was taught reading comprehension by inquiry-based models of learning for one semester, which was about 15 sessions. In this experimental group, most of the learning responsibility was put on the learners’ shoulders. After three months, when the semester finished, critical thinking questionnaires were given to all of the students again to measure the effect of traditional method and inquiry-based method on the amount critical thinking development.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In this study, the researcher aimed to answer the question of whether IBL enhanced critical thinking or not. To answer this question, quantitative evaluation using *t* test was employed.

| Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Pretest and Posttest for IBL Learners |
|-----------------------------|-------|-----|-----|-----|
| Groups                      | N    | Mean | SD  | SEM |
| IBL Pretest                 | 20   | 9.30 | 2.886 | .645 |
| IBL Posttest                | 20   | 14.70| 2.203 | .493 |

As it is displayed, for inquiry-based learners the mean of pretest was 9.30, but the mean of posttest was 14.70. So the process of inquiry-based learning increased critical thinking during 15 sessions, as this is also shown in the figure below. This figure shows the mean of pretest and posttest of the experimental group.
The dark box indicates the mean of the pretest and the light box indicates the mean of the posttest for experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-6.652</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-5.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results of the \( t \) test analysis presented in Table 2, there was a significant difference between the two tests (\( t = -6.652, p = .000 < .05 \)).

Some studies were done regarding the implication of IBL. One of the studies discussed about the integration of PBL which is a kind of IBL and General Studies for primary schools. This research was done successfully due to having positive effects on information literacy, educational skills, and attitude towards the use of Internet among students.

Another research was done to explore the relationship between engagement in the classroom and active learning. The purpose of this research was to provide quantitative evidence for the effect of problem-based learning on academic performance and students' engagement. The results of the study showed that students in IBL groups were much motivated to take the responsibility of the process of learning.

One of the studies discussed about the integration of PBL which is a kind of IBL and General Studies for primary schools. This research was done successfully due to having positive effects on information literacy, educational skills, and attitude towards the use of Internet among students. Another study was conducted to use inquiry-based cellulose laboratory in promoting inquiry in undergraduate students in biotechnology. The results indicated that students gained the ability to measure cellulose activity after inquiry-based laboratory activities. The students found more willingness and enthusiastic in doing given activities than in traditional classes. Another
A research was done to explore the relationship between engagement in the classroom and active learning. The purpose of this research was to provide quantitative evidence for the effect of problem-based learning on academic performance and students' engagement. The results of the study showed that students in IBL groups were much motivated to take the responsibility of the process of learning.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study was to explore whether IBL increased the amount of critical thinking in the participants. The researcher performed an experiment to find the answer to this question. The questionnaire of critical thinking acted as pretest before treatment and posttest after treatment. Total scores of pretest were compared to the total scores of posttests. The correlation formula of this comparison answered the second research question. Inquiry-based learning can enhance critical thinking.

To recap what was mentioned previously, it can be implied that upcoming methods of teaching and text books should consider student-centered ways of presenting lessons. It is a good idea to the teachers to use new methods which motivate students to become curious and ask about details of the context. Teachers can promote students' CT to guide them toward IBL. Text books are excellent devices to increase students' motivation to not to be dependent to the teachers. Text books can be promising sources to release students from teacher-centered approaches.

Limitations of the Study

In every research, the researcher will be faced with some limitations. This study also had some problems that must be controlled in order to not to reach to deadlock. One of the limitations was the choice of the material that should be taught to the students in the control and experimental groups. Not every reading text was appropriate to be taught according to these two different methods. There are lots of educational books in the libraries but a few of them are challenging enough to be taught in IBL method. The subject of readings was really important in a way that it was to be interesting, attractive, and challenging enough to be taught to the students in IBL method.

It is true that IBL is very different from traditional methods, but teachers themselves are important factors who can have great influence on the amount of learning. Each teacher has an especial method for teaching. On the other hand, some of the teachers can convey the meaning of something in the best way. Some teachers are born with the intrinsic talent of teaching. These teachers are more successful in transferring the material to the students. This can be considered as another limitation for this study because the two teachers who were teaching experimental and control group might not be professional the same as each other. The educational level of the participants was another limitation that the researcher was faced with. IBL is not a method that can be presented freely in schools as a routine. Advanced students are more dependent and willing to use IBL, but lower level students tend to use teacher-centered methods because they direct the way of their own learning. With this point in mind, choosing appropriate participant was difficult. Not every student could take part in this study.
REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION ON YOUNG KURDISH LEARNER ON THE LEARNING ENGLISH SPEAKING AS SECOND LANGUAGE IN IRAN

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ABSTRACT
Needless to say, for various well-known reasons, the ability to speak English is now an important desire for learners all over the world. Therefore, exploring the impact of different factors on learning this skill seems essential and worthwhile; one of these factors is motivation. This factor has been under the focus of lots of researches in the world, and many study have been conducted to investigate the effect of it on learning in general and the forth skills of language in particular. Similarly, in Iran, motivation and its effect on learning language has received a great deal of attention; nonetheless, the studies to focus on its effect on just speaking skill are very rare (if any). Furthermore, very few studies (if any) have addressed this issue with Kurdish students in Iran whose standard language is Persian. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to find out whether or not there is a statistically significant effect of motivation in Iranian Kurdish senior high school students' speaking ability. To this end, an ex post facto research design has been employed. This research was conducted with a total number of 90 female senior high school students studying at Kosar high school in Kermansha, Iran. The instruments of this research are motivation questionnaire to measure the students’ motivation in learning English and speaking test through prepared talk. The result of this research shows that there is a significant effect of students’ motivation on speaking ability. Therefore, the writer suggests that English teacher should maintain students’ motivation in order to improve students’ speaking ability.

KEYWORDS: Motivation, Speaking, EFL students
INTRODUCTION

Many factors such as attitudes, anxiety, age difference, personality factors, cognitive factors, educational program, the kind of textbooks, the way instructions are implemented, and many others are at work in how fast and how well learners learn a new language skill in a second or foreign language learning setting. One of these factors is undoubtedly motivation. This factor is one of the most complicated variables which account for individual differences in learning a language and has been dealt with from a variety of perspectives. It has been considered by Gardner (2001) as a key factor in following anything in our lives. For many other scholars, it is treated as the most contributing factor for explaining EFL learners’ failure or success and their crucial performance predictors. It is also a tool to provide a source of energy that is responsible for why learners decide to make an effort to learn another language and how long they are going to continue it (Brewster & Fager, 2002; Mori, 2002). On the account given so far, motivation can play an essential role in learning all four language skills. The skill of our interest in this study is speaking.

Chaney (1998, p. 13) defines speaking as “the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbol in a variety of contexts. Most of the time through speaking, we communicate, share our knowledge and information, and establish and maintain social relationships with others. Hence, the ability to communicate is the main aim of many foreign language teaching programs, and as a result, speaking has been given priority over other skills. The importance of this skill is conspicuously reflected in Nazara’s (1996) idea, which considers the “speaker” of a language as the people who know that language, and the others as foreign language learners who are primarily interested in learning to speak.

Spoken English is very important for all levels of learners as we could judge a person’s English competence and his English knowledge through his speaking competence. According to Bygate (1987), speaking needs more attention due to its usefulness in the learner’s current and future lives. Therefore, it is very important for the learners to learn how to speak English.

Needless to say, for various well-known reasons, the ability to speak English is now an important desire for learners all over the world. They would like to be able to express their ideas through English in daily activities. However, most of them find speaking English so formidable and arduous that after spending different courses, they end up with the lack of ability to express their ideas orally. Hinkel (2005) argues that although speaking is most often used to communicate by people, it is the most complex and difficult skill to master.

I have personally witnessed many high school teachers claimed their students mostly have limited mastery of speaking. Teachers often observe in their classrooms that students prefer to be silent; they avoid asking and answering questions in English.

There are two main reasons why some students are not proficient in speaking English. Firstly, their native language is considered as the main medium of communication and also in the classroom. Learning English is not much emphasized and therefore, students tend to neglect the importance of learning English as they have limited exposure to this language. Secondly, the
development of speaking skills has not been greatly emphasized in the curriculum where more priority is given to the teaching of reading, writing and grammatical skills.

Some high school teachers believe that, in order for their students to improve their speaking skill, they need to make their students motivated and bring them into interesting class. But how much this claim is valid need to be investigated through research. Therefore, this study aims to find out whether or not there is a significant effect of motivation in learning English on Iranian Kurdish senior high school students’ speaking ability.

As mentioned earlier, this study is done with Iranian Kurdish senior high school students. In Iran, English is one of the compulsory subjects for junior and senior high school students. However, after many years of learning the language students still could not achieve an acceptable level of ability in English. Depdiknas (2006) states that the objective of teaching English at senior high school is that the students are expected to be able to develop communicative competence both in written and in spoken form to achieve informational literacy level. It means that the students have to be able to master a productive skill, like speaking skill. Speaking is perceived as a measurement of people’s language mastery. Senior high school students in Iran only have two or three learning hours of English per week in school to accomplish this objective.

In doing this study, I looked at one of the existing internal factors that could help educators improve learners’ speaking ability. I believe that by having a clear picture of the effect of motivation on speaking ability, course designer, practitioners, and teachers will better allow themselves to diversify their methods of motivating and teaching L2 students.

In the literature of motivation, different classifications have been proposed, among which intrinsic/extrinsic and integrative/instrumental are very popular. Intrinsic motivation, which is important in promoting success, refers to the motivation inside a person with no reward except the activity itself, while extrinsic motivation refers to the motivation outside a person with an expectation of reward from outside (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010; Zubairi & Sarudin, 2009). Gardner and Lambert (1972) argued that integrative motivation means the desire to find out about the culture of SL and learn it to communicate with its members to become a part of that society, this is different from instrumental motivation that refers to the motivation to acquire SL as a means of promoting a career or job or reading technical texts.

Statement of the problem

In spite of including English as an obligatory course by Ministry of Education in Iran, the traditional methods being currently used to teach English at high schools fail to enable students to improve their speaking and enhance their language. High school teachers often complain about the low level of their learners in speaking English language. This may be due to such internal factors as the motivation.

Dörnyei (2001) argues that motivation provides learners the primary stimuli for initiating second language learning, and later motivation become the driving force for learners to be persistent in tedious learning process, so that learners may be able to complete long-term goals if there is
sufficient motivation. The theory implies that motivation is one of the determining factors in developing a second language. In particular, motivation seems to be very important in the development of speaking skill. One who has strong motivation might take a part in speaking. It can be inferred that one might speak well in English as a result of motivation which pushes to speak. So, motivation is claimed to have a main role in developing speaking.

But with regards to Iranian Kurdish senior high school students' speaking skill, what is the role of motivation? Teachers here teach their students hoping that at the end of the course, the students end up with basic skills and knowledge in English to enable them to communicate orally. To put it another way, after finishing the book, it is expected that the students based on their level of ability speak and understand simple spoken English and respond to it appropriately. However, not many teachers especially those in the high schools have a good understanding of how motivation can affect students' learning of speaking skill. Some of them may have a hunch that motivation is one of the factors that play a role in language learning among the students. For all these reasons, conducting a research in this regard seems necessary, and that is why the researcher intends to study the effect of motivation on Iranian Kurdish senior high school students' speaking skill.

**Significance of the study**
The significance of this study mostly revolves around the importance of speaking skill as an important medium to communicate with others. Mastering speaking is an essential need for any learner whose final goal is to use English. For Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), Speaking in a second language (L2) has been considered as the most challenging of the four skills because it involves a complex process of constructing meaning. This process according to Burns and Seidlhofer (2002), requires speakers to make decisions about why, how and when to communicate depending on the cultural and social context in which the speaking act occurs. Jordens (2006) believes that the primacy of speaking is obvious since it is assumed that language is primarily an oral phenomenon. Speaking is also considered as an effective medium for providing language input and facilitating memorization (Bygate 2001).

The significance of the study derives also from the importance of motivation. As mentioned above, motivation is one of the crucial predictors of FL performance and has a basic role in language acquisition (Mori, 2002). Teachers often observe in their classrooms that students prefer to be silent; they avoid asking and answering questions. This avoidance may be due to lack of students' motivation for speaking. Students” unwillingness to speak and communicate in FL classroom will often lead to unwillingness to communicate in real contexts. Identifying factors that influence student learning in the classroom continues to be an important objective for teachers and administrators at all levels. There is a great deal of interest today in the notions of motivation to learn a foreign/second language. However, unfortunately, few studies, if any, have been conducted to investigate learners’ motivation in speaking English with Kurdish senior high school students in Iran. On the other hand, it would be helpful for high school teachers to have a clear picture of the effect of motivation on high school students in Iran so that they can formulate instructional methods to motivate students enhance their English speaking. Therefore, this study comes to investigate the effect of motivation on Kurdish high school students with the hope that
it would yield results and recommendations that can be used to inform educators and teachers in Iran on appreciating motivation of their students and, thus, to look for a suitable approach to teaching English speaking.

**Purpose of the study**
This study attempts to investigate the effect of motivation on English speaking skill among Kurdish high school students in Iran.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Motivation**
Brown (2007, p.117) defines motivation as “the anticipation of reward, whether internally or externally administered; choices made about goals to pursue and the effort exerted in their completion.”

Many scholars have considered motivation as an important factor that plays a considerable role in determining the success of language learning. Gu (2009) for example, believes that motivated learners are more enthusiastic. They are also eager to work hard and concentrate on the tasks given. Therefore, they do not need to be given constant encouragement. Dornyei (2011, p. 116) emphasized that “teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness”. For Noels (2001), motivation to learn a second language is of equal importance as language aptitude.

The important role that motivation plays in learning a language is more pronounced in what Dornyei and Ushioda (2011, p. 1) say. They argue that “given motivation, it is inevitable that a human being will learn a second language if he is exposed to the language data”

Oxford and Shearin (1994) have identified six variables that influence motivation in language learning:
· Attitudes (i.e. sentiments towards the target language).
· Beliefs about self (i.e. expectations about one’s attitudes to succeed, self-efficiency, and anxiety).
· Goals (perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reasons for learning).
· Involvement (i.e. extent to which the learner actively and consciously participates in the learning process).
· Environmental support (i.e. extent of teacher and peer support).
· Personnel attributes (i.e. aptitude, and language learning experience).

Motivation, as mentioned before, falls into two categories distinguished by Gardner (2010). It may be of an instrumental or an integrative orientation. Based on Brown (2001), an integrative orientation simply means the learner is pursuing a second language for social or cultural purposes, and within that purpose a learner could be driven by a high level of motivation or a low level. On
the other hand, in an instrumental orientation, learners are studying a language in order to further a career or academic goal (Brown, 2001). Gardner (2010) argues that an integrative orientation is more enduring and more directly related to success than an instrumental orientation. Likewise, Garcia (2007) believes that learners who are instrumentally motivated appear to be more driven by external aspects like incentives, which, as believed, are less stable.

There is another dichotomy for motivation apart from integrative and instrumental. Here motivation is of two kinds: intrinsic and extrinsic. According to Deci (1985) cited in Brown (2001, p. 76): “Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward; extrinsically motivated behaviors, on the other hand, are carried out in anticipation of a reward from outside or beyond the self” (p.77). Many scholars like Maslow and Bruner, according to Brown (2001), find intrinsic motivation more powerful than extrinsic one.

Another aspect contributing to motivation levels could be the manner in which students attribute reasons for their underachievement or success. The core argument of Attribution Theory states that individuals have a tendency to attribute their performance to the effort they give, the difficulty of the activity, or to their capability (Zhang, 2009). Learners more likely to attribute their performance to task difficulty or capability have a tendency to have poorer motivation, because these aspects are regarded to be unchangeable, or outside the learner’s control. In contrast, attributing failure or success to effort may result in higher levels of motivation, since it can be controlled by the learner (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Since this study aims to investigate the role of motivation in speaking ability, in what follows, this skill is discussed.

**Speaking**

Speaking has been defined from a variety of perspectives. For Brown (2001, p. 68), “speaking is an action that involves producing, receiving and processing information in spoken language to conveying the information or expressing one’s thoughts and feeling”. Florez (1999) and Chaney (1998) both consider speaking as a process through which meaning is conveyed.

Hedge (2000, p. 261) focuses on the significance of this skill and defines it as a “skill by which people are judged while first impressions are being formed”.

Harmer (2001), on the other hand, distinguishes between two aspects of speaking. Namely, knowledge of ‘language features’, and the ability to process information on the spot, it means ‘mental/social processing’. The first aspect, language features, necessary for spoken production involves, according to Harmer, the following features: connected speech, expressive devices, lexis and grammar, and negotiation language. In order to wage a successful language interaction, it is necessary to realize the use of the language features through mental/social processing – with the help of ‘the rapid processing skills’, as Harmer calls them (p.271). ‘Mental/social processing’
Speaking is one of the main aspects of communication, and for many scholars and teachers, has been considered as the most important skill. Zaremba (2006), for instance, contends that of the four macro English skills, speaking seems to be the most important skill required for communication. Similarly, Richards (1990) believes that the mastery of speaking skills in English is a priority for many schools and second language learners; learners consequently often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course in the basis of how well they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency. Brown (2001, p. 267) asserts that “when someone can speak a language it means that he can carry on a conversation reasonably competently”. In addition, he states that “the benchmark of successful acquisition of language is almost always the demonstration of an ability to accomplish pragmatic goals through an interactive discourse with other language speakers” (p.268). The goal of a speaking class should be to encourage the acquisition of communication skills and to foster real communication in and out of the classroom.

Despite the significance of speaking and the importance that many teachers and learners assign to this skill, the complexity of learning to speak in another language has also reported by many researchers and specialist. This complexity is reflected in the range and type of sub skills that are entailed in L2 oral production. Widdowson (1990) emphasizes this complexity and claims that learning just the language system is not the appropriate way for learning how to communicate in the FL because knowledge of the leasing code alone does not explain the demands of communication and interaction with others in the FL. Speaking is not a simple skill, its complete mastery requires some experience and practice. Luama (2004, p. 1) argues that “speaking takes a long time to develop”. Added to this problem is the scarce of opportunity to use the language, which was addressed by Zhang (2009) pointing out students’ limited opportunities to speak English and limited exposure to English speakers outside the classroom.

According to Noor Hashimah Abdul Aziz (2007), learners feel very nervous when speaking in English and face difficulty to express themselves in English. For these reasons, different methods and strategies have been proposed to help students enhance their speaking. Cotter (2007) proposed a method in his work and said that there should be three stages in any language classroom and they are: Preparation which allows the students to prepare for the tasks ahead with an effective warm-up. This gives everyone in the class ample opportunity to get their English wheels turning. Presentation: here the topic is presented for discussion, target grammar, or any vocabularies selected for the lesson are also introduced. Practice: after the presentation, ESL / EFL students need to practice the new material. It's unfair to expect them to make use of the new language without adequate practice. And Free Use: You should always work towards real use of the language. According to Ur (1996) an effective speaking activity has the following features:

1. Learners talk a lot. Classroom activities must be designed in such ways that provide opportunities for learners to talk a lot.
2. All get a chance to speak. A minority of talkative students should not dominate classroom discussions, and contributions must be fairly distributed. Classroom activities must be designed in ways that help all the students to take risk.

3. Motivation is high. Learners are eager to speak because they are interested in the topic, and want to contribute to achieving a task objective.

4. Language is comprehensible. Learners express themselves in utterances that are relevant, easily comprehensible to each other, and of an acceptable level of language accuracy. The teacher must also base the activity on easy language so that the students can use the language fluently without hesitation.

5. Students speak the target language. The teacher must keep students speaking the foreign language.

To sum up, speaking is regarded as one of the major skills to be developed along the process of language learning because it is necessary for displaying the language proficiency. Although the reasons behind learning the foreign language may vary from one learner to the other, the aim is one, and that is, getting to communicate fluently using the target language.

Previous Studies

The role of motivation in learning a second language has been investigated by many researchers, and in many cases a highly positive relationship has been. Lennon (1993) in a study with advanced German students of English studying at England’s University of Reading, found motivation as the most important factor influencing oral proficiency. In much the same way, in 1997, Mason and Krashen reported that improvement in motivation the most important and influential finding which helped unwilling students of EFL to become earnest readers. In another study, Mahboobi and Kaur (2011) have investigated the role of motivation in intensive reading among Iranian EFL university students. Based on their results from the analysis of questionnaires, motivation plays a very important role in intensive reading.

Although a great deal of studies indicate the influence of motivation in language learning, it is worth mentioning that some studies did not find any relationship between motivation and different aspect of second language learning. No significant correlation between speaking achievement and motivational variables has been found in the study done by Lyczak et al. (1976). Similarly, in Abdel-Hafez's (1994) study in Jordan, no significant correlation between the students' motivation and their levels of achievement in the English courses was found.

A large number of studies target the comparison between the effect of integrative and instrument motivation in different aspects of language learning. In a study, the motivational variables (integrative and instrumental) towards learning English as a foreign language among senior students majoring in English at Shiraz State and Shiraz Islamic Azad University was conducted by Roohani (2001). The results of this study supported the advantage of integratively oriented motivation over instrumentally motivated motivation concerning proficiency level. Likewise, Abdul Samad et al. (2012) found a positive relationship between integrative motivation and students’ language proficiency. By contrast, Johnson and Johnson (2010) reported that Japanese engineering students were more instrumentally motivated to learn English to a high extent.
In another study no difference has been realized between two kinds. This study conducted by Soozandehfar and Soozandehfar (2010) made attempt to compare integratively and instrumentally motivated students of English at Shiraz University in terms of their speaking achievement. In fact, they aimed to test the following directional hypothesis: the Students of English at Shiraz University are likely to be less successful in English language speaking if the underlying motivation orientation is instrumental rather than integrative. The hypothesis indicates that they have expected integrative motivation stronger thant instrumental motivation in relation to speaking achievement. Despite their biased hypothesis, the statistical analysis of their study, however, revealed no significant difference between the integratively oriented participants and their instrumentally oriented counterparts in terms of their speaking. At the end, based on the results of their study, they suggested that teachers in an EFL context use either instrumental or integrative motivation to develop students’ L2 speaking ability. Besides the aforementioned studies, there is abundance of studies conducted in this regard which cannot be included here for the sake of scope. However, there are very few, if any, studies in the literature of motivation which aimed to investigate the impact of motivation on Iranian Kurdish senior high school students’ speaking ability, and this study aims to bridge this gap.

RESEARCH QUESTION
Based on the purpose of the study, the following research question can be proposed:
Is there any significant effect of motivation on Iranian Kurdish senior high school students’ speaking ability?

The following null hypothesis can be proposed on the basis of the aforementioned question:
NH1. There is no significant effect of motivation on Iranian Kurdish senior high school students’ speaking ability.

METHODOLOGY
This research employs a quantitative methodology to collect data. The design of this research is ex post facto research design by using comparative study. The reason for selecting ex post facto research design is because treatment is used to collect data. Rather, collecting the data is done by considering the cause and effect that will happen. Hatch and Farhady (1981, p. 26) states that ex post facto design was used when the researcher does not have control over the selection and manipulation of the independent variable (the researcher do not give treatment in the research).

Participants
What makes this study distinct from others in this respect is the specific participants of the study. As mentioned several times before, this study is going to examine the effect of motivation on Iranian Kurdish students' speaking ability. To this end, a total number of 90 female senior high school students studying at Kosar high school in Kermansha, Iran, have been selected for the study. Persian is the standard native language of these participants while their native dialect is Kurdish. The reason for selecting this school was mainly because of the researcher’s easier access
to it. Since in a normal class there are different students with different level of cognitive and language ability, the sample classes have been selected randomly.

**Instruments**

The independent variable of this study is the students’ motivation. This variable is measured through Laine's (1987) Motivation Questionnaire following Soozandehfar and Soozandehfar(2010). The rationale behind using this questionnaire is that its reliability is highly established and assured (with the value of /81). The questionnaire consists of 25 items. The Likert Scale is applied for the questionnaire where each item has mainly four alternative answers. That is, A, B, C, and D. on the other hand, the dependant variable, which is students’ speaking ability, is measured through prepared talk activities. The speaking test is scored using the oral ability scale proposed by Heaton (1991).

**Procedures**

To gather data about students' motivation, the motivation questionnaire will be first translated into Persian to make sure no problem arises understanding the content of the question and enhance validity as a result. Then the questionnaires will be given to the students to fill out them. The students will be asked to give real information and answer the questions honestly. Based on the result of motivation questionnaire, the students will be classified into two groups of high and low motivation. After collecting information about students' motivation, to gather data on their speaking ability, the speaking test will be administered. Here, the students will be asked to make a presentation on a topic of their own interest orally and directly in front of class one by one. What they will say will be recorded to be analyzed later. To do this, the students are required to talk as clear as they can. The measurement of their speaking will be done following Heaton (1991) as a model. After obtaining the results of the test, the reliability of the will also be calculated. If the reliability is fulfilled, then the author will precede to the analysis of the data using SPS software. That is to say, to find answer to the question of the study, the researcher will analyze the data using SPSS by comparing both of high and low motivated students in One Way Anova computation. If the output of Anova computation displayed that the FValue is much higher than FCritical, then we can conclude that motivation has a significant effect on speaking ability.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

As mentioned before, the first instrument used in the study was a motivation questionnaire. The descriptive data obtained from this instrument were summarized in table1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for students' motivation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from table 1, it was obtained that the high score was 90 and the lowest score was 31 and the average was 47.54. On the basis of the results, the participants were classified into two groups, namely 1. Low motivation group: those who got 2 standard deviation score below the mean, and 2. high motivation group: those who scored 2 standard deviations above the mean, and
the rest of the students have been excluded from the study. After the identification of low and high motivated students based on the questionnaire results, the speaking test has been administered with the selected students. The descriptive statistics of speaking test has been estimated and displayed in table 2.

**Table 2: Descriptive Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>speaking</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>34.04</td>
<td>19.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Having calculated the descriptive statistics for motivation and speaking ability, in order to answer the research question, the author analyzed the data by using SPSS through comparing both of high and low motivated students in One Way Anova computation. The results are demonstrated below:

**Table 3: One way ANOVA of high motivation and low motivation groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>7534.185</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>627.849</td>
<td>8.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>961.700</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>73.977</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8495.885</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant at (p<0.05)

As can be seen, the output of Anova computation shows that the FValue is higher than Ftable (FValue = 8.487, Ftable = 3.164993, FValue > FTable). It can be seen that there is a significant effect of motivation on their speaking ability with the coefficient significant about 0.000 (p = 0.000, p < 0.05). Therefore, the research null hypothesis is rejected.

**Discussion**

This study made attempt to find out whether or not motivation can affect Iranian Kurdish senior high school students' speaking ability. Based on the purpose of the study, the following research question was proposed:

Is there any significant effect of motivation on Iranian Kurdish senior high school students’ speaking ability?

Then, we hypothesized that there is no significant effect of motivation on Iranian Kurdish senior high school students' speaking ability.

The results of the study revealed that the students with higher motivation performed much better in speaking test as compared with low motivated students. Therefore, the answer to the research question is that motivation can influence students' speaking ability significantly. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study has been rejected. Further, what the results of this study suggests is that the more motivated the learners the better their speaking ability will be. Based on this idea, we can claim that when students have good motivation in learning English, they will do anything
that can improve their speaking achievement. They will try to finish speaking assignment. They also will try to practice their speaking with their friends without being afraid to make mistakes. The more practice in speaking, the better their English will be. It also supported Cook (1991, p. 96) who states that some L2 learners do better than others because they are better motivated. So, high motivation can cause high achievement in learning English, especially speaking.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION
Based on the result of the data analysis and discussions, the researcher draws the conclusion as follows: There is a significant effect of motivation in learning English on students’ speaking ability. The result shows that the students with very high motivation have better ability in speaking compared with the students with low motivation. It means that the higher their motivation in learning English, the better their ability in speaking will be.

Therefore, the writer suggests the English teacher to maintain students’ motivation. The teacher should give interesting material. Besides that, they should also use appropriate teaching method based on students’ ability to magnetize students to practice a lot in speaking English. For students, they must have good confidence in speaking English. Having good confidence will encourage themselves to produce spoken English easier without feeling shy.

Several limitations are associated with this study. Firstly, the findings of this study are only limited to the specific participants of the study in terms of age and level of education. Therefore, any generalization of the findings to younger or older and middle school, primary school and college students should be taken with caution. Another limitation concerns with the design of the study. Evidently, it is really difficult to control all other factors or variables except the variable in question in an ex post facto research design. Therefore, it is likely that other unmeasured variables and parameters be at work influencing the results of the study. Finally, although we have done our best to measure the students' motivation with a test of high reliability, on the whole, motivation is an internal construct and cannot be easily measured by tests.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF STANDARD DICTATION ON GRAMMAR LEARNING ABILITY OF YOUNG IRANIAN BEGINNER EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study intends to investigate the effect of standard dictation on grammar learning ability of young Iranian beginner English as foreign language (EFL) learners. The purpose of the study is to find dictation something beyond a traditional technique in langue teaching and testing, the backwash effect of dictation can help both the students and teachers overcome significantly the grammatical problems and internalizing structures. First, two homogenous classes of twenty subjects from NODET (National Organization of Developing Exceptional Talents), Iran were chosen randomly as control and experimental groups. Both were taught grammatical points simultaneously by the researcher in the same way and the samples were not really aware of the study. The subjects in both groups received a post test. The data obtained from the results of the subjects’ performance on the test were analyzed and interpreted by conducting a T.test. The findings confirmed the fact that standard dictation can significantly affect grammar learning ability of young Iranian beginner EFL learners. The results of the current study can be of use in all educational centers. They have direct or indirect implications for and applications to teaching, learning, test development, syllabus design and material development. This study, according to the achieved results, may have some hints for English teachers who might, for sure, pay some attention to teaching grammar or any other four major skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing, because standard dictation can not be limited to any skills or subjects in isolation. As I found out the whole aspects of ELT can be reshaped by this new trend.

KEYWORDS: standard Dictation, Grammar, Learning Ability, Beginner EFL Learners

INTRODUCTION
An experience of twelve years teaching English and practicing different approaches of dictation and spelling, I have found the aim of dictation something beyond some teachers’ and students point of view. Dictation is not just spelling practice. The backwash effect of dictation can help both the students and teachers overcome significantly the grammatical problems mostly along side the problems of the other areas of the language.

In fact, students could find a few opportunities in Iran to have a kind of speaking and listening practice. The type of rehearsal on dictation is traditionally limited to long columns of isolated words writing for the sake of spelling. But standard dictation could help them to have a kind of deep reading, vocalizing the sentences and words (speaking), listening to normal pace of speaking, paying attention to important grammatical structures, correct pronunciation, standard
type of stress and intonation, and at last, spelling practice. This is language learning and not learning about the language (Rivers, 1981).

Statement of the problem
Grammar learning is emphasized in language teaching whether the language is first, second or foreign. Although grammar has not always been as a priority in LT, interest in its role has grown rapidly. Teaching grammar and internalizing it through standard dictation would help teachers teach the language in a more communicative way. This study is an attempt to explore the effect of standard dictation on the reinforcement of grammar in LT.

Purpose of the study
The findings of this study would be of great help to those teachers who wish to have more effective language classes. Needless to say, with the widespread institution of standards and high-stakes tests, students are expected to recognize, internalize and use correct grammar. Educators can no longer afford that students acquire an accurate understanding of formal language structures through different skills. Therefore, grammar instruction should be in a way to meet the needs of learners.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
What is dictation?
Dictation is a valuable language learning device that has been used for centuries. Although linguists have not completely understood how it facilitates language acquisition--it would be extremely difficult to isolate the language competencies that are employed--many have attested to its pedagogical value. One of the 20th century's most influential linguists, Leonard Bloomfield (1942), strongly endorsed the use of dictation as a learning device. Today, many methodologists are at least inclined to agree with Finocchiaro's (1969) summary of its value: "[Dictation] ensures attentive listening; it trains pupils to distinguish sounds; it helps fix concepts of punctuation; it enables pupils to learn to transfer oral sounds to written symbols; it helps to develop aural comprehension; and it assists in self-evaluation" (Alkire, 2007).

Standard dictation is the most frequently-used type of dictation. It is usually defined as a passage of appropriate length (usually set somewhere between 100-150 words) and difficulty with a specified administration procedure. Dictation is usually read and the examinees are required to write down what they hear. Two points are important regarding this procedure. First the consistency of the reader and the manner of reading. Second, the dictation passage should be read 3 times. The first reading gives the examinees a chance to obtain the general idea of the passage. The second reading is the most important part because during this, the examinees should write down what they hear. Finally the third reading is performed in a manner similar to that of the first one. Its purpose is to allow students to check their performance (Farhady, Jafarpur & Birjandi, 1999).

Cullen (2007) states that dictation has always been a useful technique for language teachers. Modern listening exercises usually focus on helping students to extract the overall meaning of a
listening passage, but most language teachers will agree that an occasional dictation with a focus on individual words can be very useful in developing listening comprehension.

Cullen (2007) continues: “As with all teaching techniques, it is best to experiment to find out the ways of song dictation that work best for you and your students. Of course, song dictations do not have to be carried out in class. You can assign a song as homework, preferably one which the student enjoys and chooses himself. If the student already has the lyrics sheet, then you can ask them to only check it after the dictation has been done.”

Rivers (1981) writes that dictation is not just spelling practice. The backwash effect of dictation can help both the students and teachers overcome significantly the grammatical problems mostly along side the problems of the other areas of the language. The dictation will then serve as a form of review, the possibility of error will be reduced and the students will be encouraged by their progress. Segments dictated should consist of meaningful groups.

The importance of dictation
Madsen (1983) claims that dictation is another guided-writing test most teachers know about this technique, but few handle it properly. Actually, he believes it is one of the easiest tests to use, and it gives very good information on the student’s language ability. But this is true only if you prepare it right, present it right, and score it right.

Benefits of Dictation
Alkire (2007) in his article states the following benefits for dictation.
- Dictation shows students the kinds of spelling errors they are prone to make.
- Dictation can help develop all four language skills in an integrative way.
- Dictation helps to develop short-term memory. Students practice retaining meaningful phrases or whole sentences before writing them down.
- Dictation can serve as an excellent review exercise.
- Dictation is psychologically powerful and challenging.
- Dictation fosters unconscious thinking in the new language.
- If the students do well, dictation is motivating.
- Dictation involves the whole class, no matter how large it is.
- During and after the dictation, all students are active.
- Correction can be done by the students
- Dictation can be prepared for any level.

Standard dictation could help the students to have a kind of deep reading, vocalizing the sentences and words (speaking), listening to normal pace of speaking, paying attention to important grammatical structures, correct pronunciation, standard type of stress and intonation, and at last, spelling practice. This is language learning and not learning about the language (Rivers, 1981).
Dictation has been a feature of language classrooms for hundreds of years. However, for many teachers these days, the word ‘dictation’ is synonymous with 'old-fashioned', 'boring', and 'teacher-centered'. In fact, it hardly seems to merit a mention in most of the introductory texts for ELT trainees. Is it really as outdated and uncommunicative as it first appears? (Lightfoot, 2007).

The importance of grammar
Based on the importance of grammar Richards and Renandyo (2002) argue people now agree that grammar is too important to be ignored, and that without a good knowledge of grammar, learners’ language development will be severely constrained. There is now a general consensus that the issue is not whether or not we should teach grammar. The issues now center on questions such as, which grammar items do learners need most? How do we go about teaching grammar items in the most effective way? Are they best taught inductively or deductively? Swan suggests that the teaching of grammar should be determined by the needs of the students. Thus, the selection of grammar items to be taught must depend on learners’ aims in learning English. Furthermore, the teaching of grammar should be based on the principles of comprehensibility and acceptability. Grammar is important, but most of the time, in most parts of the world, people probably teach too much of it. They mention some significant reasons for the importance of grammar:

1. Because Its THERE
2. Its TIDY
3. Its TESTABLE
4. COMPREHENSIBILITY
5. ACCEPTABILITY

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
To begin with, the following question is posed for the researcher to answer:
Does standard dictation have any effect on the grammar learning ability of young Iranian beginner EFL learners?

METHODOLOGY
This study intended to investigate the influence of standard dictation on the grammar learning ability of Iranian beginner EFL learners. This research was conducted at NODET (National Organization of Developing Exceptional Talents) School where students are talented and really homogeneous. The researcher is their regular teacher and they are not absolutely aware of the study. Simultaneously, both groups received the same instruction but the experimental group had the frequent standard dictation.
Participants
Subjects who participated in the present study were all students from Shahid Beheshti NODET School in Torbat-Heydarieh. They were 40 beginner male students in grade three in junior high school. The subjects took part in the experiment unconsciously.

After being accepted in a national standardized entrance examination of NODET schools, the cases were randomly categorized into two identical groups. The subjects had participated in the same classes for two years and at the end of each year they should have passed standard exams with specific norms of NODET schools. Moreover, they had been taught the English courses of national curriculum textbooks accompanying with their own supplementary materials specific to NODET schools by the same instructor, the researcher. So the process of homogenization was really well organized and there was no doubt that the subjects were homogeneous.

Instrumentation
To achieve the main concern of this study which is to evaluate the effectiveness of standard dictation on grammar learning ability two testing instruments were needed.

The first one which was just for the experimental group was a pack of frequent standard dictations compiled of grammatical patterns (Tajik, 2007). Dictations carried out in this study all focused on grammar learning of the tastes.

The second needed test was a valid and a reliable test of grammar so as to function as the post-test instrument in this study. As a consequence, the formerly standard constructed test from (Tajik, 2007) included sixty items in multiple choice form were chosen.

The next thing to do was to validate the post-test. The test of grammar was administered to another group of twenty eight male learners, sharing almost the same level of language proficiency in Mahdi School in Torbat-Heydarieh. As a result, some ten items which couldn’t meet the requirements of item facility (Farhady, et al.1998, p. 101) and item discriminations (Farhady, et al.1998, p 104) were discarded. It led to a final form of a grammar test including fifty items of multiple choices. Due to the nature of items included in the test, it was supposed to take thirty minutes for the students to attempt all the items. Then based on the advantages of KR-21 Method over the other ones, the reliability of the test of grammar was computed as well. Of course, the scores of the items which were to be discarded in the final form of the test were not into account. To put it another way, the test had got a total score of fifty. The reliability index of 0.64 which is obtained for the post-test is moderately high. Hence this test can be trusted in terms of reliability.

Procedure
The subjects were taught the specific lessons of the textbook. They were not aware of the direct study so the situation was really natural. Both groups received the same materials by the same teacher (the researcher). However, one group received standard dictation during the course; the other group received another type of dictation. Finally, they were given the post-test and the results were compared and contrasted.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The scores derived from the experiments, were computerized. To analyze the data, the researcher made use of the most commonly used package program which is statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) and EXCEL.

The following tables and figures show the descriptive statistics concerning these scores.

### Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plural s</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third person s</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.25</td>
<td>1.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive s</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.90</td>
<td>.912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ed ending</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.75</td>
<td>.910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>44.35</td>
<td>2.059</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The descriptive statistics is related to the experimental group. On the second column, we could see the number of samples who participated in the test. On the next two columns, there are the minimum and the maximum mark that they have got in the test. On the last two ones, the mean and the standard deviation related to each specific variable have been shown. For instance, in the experimented group, the minimum score of the students in plurals is 7 and the minimum score is 10. In this part, their mean score is 8.45 with the standard deviation.

### Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Control Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>plural s</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>2.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>third person s</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>1.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possessive s</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8.85</td>
<td>2.661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ed ending</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.35</td>
<td>2.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30.55</td>
<td>5.826</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 2 the descriptive statistics related to control group has been shown. The columns show the number of samples, the minimum and the maximum score, the mean value and the standard deviation of a specific variable in the control group. For example in this case, the minimum score in the third person singular which has been taken by a taste is 2 and the maximum score is 9. The mean value of the third person scores in control is 6.1.
Table 3: Independent Sample T-Test for comparing grammar score in general between control and experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group Statistics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammer experimental</td>
<td>44.35</td>
<td>2.059</td>
<td>.460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>30.55</td>
<td>5.826</td>
<td>1.303</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Independent Sample T-Test for comparing grammar score in general between control and experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Samples Test</th>
<th>t-test for Equality of Means</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>23.03</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>9.987</td>
<td>23.673</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By considering this effect that the P-value of the test for equality of variances between two groups equals 0.00 and is less than 0.05, so the equal means assumed for the grammar test scores in two groups is rejected too. We observe that the means of the tests in experimental group minus the scores of control group equals 13.8 and it is a positive amount so we could conclude the standard dictation has had a positive effect on the performance of subjects.
The above graph compares grammar between two groups in general. We note that the scores of the experimental group is ranged from 42 to 50 but in the control group it is from 21 to 40. Most of the subjects have got 43 in the first group but 28 in the second one. Finally, it shows the significant better performance of experimental than the control group in grammar.

**Summary**

The basic concern of this study was to investigate the effect of standard dictation on the grammar learning ability of Iranian EFL junior high school learners. It was conducted at NODET School where students were talented and really homogeneous. The researcher was their regular teacher and they were not absolutely aware of the study. Simultaneously, both groups received the same instruction but the experimental group had the frequent standard dictations. Subjects were 40 beginner male students. The materials that were used in this study were the specific lessons from book three for junior high school students in Iran.

To achieve the main concern of this study which is to evaluate the effectiveness of standard dictation on grammar learning ability two testing instruments were needed. The first one which was just for the experimental group was a pack of frequent standard dictations compiled of grammatical patterns. Dictations carried out in this study all focused on grammar learning of the learners. The second needed test was a valid and a reliable test of grammar so as to function as the post-test instrument in this study.

The subjects were taught the specific lessons of the textbook. They were not aware of the direct study so the situation was really natural. Both groups received the same materials by the same teacher (the researcher). However, one group received standard dictation during the course; the other group received another type of dictation. Finally, they were given the post-test and the results were compared and contrasted.

**CONCLUSION**

As shown in previous chapter, utilizing standard dictation in the experimental group led to a better grammar performance of the students in post test. So it can be concluded that standard dictation can be used for not only assessing students’ grammar but also for their learning. The results of the t-test revealed a significant difference between the performance of the students in the experimental and control groups. Based on the results, it was inferred that the experimental group performed better than the control group due to employing standard dictations as treatment. Therefore, the null hypothesis of this study was rejected;

*Employing standard dictations improve Iranian EFL learners’ grammar learning ability. In other words, employing standard dictation leads to a significantly better performance in grammar learning.*

As this study showed, standard dictation can be a means of assessing students’ grammar learning ability and helping them to improve their grammar, and more importantly, the motivation implementing such a tool creates in learners to learn the language eagerly and effectively.
Standard dictation helped learners to become aware of their own learning and monitor themselves. The students learned to be responsible for their own learning and become more independent learners.

The findings confirm the previous research on the effect of standard dictation on grammar learning ability of Iranian junior high school EFL learners. These findings have some implications and applications.

**Pedagogical implications**
The results of the current study can be of use in all educational centers. They have direct or indirect implications for and applications to teaching, learning, test development, syllabus design and material development. This study, according to the achieved results, may have some hints for English teachers who might, for sure, pay some attention to teaching grammar or any other four major skills; listening, speaking, reading, writing, because standard dictation can not be limited to any skills or subjects in isolation. As I found out whole aspects of ELT can be reshaped by this new trend.

The suggested point for teacher in schools, language centers and institutes is that they change the way they assess and instruct the students and move toward a more learner-oriented method. By the use of standard dictation, they can design an assessment system in which the students have to study during the whole term for the course and not just study for the test. This way they will be more motivated to learn and will use meta-cognitive strategies and think about their learning. They will try to document their learning and this way enhances their ability in language skills.

If we change the way we assess our learners, and move away from test-oriented procedures and seek help from alternative assessments like standard dictation, then it will indirectly affect teaching, learning, test development, syllabus design and material development. There’s no doubt that implementing standard dictation is a continuous long-term assessment and it’s more oriented to process than product. This way the students themselves are also involved in the process of evaluation and teachers can integrate assessment and instruction in order to obtain better results of their classes.

**Limitations of the study**
No research study can be conducted under ideal circumstances. Every research study has its own set of limitations and problems. This study, being no exception, meets the following limitations;
1. The small sample of students may cause some difficulties in generalizing the results.
2. The subjects are talented students.
3. The focus of study is just on some grammatical points.

**Suggestions for further studies**
This study can be replicated employing various methods, techniques, samples, levels of proficiency, and language skills:
The effect of standard dictation on all major language skills, speaking, reading, listening, and writing.
The effect of standard dictation on language components, vocabulary, pronunciation as well as grammar which was tried in this study.

The effect of standard dictation can be tested on different language proficiency levels, age, and sex variables (male, female, and coeducational groups). The effect of standard dictation on different subjects at schools and universities.

REFERENCES


INTERACTIONAL MODIFICATION VS. METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY TRAINING IN LISTENING INSTRUCTIONS

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ABSTRACT
Providing learners with comprehensible input, based on Krashen's Input Hypothesis is the key to ensure second language acquisition. Considering the significance of input, listening instructions aim at enhancing the learners' listening comprehension by focusing on the material and/or through listening strategy training. This study investigates the effect of the implementation of two listening approaches of IMI (Interactional Modification of Input) and MST (Metacognitive Strategy Training) on the listening comprehension of language learners. Furthermore, it compares the effectiveness of these two approaches as two separate options in teaching listening. For this purpose, a quantitative study was conducted on 3 groups of intermediate language learners at ILI (Iran Language Institute): MST (N=21), IMI (N=21), and Control (N=21). During the eight week treatment, all groups received listening instructions based on the ILI traditional listening techniques (pre-listening, listening, and follow-up). The IMI group had the additional chance to interact during the listening phase while the MST group received metacognitive strategy instructions in different phases of the listening tasks. ANOVA analysis for the comparison of means was carried out on the collected data from the pre/post-tests of the listening comprehension at .05 statistically significant level. The results from the Post-hoc analysis, Tukey test, showed a significant difference at p≤.05 level between the post-test of all groups: IMI (M=7.61), MST (M=8.80), and Control (M=6.33). The results indicate that MST and IMI respectively had a greater impact on listening comprehension than the traditional listening instructions. The reasonable conclusion can be made from these results that the incorporation of interactive approaches as well as strategy instructions into traditional listening instructions can lead to enhanced listening comprehension.

KEYWORDS: Listening Comprehension, Input, Interactional Modification, Metacognitive Strategies.

INTRODUCTION
The significance of listening in language learning has been proved by different Language acquisition research in that listening can be considered an important source of input for learners (Rubin, 1995; Rost, 1991; Park, 2005; Krashen, 2004; Cheung, 2010). Having access to comprehensible input, undoubtedly, is assumed to play a crucial role in second language
acquisition (Krashen, 1981; Vanpatten, 2004; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). A noticeable growing interest in and concern for listening instructions has emerged over the last forty years (Goh, 2008). A retrospective examination into the recent trends in language teaching and learning unravels how the emphasis on teaching listening and the target of listening instruction has changed. The focus of the earlier listening comprehension materials was mainly on testing students' ability to listen to oral discourse and answer a couple of general and specific comprehension questions based on the incoming information (Birjandi & Rahimi, 2012). More recent views of research by Vandergrift (2004), and Vandergrift (2006) have shifted attention toward new evidence-based approaches in teaching listening instructions in the last two decades. The growing concern manifests a deeper understanding of of listening as a communicative and cognitive skill within the realm of language learning (Goh, 2008).

There are different ways to help learners enhance their listening comprehension. According to Maleki (2012), warm up or raising relevant schemata is one way that teachers often utilize in order to enhance comprehension. Research based on listen-and-do tasks has been directed at investigating the claims of Input & Interaction hypotheses, in particular how properties of modified input affect learner comprehension and acquisition. Ellis (2003) claimed that the learners' comprehension will be enhanced when tasks provide opportunity for the negotiation of meaning. Providing the learner with comprehensible input through interaction has been the target of many investigations. Many researchers (e.g., Gass & Varonis, 1994; Ellis, 1999; Park, 2005) hold a similar view on the significance of input modifications which result from negotiation process in interaction. In all the foregoing studies, Interactionally Modified Input (IMI) has proved effective on the enhancement of listening comprehension.

A new awareness has developed of the extent to which L2 listening is a strategic activity. Field (1998) believed that, in real world encounters, listeners succeed in deducing much less information from speech stream than was assumed based on their performance with graded materials. A number of North American listening specialists (e.g., Mendelsohn, 1995; Chamot, 2004) have argued that listening strategies can and should be explicitly taught. Other research works (e.g., Vandergrift, 2004; Goh, 2008; Yang, 2009; Coskun, 2010; Birjandi & Rahimi, 2012; Bozorgian, 2015) have demonstrated the effectiveness of Metacognitive Strategy Training (MST) on listening comprehension. Moreover research has shown that awareness of metacognitive strategies, whether taught explicitly or not, will make for more proficient listeners. (Bozorgian, 2015; Vandergrift, 2006; Vandergrift, & Tafaghodtari, 2010)

As discussed above, all research works conducted on Interactionally Modified Input (IMI) and Metacognitive Strategy Training (MST) in listening focused on proving the effectiveness of these two approaches. Nevertheless, there hasn't been a comparison between the effectiveness of these two ways of facilitating listening comprehension as two separate options at the teachers' disposal. This is the aim of this study to make a comparison between the effectiveness of these two approaches on listening comprehension of EFL learners.
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Among those various ways at the teachers’ disposal as effective tools for enhancing listening comprehension, Interactionally Modified Input (IMI) & Metacognitive Strategy Training (MST) have gained immense popularity; hence, they have been the target of many research investigations.

Input Modification

Drawing on theories that emphasize the role of comprehensible input in second language acquisition, instructors might resort to tasks in which input is modified to facilitate listening comprehension. The origin of the emphasis on comprehensible input dates back to the Input Hypothesis. Krashen (2012) claimed that if learners receive comprehensible input, acquisition will consequently occur. In his view, acquisition can be defined as the outcome of the subconscious process of internalizing new linguistic forms and meaning. He argued that input is made comprehensible through simplifying the input and providing learners with textual support. In this regard, McDonough (2005) found a positive relationship between progress on the acquisition of question formation and the amount of modified input produced for the learners. Kim (2003) found the modification of input useful in enhancing language vocabulary acquisition through reading. Some researchers (Ellis, 2008; Gass & Veronis, 1994) have somehow supported the input hypothesis by proposing pre-modified input and interactionally modified input as the potential types of comprehensible input. Guided by this theoretical perspective, a lot of language research has been conducted to identify what makes input comprehensible. Anani Sarab and Karimi (2008) investigated the impact of simplified and interactionally modified input on reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners, and concluded that the performance of the learners was by far much higher under the interactionally modified text conditions.

As the first type, pre-modified input is the simplified input by the speaker through adapting the baseline input in a non-reciprocal way. It is mostly done before the listener hears the text, and can be done, as Park (2005) stated, through repetition or paraphrase of words or sentences and reduction of the sentence length and complexity. The other type of modification as the target of this study is the interactionally modified input, i.e. when the task of listening becomes reciprocal and learners are given the chance to request any kind of clarification, repetition, pause, etc. Long (1996) argued that input which is interactionally modified through the negotiation of meaning can especially be beneficial for comprehension. In fact, Long's Interaction Hypothesis is regarded as an extension of Krashen's Input Hypothesis. Long (1983) maintained that simplification and contextual clues not only lead to comprehensible input, but they also modify the interactional structure of the conversation. In this regard, an input-based task needs to involve students in responding to the input by requesting clarification when they cannot understand. In order to investigate the impact of different input types on L2 comprehension, several studies were carried out on the basis of listen-and-do tasks. It was claimed by Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987) that IMI resulted in better comprehension than pre-modified input. Other studies by Loschky (1994) and Ellis, Tanaka and Yamazaki (1994) confirmed these findings. Ellis et al. (1994) explored the impact of modified interaction on comprehension and the vocabulary learning, coming up with similar results as the previously mentioned research works. Fang (2010)
emphasized the great importance of interaction with respect to the conditions considered theoretically important in SLA, such as the learners' comprehension of input, access to feedback, and modified output.

In her investigation of word meaning acquisition, Boroghani (2002) examined the impact of modified aural input (pre-modified and interactionally modified). She found that interactional modification of input enhanced word meaning acquisition. Some more recent studies such as Bahrani's (2012) hold a similar view about the effectiveness of interactional modification on language acquisition. Interactional input modification has proved effective in teaching other skills such as reading as well. In a research done by Maxwell (2011), this type of modification has proved effective on teaching reading skills. In conclusion, there is consensus among researchers all around the world, including among those in Iran (e.g., Keshavarz & Mobarra, 2003; Shirinzari, 2011; Boroghani, 2002; Baleghizadeh & Borzabadi, 2007; Maleki, 2012; Bahrani, 2013) on the effectiveness of input modification, in particular IMI, in teaching different skills especially listening comprehension. Maleki (2013) asserted that non-interactive modification of input did not have a significant effect on students' listening comprehension while the interactional modification of input helped the learners to significantly enhance their listening comprehension level. In investigating the effect of input modification on aural comprehension of intermediate level learners, Vessoni De Lence (2010) came up with positive results, revealing that modification had facilitated the learners' listening comprehension of authentic texts.

**Metacognitive Strategy Training**

There has never been a ceiling for studies on the illusive concept of listening comprehension. Attempts toward facilitating it have always resulted in the introduction of new approaches to make for better listeners. Over the past two decades, there has been a shift in teaching listening from traditional methodology of focusing on the input to guided methodology through metacognitive strategy instructions (Bozorgian & Alamdari, 2013). Field (1998) considered listening as a 'strategic activity', calling for the incorporation of strategy training in listening instructions. Oxford (1990) defined learning strategies as specific actions which language learners take so that they can learn more easily and faster and enjoy the process of learning in a more effective and autonomous way which can be transferable to new situations. In their study, Wang and Xiaoyan (2008) found that more successful listeners were more meta-cognitively aware of the use of various strategies. Their findings verified the claims on the importance of strategy use and metacognitive awareness of those strategies. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), learning strategies fall into three major categories: metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies concern the use of knowledge about cognitive processes, consisting of efforts to take control of language learning in the light of planning, monitoring, and evaluating. The actions or operations utilized in solving problems which necessitate direct analysis, synthesis or reconstruction of the incoming information are defined as cognitive strategies. Social affective strategies include a wider variety of strategies which deal with either interaction with others or ideational control of affection. Attention in listening comprehension has increasingly been directed, as Vandergrift (2006) put it, at learners self-report of their understanding and awareness of the processes involved in listening, or metacognitive awareness and strategies. It has been argued that awareness of these strategies and other variables
In learning can have a positive influence on language learners' listening development (Victori & lockchart, 1995; Bolitho et al., 2003; Wilson, 2003; cited in Vandergrift et al., 2006).

**Metacognition**

Today the conceptualization of metacognition is often attributed to Flavell (1979) who broke down metacognition into three elements of: metacognitive knowledge (what one knows), metacognitive skills (what one is currently doing), and metacognitive experience (thinking of what one's current cognitive or affective state is). Metacognitive knowledge is known as the learners' ability to engage in the regulation and management of their own learning, providing an individual view on one's learning abilities and styles (Vandergrift et al., 2006).

There is extensive evidence that learners' metacognition can directly affect the processes and outcome of their learning (Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002; Vandergrift, 2004; Vandergrift et al., 2006; Abdulmalik, 2011). Metacognitive instruction can potentially heighten learners' awareness of their listening processes and consequently enhance their development of their listening comprehension (Goh, 2008). Similar findings from previous studies were reported in O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Young (1997). Two other studies by Vandergrift (2007) and Zeng (2007) demonstrated a causal relationship between metacognitive instruction and statistically significant improvement in listening comprehension performance. Coskun (2010) tested the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training (MST) on beginner students' listening comprehension and came up with positive results.

**Models of strategy instruction**

There are various models of listening strategy training: Brown's (1987) model has been successfully applied in L2 research for years. The model comprises three stages of planning, monitoring and evaluating.

Another instructional model for strategy training was developed by Jones et al. (1987). The sequence of instruction in this model assesses students’ current strategy use, explaining the new strategy and modeling the strategy.

CALLA (cognitive academic language learning approach) is another model proposed by Chamot and O'Malley (1990). CALLA includes three components: topics from the major content subjects, development of academic language skills and direct instruction in learning strategies. A more recent model of strategy instruction was introduced by Vandergrift (2004) and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010). It consists of three phases of pre-listening (planning and prediction), extensive listening (three times, during which hypothesis making, verification of hypothesis, corrections and strategies necessary for better comprehension, are pointed out), reflection stage (based on earlier discussions of strategies used to make up for what was not understood, learners write goals for next listening activities). This model was utilized for metacognitive strategy training in this study.
OBJECTIVES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
This study aims to further investigate the effect of each of the approaches discussed above (Interactional Modification of Input & Metacognitive Strategy Training) on listening comprehension of EFL learners, and consequently finding the most effective way of listening instruction by considering the extent to which each of these approaches contributes to comprehension performance of the learners. A common method used in teaching listening, especially in Iran, is to ask students to listen to an oral text and tell what they have understood, or answer a number of comprehension questions. These methods are, in fact, more 'testing' than 'teaching' listening. In order to contribute to teaching of listening in a more fruitful way, this study intended to find some options for language institutes and teachers to rethink about their methodology and approaches.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study, therefore, sought answers to the following questions:
1- Does Interactionally Modified Input (IMI) have any effects on EFL learners' listening comprehension?
2- Does Metacognitive Strategy Training (MST) have any effects on EFL learners' listening comprehension?
3- What is the interaction effect of IMI and MST on EFL learners' listening comprehension?

METHODOLOGY
In order to find the answer to the research questions, a quantitative study was conducted on three randomly selected intact classes at ILI (Iran Language Institute). The classes were assigned to two experimental groups (IMI and MST) and one Control group. During the eight-week treatment, the groups received different listening instructions based on the purpose of the study (discussed at length in the preceding sections). Before and after the treatment, pre-tests and post-tests were administered to measure the listening comprehension of the learners in all groups. The data collected from the pre-post-test were finally analyzed by means of ANOVA at .05 statistically significant level.

Participants
The targeted population consisted of 63 intermediate learners of ILI. The reason why these learners were chosen for the study was their fair mastery over different skills, a good time duration regarding the training system of ILI, and consequently, an in-depth understanding of the needs for strategies which could help them enhance their listening skills. The participants were all Iranian EFL learners, aging between 15 and 18. They all had the same amount of exposure to English through formal classes at ILI. To date, they had been studying English for about two years. Similarly, since they came from the same country it was reasonably assumed that they shared a homogeneous EFL background. Moreover, the treatment began at the beginning of the ILI Fall (2014) term when the students had just passed the ILI final examination, as a result of which all qualified to register for a higher class level (Intermediate 3). Their having just passed the qualification test heightened the chance of comprising a homogeneous group.
The population was assigned to the three groups. There were two experimental groups: MST (N=21) who received metacognitive strategy training, IMI (N=21) who received instruction through interactional modification of input, and one Control group (N=21) who received no additional instructions, but were taught listening according to the traditional ILI techniques of teaching listening.

At the beginning of the treatment, a listening pretest was administered to all groups to measure the listening comprehension proficiency of the learners. Another listening comprehension test with the same level of difficulty was administered in a post-test to measure any possible improvement in each of the groups.

**Materials and Instruments**

Eight listening texts tape recorded by native speakers with different topics such as radio programs, talks between friends, travelling, shopping, etc. were extracted from ILI listening instructions. The activities accompanying the texts were presented in the students' course book. Each task included three phases of pre-listening, listening, and post-listening activities by which treatment was given in different groups.

The ILI listening section of the ILI term qualification examination was utilized before and after the treatment as the pre-test and post-test in all three groups in order to assess any possible improvement in comprehension performance of the learners. The listening test comprised 10 tasks, five of which were short conversations between two native speakers, whereas the next 5 comprehension questions which had to be answered after listening to a short text (cf. Appendixes I to IV).

**Procedure and Data Collection**

All three groups received an eight-week listening training which took a whole term of 21 sessions (twice a week). Every week, a new task was dealt with in the classes following the traditional teaching techniques. The tasks comprised three phases of pre-listening activities, listening phase and follow up. In pre-listening activity, some new words and concepts which appear in the listening text were introduced. In the listening phase they listened to a tape recorded text three times, the first time was a non-stop playing followed by checking the answers and comprehension questions, the second time the teacher might pause the recording and paraphrase some chunks, or ask the student to repeat some of the chunks. In the follow up, the students interacted with each other based on the topic introduced in the listening text.

All three groups received instruction based on the foregoing steps. The MST group received additional instructions on strategy use in different phases of listening task. Metacognitive strategies given were based on problem-solving, planning-evaluation, mental translation, personal knowledge or the beliefs about oneself as a learner, and directed attention. The instruction consisted of the following stages:

1. At first, the concept of learning strategies was clearly explained. The instructor briefly explained different types of strategies including cognitive, metacognitive and socio-
affective strategies. To give further clarification, examples of different strategies were given.

2. Since the focus of attention would be on metacognitive listening strategies, some examples such as note-taking strategies were explained in order to familiarize students with the strategies. In this stage, the learners were informed of the strategies related to planning, monitoring and evaluation. They were also provided with further clarification that they needed to have a plan and/or a map of what they would be listening to, keep on track while listening, and ask themselves every now and then whether they were pleased with what they were doing.

3. The students were informed of the topic of the oral text.

4. They were asked to brainstorm whatever words, phrases, or information they might hear and write them on the paper according to their background knowledge. In this prediction phase, they were assigned to pairs or small groups and were told that all logical possibilities should be considered. In this phase, the metacognitive processes of planning and directed attention were involved.

5. Once they had completed their prediction, they listened to the text for the first time. They were supposed to put a checkmark beside the information which was predicted. They would add anything new that they had heard as well. The metacognitive processes of selective attention, monitoring and evaluation were involved here.

6. At this point, the learners were asked to work in pairs, comparing their predictions and comprehension of the listening material. They would also discuss the points of confusion and disagreement and decided the particular parts of the text and information that would require careful attention during the second time listening. The metacognitive processes involved here consisted of monitoring, evaluation, planning and selective attention.

7. The learners listened to the text a second time, trying to make sense of the difficult points after the first time listening, making corrections, and jotting down new information on the paper. Selective attention, evaluation, problem solving and monitoring were the metacognitive processes involved.

8. They participated in the class discussion to confirm the understanding of the text and how they came over the processes of comprehending: monitoring, problem solving and evaluation.

9. The third time listening was done allowing the learners to mostly focus on the information gleaned from the class discussion that they might have missed during the previous phases of listening. The metacognitive processes involved here were monitoring, selective attention and problem solving.

10. Ultimately, each learner individually wrote a reflection of the processes she had gone through, noting any possible strategies that would be used in the last listening.

The students in IMI followed all the same steps mentioned in the control group. The listening phase was, however, different in IMI. During the second time listening, according to the traditional ILI technique, the students listened to the recording and passively repeated the chunks that the teacher had asked them to, without really knowing what they are doing. In IMI the learners were allowed to decide what they needed to repeat, pause, clarify and so on. In other words, in the second time listening, they were asked to listen carefully. They were also given the
chance to interact with the teacher to repeat a chunk, explain an expression or a word, or give a clarification in case they didn't comprehend something. To ensure the learners' participation the teacher had to be constantly monitoring the learners' listening. The spot checks randomly done further supported their pursuing whatever they were supposed to. In order to prevent the interruption of the flow of the listening they were requested to interact using a number of body signs which had already been defined. After the second time listening, the learners did the foregoing procedures. The ILI listening qualification test was used twice in a pre-test and post-test to assess the listening comprehension of the learners.

Data Analysis
ANOVA analysis for the comparison of means was carried out on the collected data through the pre-test and post-test at .05 statistically significant level. In order to make a comparison between the means of the three different groups and also to compare the pre-post-test in each group, a Tukey test was administered as a Post-hoc analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The main aim of this study was to investigate whether an experimental application of IMI and MST could positively affect the listening comprehension and metacognitive awareness of intermediate English learners at ILI. In so doing, the pre-post-test scores of listening comprehension in the three groups were computed. The mean scores are illustrated in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IMI-pre</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.0476</td>
<td>1.43095</td>
<td>.31226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMI-post</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.6190</td>
<td>.97346</td>
<td>.21243</td>
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<tr>
<td>MST-pre</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.1905</td>
<td>1.03049</td>
<td>.22487</td>
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<tr>
<td>MST-post</td>
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<td>.98077</td>
<td>.21402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl-pre</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.1429</td>
<td>1.19523</td>
<td>.26082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl-post</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6.3333</td>
<td>1.06458</td>
<td>.23231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>6.3571</td>
<td>1.80428</td>
<td>.16074</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1, there is a difference between the mean scores of post-test in MST (M= 8.8), IMI (M=7.61), and Control (M=6.33). To determine whether the difference was statistically significant or not, a one-way ANOVA was utilized.

Table 2: Overview of the results from ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>255.310</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>51.062</td>
<td>40.413</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>151.619</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1.263</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>406.929</td>
<td>125</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results in Table 2 indicate that there was a significant difference at the $p \leq 0.05$ level for different groups ($F = 40.41, p \leq 0.05$). The results of the Post hoc analysis, Tukey test, are illustrated in Table 3.

### Table 3: Overview of the results of Tukey test for pre-post-test of IMI, MST, and Control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Subset for alpha = 0.05</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IMI-pre</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5.0476</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl-pre</td>
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<td>5.1429</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>MST-post</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.8095</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.998</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 3, the difference existed between the post-test results of the three groups. No significant difference was detected between the pre-test means of the three groups.

Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean for MST (M= 8.80), was significantly higher than IMI (M= 7.61), and the mean score for IMI was higher than control (M=6.33). In other words, both MST and IMI had a positive effect on listening comprehension performance of the students compared to the Control group (who received the routine listening instruction of ILI), but the effect of MST was more significant than IMI on listening comprehension performance of the students.

Comparisons between the pre-test mean scores of the three groups in Tukey test reveal that the three pre-test means were in the same category, that is, there was not a significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test in any of the groups at the $p \leq 0.05$ level: MST(M=5.19), IMI(M=5.04), and Control (M=5.14). It can be inferred from these results that the students were of the same level of proficiency before the treatment, and the difference of the means in their post-test merely attributed to the treatment they received during the investigation, not any other factors.

A further examination of Table 3 (the results from the Tukey test) reveals that, in all groups there was a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the same group. The greatest difference existed in MST with the pre-test (M=5.19) and post-test (M=8.88). The next approach, IMI, had a lower amount of difference between pre-test (M=5.04), and post-test (M=7.61). The least difference belonged to the Control group with the pre-test (M=5.14), and post-test (M=6.33).

The comparison between the means within and between groups indicates that the instructions that the learners received during the treatment led to a score rise of their listening comprehension performance in all three groups. Even the learners in the control group, who were taught...
according to the traditional ILI listening techniques showed an improvement in their listening comprehension in the post-test. Nevertheless, the difference in the results of the post-test showed that among the different approaches at the teacher's disposal, MST proved the most effective method in enhancing listening comprehension. IMI came second in terms of effectiveness and the control group came last.

CONCLUSION
The results of this study were mainly in line with the foregoing research findings on the effectiveness of the two empirical approaches of Interactional Modification of Input and Metacognitive Strategy Training in listening instructions. Moreover, the further comparison between these two approaches, as two separate options, revealed that although both effective, equipping learners with listening strategies in an Iranian EFL context resulted in better comprehension performance. Whenever interaction takes place, the learners become consciously involved in the process of listening, which could result in better comprehension. Therefore, IMI can be considered a potential approach utilized by the teachers trying to raise their learners' listening comprehension. On the other hand, once the significant improvement in listening comprehension is brought about as a result of strategy training, it is reasonable to conclude that what the learners gained in class must have been more than just listening to a text for new information. Since there was no emphasis on developing the learners' phonological skills during the treatment, the out performance of the learners of MST in listening comprehension could be attributed to their being equipped with some sort of tools which had helped them do better in dealing with new contexts. In other words, this claim could be made that metacognitive strategies might have enabled the learners to transfer the skills they learned in class to new contexts.

Limitations of the Study
The findings of the present study provided support for the effectiveness of MST and IMI in listening instructions. Nevertheless, the results might not be generalizable to all other situations owing to the limitations which existed in the sample population, materials, and instruments used in this study.

The targeted population was limited to intermediate EFL learners with a fairly good mastery of English. The impact of these two approaches on beginner and advanced EFL learners needs further investigations. On the other hand, the materials used in this study were confined to tape recorded listening contents specifically provided for classroom instructions; real-life materials such as radio and TV news programs and films which could be used as the source of oral input were not used here. Since the focus of the present study was to investigate the learners' performance in listening comprehension skills at ILI (Iran language Institute), the listening section of the ILI term qualification examination was utilized as the pre/post-tests rather than other standard listening tests such as IELTS and TOEFL, so the results of the listening comprehension tests in this study are not necessarily generalizable to other types of tests.
REFERENCES


Appendix I

Listening comprehension pre-test

Short conversations

1. Man: Did Jack show you his photos from his last trip?
   Woman: Looking at them, I could picture myself lying on the beach.

2. Woman: My name is Mary Jones. J-O-N-E-S. Can I get a class card for chemistry today?
   Man: Oh, no. Registration for students whose last name begin with "J" doesn't start until tomorrow.

3. Man: What will you do after graduation?
   Woman: I don't know whether to go out on my own or work for a large company.

4. Man: Your new dresses are beautiful. Where did you find them?
   Woman: Well, I bought three of the white I was on vacation in Chicago, but I made the other one myself.

5. Woman: Is there anything I can help you with?
   Man: Yes, please. I bought this iron here last month, and it's not working properly. Where is your repair department?

Passage

You learn in school through your ears as well as through your eyes. Scientists who have studied human communication thoroughly have come up with some interesting facts. They show that the average individual spends approximately 70% of his or her time communicating. Only about 9% of this time is devoted to writing, 16% to reading, 30% to talking, and 45% to listening. However, in spite of the large amount of time spent in listening, the average person does not do it well. Estimates of listening efficiency show that the average skill is only about 25% of what it should be.

Appendix II

Pre-test (Questions)

Short Conversations

1. What did the woman do?
   a. She looked at Jack's pictures with the man.
   b. She went to the beach on vacation.
   c. She imagined herself lying on the beach.
   d. She took some pictures of herself on the beach.

2. What has happened to the woman?
   a. She forgot to bring her class card.
   b. She missed registration.
   c. The man could not spell her last name.
   d. She went for registration too early.

3. What is one of the woman's choices?
   a. To work for a small company.
   b. To start her own business.
   c. To graduate from college.
   d. To stop attending college classes.

4. What can we conclude from the conversation?
   a. The woman finds her dresses easily.
   b. The woman purchased no dresses in Chicago.
   c. The woman always wears beautiful dresses.
   d. The woman can sew.

5. What is the man going to do?
   a. Get his iron repaired.
   b. Get his money back.
   c. Buy an iron.
   d. Make a complaint.

Passage

6. What is the passage mainly about?
   a. Learning in school.
   b. Learning through ears and eyes.
   c. Some facts about human communication.
   d. Need for more practice in language skills.

7. What percentage of their time do people spend communicating with each other?
   a. 17%.
   b. 70%.
8. Which of the following receives the least time?
   a. Writing.
   b. Reading.
   c. Speaking.
   d. Listening.

9. What is the least developed languages skill, considering the time devoted to it?
   a. Reading.
   b. Writing.
   c. Speaking.
   d. Listening.

10. How much of the total time is devoted to rating?
   a. 25%.
   b. 16%.
   c. 30%.
   d. 45%.

Appendix III

Listening comprehension post-test
Short conversations
1. Man: the air conditioner in my room is broken, and I can't work.
   Woman: why not go to the library?
2. Man: what do you think of the final exam?
   Woman: I was expecting it to be easy, but at the end of the first hour; I was still on the first page. I barely had time to get to the last question.
3. Woman: is it exaggerating if we say that human beings will soon settle down on the other planets?
   Man: no, nothing seems impossible, especially now that scientists are making so much progress in different fields of science.
4. Man: there are supposed to be 45 people registered for this course.
   Woman: I know. But I think 13 have canceled their registrations, and others indicated they could not make the first class.
5. Woman: you know, Martha, I always have to write letters, reports, and even articles. I wish that my teachers had made me write more in college.
   Man: That's funny. I think my teachers forced me to write too much, even in my science classes. That's why I hardly had enough time to master the subject matter.

Passage
I still don't believe in ghosts even after my experience at the Rose Inn. At least I have never seen one. But ghost stories have made me feel uncomfortable since then. I arrived at the inn late at night and asked the landlord for a room. "There is no room left," he said, "unless you'd like to sleep in number 7." Why not? I said."What's wrong with it?" I was so tired that I would have is left anywhere. "Nothing," he said slowly. "But something happened there a few months ago." Every old inn has it's strange stories, so I thought the sooner he told me about it, the better. "MN came here late at night, like you," the landlord said. "I thought there was something strange about him because he kept looking over his shoulder widely he was signing his name in the book. He asked me which room he could have and I offered him number 7. "There was a man who has said he would kill me with a knife," he said suddenly. He looked so frightened that I thought I had better take him to his room. I locked the door and left him by himself. The next day we found him dead. Do you mind sleeping there now? "Well no one is following me. I wish you had told me this story in the morning. As it is, I will sleep here on the floor in the restaurant if you don't mind."

Appendix IV

Post-test (Questions)
Short Conversations
1. What does the woman mean?
   a. The man can find work in the library.
   b. She can't help the man because she is working.
   c. She can work without air-conditioning.
   d. The men can do his work somewhere else.
2. What can we conclude from the conversation?
   a. The woman barely finished the first page.
   b. It took her one hour to get to the last question.
   c. The woman expected the exam to be harder.
   d. They exam was too difficult for the woman.
3. What does the man think?
   a. There is no way to live on other planets.
   b. It is possible to live on other planets.
   c. The woman is exaggerating about living on other planets.
   d. Scientists are exaggerating about the progress.
4. According to the woman, how many people we attend the first class?
   a. 23
   b. 22
5. What's the mean sorry about?
   a. He didn't write much at college.
   b. He wasn't able to master the subject matter.
   c. He used to write a lot of things.
   d. He has to write a lot of scientific reports.

Passage
6. After the experience at the Rose Inn, the narrator
   a. doesn't believe in ghosts anymore.
   b. has always felt uncomfortable.
   c. doesn't like to listen to ghost stories.
   d. decided not to stay at haunted houses.

7. Why did the landlord offer room number 7 to the narrator?
   a. The other rooms were occupied.
   b. He didn't have enough money.
   c. The other rooms were not ready.
   d. He looked very strange.

8. According to the landlord, the man who came to his inn some time ago
   a. looked horrible.
   b. looked very suspicious.
   c. had a knife with them.
   d. wanted to stay there for 2 days.

9. According to the passage, which of the following is not true about the man killed?
   a. The landlord took him to his room.
   b. The letter will lock the door for him.
   c. He was left all alone in his room.
   d. He went to the hotel late in the afternoon.

10. What did the narrator decide to sleep at last?
    a. In room number 7.
    b. In the restaurant.
    c. In another hotel.
    d. On another floor.
THE STUDY OF INTERSEMIOTIC TRANSLATION OF “GONE WITH THE WIND” NOVEL IN TO FILM BASED ON SOJOODI’S MODEL

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ABSTRACT
The present research aimed at investigating the intersemiotic translation of the novel –Gone with the wind- (Mitchell,1939) as prototext in to its corresponding film as metatext to make a comparative study between the two semiotic systems of language and cinema in order to see how changes and differences of the prototext and metatext including two different sign systems, affect the process of adaptation. To fulfill this purpose, the researcher followed Sojoodi’s theory of stratificational semiotics (2008). Having seen the movie for numerous times and also reading the novel several times, the researcher extracted ten sequences of the movie and compared them with their corresponding texts. The author has attempted to make a comparative study between the two semiotic systems of language and cinema, taking an alternative view towards adaptation.According to Lhermitte (2005), film adaptation is an intersemiotic translation which involves the conversion of a particular system of signs in to a different configuration. Through investigating the intersemiotic translation and intertextual relations (addition, deletion and creation) between the novel and its corresponding film, it was found out that %77 of the prototext has been translated (repeated) in to the film. Moreover, data analysis revealed that only "deletion" and "creation" has been occurred in intersemiotic translation which have had a significant impact on the transferred concept. Twenty three percent of the prototext have been deleted and creation has been occurred three times. There were no added sections in the movie.

KEYWORDS: Semiotics, Intersemiotic Translation, Metatext, Prototext, Film Adaptation

INTRODUCTION
The last decade has witnessed a research shift in the focus of systemic functional approaches to multimodal discourse analysis (O’Halloran, 2007). Drawing on insights of Halliday’s social semiotic theory of language, the researchers in the 1990s were mainly interested in the extension of systemic – functional grammar to non-verbal semiotic resources and media including displayed art (O’Toole,1994), visual sign (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996) action (Martinec,1998)
and music (Van Leeuwen, 1999). By contrast, from the late 1990 onwards, meaning making across different modalities in multi-semiotic text becomes the focus of study. But what actually semiotics is and what semiotics involves?

Semiotics involves the study not only of what we refer to as ‘signs’ in everyday speech, but of anything which ‘stands for’ something else. In the semiotic sense, signs take the form of words, images, sounds, gestures and objects. Contemporary semioticians study sign not in isolation but as part of semiotic ‘sign-system’ (such as a medium or genre). They study how meaning is made and how reality is represented.

Theories of signs appear throughout the history of philosophy from the ancient times onwards (Todorov, 1982). However, the two primary tradition in contemporary semiotics stem respectively from the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1919) and the American philosopher Charles Sanders Pierce (1839-1914). Saussure referred to language as ‘the most important’ of all of the systems of signs (Saussure, 1983). Many other theorists have regarded language as fundamental. Roman Jacobson insisted that ‘language is the central and most important among all human semiotic systems’ (Jacobson, 1970).

Jacobson (2000) indentifies that there are three kinds of translation, i.e. intralingual, interlingual and intersemiotic. He believes that translation can take place within the same language (inter-translation), and even between two systems of signs (intersemiotic translation). She also states that intersemiotic translation, the third type of translation, involves the conversion of a particular system of signs in to a different configuration.

The key emphasis in Jacobson’s formulation is on the term "interpretation" and understandably. By giving several examples he tries to exemplify the purpose of all translations, which is in some ways a transfer from the source text to the target text, involving the process of communication from the sender to the receiver. But how does one address the question of translation equivalence in the third category that Jacobson mentions? One problem relates to translation equivalence, in which there is a lack of exact correspondence between single units in the source system and those of the target one.

The most common form of intersemiotic translation is translation of a literary work in to film. In recent years a considerable degree of interest has been developed in the semiology of the cinema, in the question whether it is possible to dissolve cinema criticism and cinema aesthetics in to a special province of the general science of signs. All the yardsticks that is applied to interlingual translation are applicable here too -equivalence, translation strategy, faithfulness to the original, etc. The dimensions like the natural changes that would accompany the transformation of material from one medium to another are also added.

The appropriate parameter to assess an intersemiotic translation would be the carrying through of meaning from the source system to the new representation. They are not supposed to be compared, for one is what the other has become.
It seems better to compare how the meaning of a text is rendered into a movie and in this rendering of meaning what changes have been applied on the text?

To this end the present survey has attempted to make a comparative study between the two semiotic systems of language and cinema, taking an alternative view towards adaptation. The researcher has undertaken to survey the intersemiotic translation process of novel in to the movie by applying Sojooodi (2008) stratificational approach. The aim has been to compare the intersemiotic translation processes between the two different sign systems of literature and cinema. Regarding the aforementioned systems, the researcher has compared the adaptable sequences of the movie ‘gone with the wind’ with the novel. Literary text and the cinematic production of the present research are respectively taken as the proto-text and the meta-text.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Q1: What is the frequency of the cinematic codes used in the intersemiotic translation of the novel –Gone with the wind-in to film?

Q2: What is the frequency of repetition or translation, addition, deletion or creation in the process of intersemiotic translation of the novel- Gone with the wind-in to film based on Sojooodi’s model?

Q3: what is the impact of deletions and additions?

**METHODOLOGY**

*Theoretical framework*

Jakobson (1959) introduced his own categorization of different types of translation as:

**Intralingual translation (rewording):** an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language.

**Interlingual translation (translation proper):** an interpretation of verbal signs by means of [signs of] some other language.

**Intersemiotic translation (transmutation):** an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of non-verbal sign system.

Jakobson introduced the concept of intersemiotic translation, which not only relates to Saussure's stratificational linguistic ideas to translation; but also amazingly widens the realms of translation to art, aesthetics, etc. The researcher decided to analyze two different sign systems – novel and film- according to the third part of Jakobson's intersemiotic translation as well as Farahzad’s approach in translation as an inter-textual function (2009). Farahzad believes that translation is partly repetition, partly creation and partly deletion. The aim of the present research is to show the frequency of repetition, creation and deletion in the intersemiotic translation process of novel in to the film. Stratificational semiotics is based on the existing theories, continuing them, and criticizing some of the key concepts of semiotics. In his theory of stratificational semiotics, Sojooodi argues that text is an open network consisting of different layers which are objective textual representations of different code systems. In fact, textual layers interrelate, and are realized and interpreted as a text and as an object resulting from the signifying
codes. Also, the relationship between text and code is bilateral, and code does not precede text. On the one hand, different codes involve in the creation and perception of a text, in other words, every text is a product of an interactive operation of a network of codes, and on the other hand, texts transform codes.

Aside from the relationship with texts, codes also relate to other codes. He also believes that text is physical and objective, so it is inevitably perceived by five senses or media—audio, visual, tactile, gustatory and olfactory. In contemporary world, texts are often perceived by audio-visual media. Furthermore, any medium needs a tool to communicate with its addressee. So television, radio, newspaper, book, internet, etc, are the tools that mediate between the medium and the addressee (Sojoodi, 2008).

**Corpus**

In the present research the literary text – Gone with the wind- and its cinematic production – its movie – selected as the corpus of the study, are respectively taken as the proto-text and meta-text. Checking more than 20 critics of the novel, the researcher came up with the comments emphasizing that the novel is a brilliant, powerful epic (Berardinelli, 2014; Puccio, 2004). However, there are disagreements on the theme of story. Margaret Mitchel herself has said that if the novel has a theme, it is survival. The novel presents many characters, some who survive, and many who do not. It can be said that It’s a story of peace and war, love and loss, hope and despair. More than that, it presents a chronological look at a time filled with uncertainty in America – the Civil War and Reconstruction – while also depicting the moral and psychological growth of its characters as they undergo dramatic changes to their way of life. Margaret Mitchell paints a vivid picture of life in the South, from belles and beaux to Yankees and Confederates and everything in between.

This epic melodrama, directed in 1939 by Victor Fleming, should be viewed less as a movie and more like an institution. Unlike any other piece of seventh art, it actually became the essential part of popular culture in this century. And this shouldn't surprise anyone, since GONE WITH THE WIND looks larger than all the other movies, almost in the same proportion in which an average movie looks larger than real life. Its epic 222-minute length is only partly responsible for such impression. The images of this film are the most recognisable, the scenes are the most memorable, the protagonists are the most iconic and the lines are the most quoted. More than 60 years after its premiere, there are still new generations of viewers ready to be enchanted by its mythical quality. Thus the popularity of GONE WITH THE WIND is perpetuated and it remains the most popular and the most beloved film of all times. (Antulov, 2000; Schuartz, 2004)

The characteristics of both the novel and the movie are summarized in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Novel</td>
<td>Gone with the wind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movie</td>
<td>Gone with the wind</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: The characteristics of the corpus

![IJLLALW logo]
Procedure

The main purpose of the present study was analyzing intersemiotic translation process between the two different code systems -text and cinema. The researcher has selected ten sequences of the movie “Gone with the wind” which is taken as the metatext, with the corresponding sections of the novel “Gone with the wind” which is taken as the prototext. The rationale behind choosing the sequences comes back to the precise reading of the whole story in detail and about twenty criticisms as well. The main theme of the novel is war and the main character's (Scarlett's) personality. The plot is consisted of three main sections: pre war, the war, and after war periods. Since the corresponding sections in the film are the shortest period as the prewar, and afterwar and the war as the longest one respectively; the researcher has selected the main sequences from the war period and the rest from the two others. Therefore, from the total ten selected sequences, one of them is selected from pre war, three sequences from after war, and the remaining six sequences from the war period. Each selected sequence is divided in to its shuts and each shut is divided in to codes by which the producer has converted the novel in to film. The researcher has compared the adapted film with the novel to see what parts of the prototext have been repeated in the metatext, what parts have been created and what parts have been deleted. To clarify the process of data collection, the details of the cinematic codes used as the basis of the analysis in this study, are illustrated in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Cinematic code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Camera shots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Camera angle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Camera movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lighting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Fade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Dissolve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Sound effects(SFX)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Silence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Actor/actress(face appearance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Make up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Cinematic codes

1) An extreme shot
2) A long shot
3) A full shot
4) A mid shot
5) A close-up shot
6) An extreme close-up shot

1) A bird's eye angle
2) A high angle
3) An eye-level angle
4) A low angle
5) A Dutch angle

1) A crane shot
2) A tracking shot
3) A dolly shot
4) Panning
5) Tilt
6) Crab
7) Hand-held camera
8) Process shot
9) An Evangelion shot

1) fade in
2) fade out

1) diegetic (ambient sound, room tone, dialogue, sound motifs)
2) non-diegetic (music or voice over)
A sample of the details of the analysis procedure is illustrated in figure 1.

*Figure 1*: Comparing the selected texts of the novel with its corresponding sequences of the movie
The present research is a descriptive – corpus based study. Selecting a descriptive approach, the researcher attempted to analyze the meta-text in relation to its corresponding proto-text within the framework generated through the study. The researcher attempted to describe and compare the intersemiotic translation between the novel –Gone with the wind- and its corresponding adapted film. So, the cinematic codes were defined. These cinematic codes (such as sounds, color, camera shots, etc) are used by the director (the intersemiotic translator) to demonstrate the frequency of deletion, addition or creation in the process of translating the novel in to film.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The intersemiotic translation of texts in to the movie sequences has been done using the cinematic codes. The codes were evaluated and then classified with regard to the Sojoodi’s stratificational model. The tables of the cinematic codes are presented in Appendix 1. The results are demonstrated as follow: The proportions of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for each sequence are shown in figures 2 to 11:

Figure 2: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 1
Figure 3: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 2

Figure 4: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 3
Figure 5: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 4

Figure 6: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 5
Figure 7: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 6

Figure 8: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 7
Figure 9: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 8

Figure 10: The Proportion of cinematic codes and excluded paragraphs for sequence 9
Figures 2 to 11 demonstrate the approximate use of each cinematic code in the sequences one to ten. It can be seen that generally most of the codes are used equally; only the cinematic code “dissolve” had been used once. So, it is deleted in statistical analysis of the findings of the present research. Moreover, one of the interesting findings of the study was the occurrence of “deletion” which has been occurred in most of the sequences and “creation” which has been occurred in some of the sequences.

Next, the mean of the main cinematic codes used for all 10 examined sequences was calculated. The results are shown in the table 4 and figures 12:

Table 4: Mean of the Main Cinematic Codes Used For All 10 Examined Sequences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cinematic codes</th>
<th>The no of sequences which have used the cinematic codes</th>
<th>The average of using cinematic codes in sequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cam. Shots</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cam. Angels</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.3000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cam mov.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5.5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fade</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sound effect</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.8889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colour</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor/Actress</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make up</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.8000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>6.8725</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As table 5 indicates based on the analysis of variance of the 10 examined sequences (sig<0.05) so, there is a significant difference in the use of cinematic codes.

So the answer for the first question is shown in table 6:

Table 5: Analysis of Variance Test in 10 Examined Sequences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>520.888</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>52.089</td>
<td>7.424</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>638.456</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>7.016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1159.343</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 12: Mean of Different Cinematic Codes For All 10 Sequences.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Overall Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>013</td>
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<td>020</td>
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<td>021</td>
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<td>050</td>
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<td>063</td>
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<tr>
<td>070</td>
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<td>071</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>073</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>080</td>
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<td>081</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>082</td>
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<td>083</td>
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<td>090</td>
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<tr>
<td>092</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>093</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: The percentage of different cinematic codes used in each sequence.
Figure 12 displays the mean of different cinematic codes for all 10 sequences. According to the figure, it is concluded that in translating the text into movie, the cinematic code “sound” has the highest frequency and the cinematic code “fade” has the lowest one.

Moreover, in order to answer the second research question, the sequences were analyzed to find out whether there is any “deletion” or “addition” or “creation” and the results are shown in table 7, figure 13 and figure 14.

Table 7: The proportions of “deletion” and “creation” in the intersemiotic translation of novel –Gone with the wind– in to movie

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sequence</th>
<th>No. paragraphs</th>
<th>No. excluded paragraphs</th>
<th>No. creation</th>
<th>Proportion of excluded paragraphs</th>
<th>Proportion of creation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 13: The Proportion of Excluded Paragraphs In Each Sequence
According to table 7 and figure 13 and 14, it can be concluded that only “deletion” and “creation” has been occurred in the process of intersemiotic translation. There was no added section in the movie. However, in sequences 2, 3, 4 there are examples of “creation” and, “deletion” has been occurred in 8 out of the 10 sequences.

The high percentage of this occurrence is probably due to the high volume of the text which cannot be entirely converted to the movie.

As table 7 shows, the total number of the paragraphs are one hundred and nine (109). Twenty five paragraphs (23%) have been deleted and creation has been occurred three times (3%). So, it can be concluded that seventy seven percent (77%) of the source text has been translated in to the target text and out of the seventy seven percent (77%), in three percent (3%) “creation” can be seen.

The answer of the third question is actually based on the analysis which had been done by the researcher and is explained in the discussion part of the study.

**Discussion**

This research was conducted in order to find out whether there is any deletion or addition in translating the novel in to movie. The results indicate that there is no “addition” but “deletion” has been occurred in 8 sequences of the 10 sequences and this is a remarkable event. These deletions may have occurred due to the different reasons. The novel is of a considerable volume and the author has attempted to incorporate different issues in the story at the same time:

1) War and its destructive effects on people’s lives
2) Complicated characterization, the role of destiny, the character’s reaction to life events.

The text is a single sign system and the author could bring all the intended events and conditions by using the single sign system. But since the movie is a multi-sign system, converting the story with its details is a very demanding task and leads to excessive prolongation of the film. However, there are
some cases of deletion which can directly affect on the audience’s interpretation of the characters’ personality and behavior.

For example in the first sequence which is the beginning of the story, “buying darkee by the Scarlett’s father” has been entirely deleted. Scarlett’s father paid a high cost for the darkee. Darkee was a little daughter; his intention was in fact to take care of her. This shows Scarlett’s father’s kindness and amiability. The author intends to emphasize this characteristic at the beginning of the story and then let the reader judge on both the father and Scarlett’s personalities. Deletion of the first scene deprives the audience of being allowed to have such a judgment.

Another example is the deletion of Melani’s aunt. She is entirely deleted in the movie; so, her impact on the story is also deleted.

Another important issue implied is the occurrence of “creation”. The director has changed the order of the events. For example, in the second sequence it can be seen that Melani first put her wedding ring in the gifts’ basket and Scarlett did the same whereas it is quite vice versa in the novel. This “creation” shows the characteristics of Scarlett and Melani differently and makes a kind, sympathetic and devoted picture of Melani in the minds of the viewer’s and on the other hand shows Scarlett as a selfish and jealous woman. A little “creation” caused a big change in the actress’ characteristic.

So, it can be concluded that “deletion “and “creation” which had been occurred clearly in this story, have a significant effect on the transferred concept.

CONCLUSION
The results of the present research shows that the movie cannot be the entirely similar translation of the text and parts of concepts are changed in the process of intersemiotic translation. They may entirely be deleted or converted to another form. All these changes are affective factors in the intended impact of the movie.

Another issue which is implied of this research is the role of the director. According to the old perspective of translation, it means the replacement of an original text (known as the source text) with a substitute one (known as a target text). But it is a translator who does the act of translation and has a significant role in the process of translation.

In the intersemiotic translation, the director plays the role of a translator. In discussing the impact of translator in the proper translation, different factors are concerned such as the social level of the translator, his/her situation in the family, the financial, etc. All of these factors affects the act of a director in the process of filmmaking. This research shows the important role of a director because he/she is forced to choose among different cinematic codes and manage them so skilled and subtly to create the same impact of the novel.

There are obviously obstacles in the way of every research. Contrary to the great interest in the field of intersemeiotics, the number of articles and books related to them and specially related to adaptation
strategy, are few. Another limitation posed to this study is in the line with the corpus which is a movie only available in the black market.

It is obvious that there are so many fields in interdisciplinary studies but in this study the researcher just focuses on the intersemiotic translation of novel to movie.

REFERENCES

ارتباطات بين فرهنگی: ترجمه و نقش آن در فرآیندهای جذب و طرد نشانه شناسی: نظریه و عمل
HOW THE REPRESSIVE IDEOLOGIES OF THE COLONIZER WORK IN *HEART OF DARKNESS*

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ABSTRACT

With the beginning of the 20th century, England entered into a period much like the Victorian era with its strict hierarchy of social classes, master-servant relationship, and political, social and economic stabilities. Written in 1902, at the beginning of the Edwardian period, *Heart of Darkness* represents a subjective review of an area where many repressive ideologies established by the Victorian colonizers work latently in another underdeveloped country in order to achieve economic gain and perpetual subordination of the African society to the British Crown and government. These ideologies are so abstruse that they are not recognized by the docile native blacks who are incapable to discern them under the deceiving mask of benevolence and righteousness. *Heart of Darkness* is a personal record of what has happened in Congo from its first exploration in 1876 to Conrad's travel there in 1890 and the publication of his work in 1902. The unclassifiable and paradoxical Conrad who sets his novel against the imperialist colonizers is ambivalent in portraying the black natives. The ideological language which is employed by the narrator, Marlow, is coalesced with racism, and thus is not very kind and appropriate. In this novel, Conrad tries to clarify how these fake ideological programs of those in power are internalized and naturalized in the black subjects, and how they sustain, reinforce, commodify, and alienate the natives in order to ravage their country and the natural resources to make their history; the history which, by no means, can be treated as an authentic record, since it is written by a biased writer. Here, one can also recognize that even Conrad and his white characters such as Marlow and Kurtz are not spared from these ideological programs which have previously controlled their thoughts and attitudes.

KEYWORDS: *Heart of Darkness*, repressive ideologies, Joseph Conrad, imperialism, interpellation

INTRODUCTION

Marxists are condemned of having no belief in spirituality or any religion. They are criticized of not believing in God and it is because of their emphasis on materials, the real force creating the human experience and structuring human societies. In Marxist terminology, the economic condition referred to as material condition and the ideological atmosphere is generated from a material condition which is called a historical condition. All human events are the results of material/historical condition and have nothing to do with spirituality. These context-related
ideological programs differ in different times and different places, in other words, there is a strong relation between ideologies and the context consisting of these programs. Terry Eagleton (1976) defines ideologies as "the ideas, values and feelings by which men experience their societies at different times"(p.viii).

In his collaborated work with Angle, *The Eighteenth Brumaire*, Marx refers to the theological and political leaders such as, Luther and Cromwell:

They needed to deceive themselves by the use of representation, because they had to believe their cause was absolutely righteous and true. In fact, from a latter historical perspective, their struggles can be seen to have advanced the nascent capitalism, and thus to have served a particular class of people in the name of all humanity.”(qtd. in Hawks, 1996, p.93)

What Marx declares is the difference between the real existence and imaginary representation which is totally different from the truth found in real life. For Marx it is the representation that exerts its influence, deceives and reinforces the naïve people whose minds are predisposed to deception. He challenges these simulacra that make the good subjects—a reinforced individual by the ideologies—unable to distinguish between these two totally opposite realms of imaginary spiritualism and real materialism.

Marx believes that these leaders influence and handle the people by a very strong and secret medium called ideology. He notes "ideology consists of an inability to recognize the mediating function of representation, in assuming that it is an autonomous sphere, and thus mistaking the appearance for the thing-in-self” (qtd. in Hawks, 1996, p.98). It is therefore the ideologically-based sign or representation which is mistaken for the material existence and reality.

The post Marxist critic, Louis Althusser, in his substantial essay, "Ideology and Ideological State Apparatuses" mentions: "Ideology represents the imaginary relationship of individuals to their real condition of existence"(qtd. in Rivkin & Ryan, 2004, p.693). He divides ideologies into different categories and outlooks such as religious ideology, ethical ideology, legal ideology and political ideology. Althusser equals ideology to illusion; he declares:

While admitting that they do not correspond to reality, i.e. that they constitute an illusion, we admit that they do make allusion to reality, and that they need only be 'interpreted' to discover the reality of the world behind their imaginary representation of the world (ideology = illusion/allusion). (qtd. in Rivkin & Ryan, 2004, p.693 )

Althusser's view is highly influenced by Antonio Gramsci's idea of hegemony. Hegemony is the concept of domination which is closely related to the notion of ideology. Gramsci believes that it results in spontaneous consent to the dominant values in the society, the society which is dominated by the capitalism. Hegemony makes the individuals unconsciously accept their subordination and become good and non-revolutionary subjects. Gramsci believes that the dominant class intellectuals exercise on the individuals the function of hegemony which comprises, "the 'spontaneous' consent given by the great masses of the population to the general
direction imposed on social life by the dominant fundamental group" (qtd. in Rivkin & Ryan, 2004, p.673).

What all the Marxists accentuate is the imagery and contrary to fact nature of the ideologies. For them, these programs are exercised by the capitalists in order to persuade the good subjects obviate their infelicitous and defective necessities. They contend these illusions need to be interpreted so that the grievous and severe purpose beneath them become apparent and they can be challenged and disapproved by aware people who do not unconsciously accept these repressive programs as natural and incontrovertible.

DISCUSSION

Marxist critics see literature as a mirror reflecting society. They claim that no text can be understood in isolation and without its context; text is the product of a society which consists of different ideologies created by those in power. Therefore, these are the ideologies which handle the writer and his work and the writer's job is only to expound upon these manipulative programs. Marxists argue that, though the writer finds the ideologies oppressive and disapproves them; she/he is inevitably controlled by them because she/he is a subject of his/her society and literature is a superstructure of the government with definite ideological function. In Heart of Darkness which is set against the corruption caused by imperialism, Conrad is only a witness to what has been done in a colonized country and his passive hero, Marlow, who is like a cameraman recording what he sees without even a gesture against imperialism or becoming a revolutionary character confronting the ideologies of his own government. He is an ambivalent and powerless hero incapable of facing the capitalist government and its ideological programs because he is inevitably controlled by the ideologies as Conrad is. In his polemic essay, "An Image of Africa", which is set against Conrad, Achebe (1977) condemns Conrad of being predisposed and handled by Western thinking:

Conrad did not originate the image of Africa which we find in his book. It was and is the dominant image of Africa in the Western imagination and Conrad merely brought the peculiar gifts of his own mind to bear on it (p. 8).

There are ambivalent comments concerning Joseph Conrad and Heart of Darkness. This novel is assumed as an anti-colonialist novel by many critics such as Hawkins (1979), who finds Marlow as a "sympathetic character":

Although using the language of his time, he calls them 'niggers' and 'savages', he feels that, unlike the imperialists, 'they wanted no excuse for being there'… Marlow is sufficiently sensitive to their culture to realize that in Africa drums might have "as profound a meaning as the sounds of bells in a Christian country (p.296).

Quite different from what Hawkins (1979) has declared, the post-colonial critic, Edward Said (1994), shows the other side of the coin. In Culture and Imperialism, he puts forward:
Marlow's audience is English, and Marlow himself penetrates to Kurtz's private domain as an inquiring Western mind trying to make sense of an apocalyptic revelation. Most readings rightly call attention to Conrad's skepticism about the colonial enterprise, but they rarely remark that in telling the story of his African journey Marlow repeats and confirms Kurtz's action: restoring Africa to European hegemony by historicizing and narrating its strangeness (p.164).

For another post-colonial writer, Chinua Achebe (1977), the African people are dehumanized, decanonized and marginalized in this novel. They are portrayed as non-existent in their own country and Conrad has renounced even the ability of speech from them. In his critique of Heart of Darkness, Achebe (1977) mentions:

It is not Conrad’s purpose to confer language on the ‘rudimentary souls’ of Africa. In place of speech they made ‘a violent babble of uncouth sounds.’ They ‘exchanged short grunting phrases’ even among themselves. But most of the times they were too busy with their frenzy (p. 3).

These contradictory views on Conrad are based on his paradoxical and ambivalent nature as Terry Eagleton (1978) remarks:

Conrad neither believes in the cultural superiority of the colonialist nations, nor rejects colonialism outright. The message of Heart of Darkness is that Western civilization is at base as barbarous as African society- a view point which disturbs imperialist assumptions to the precise degree that it reinforces them (p.135).

In Marxism and Literary Criticism, Eagleton (1976) states:
The pessimism of Conrad's world view is rather a unique transformation into art of an ideological pessimism rife in his period—a sense of history as futile and cyclical, of individuals as impenetrable and solitary, of human values as relativistic and irrational, which marks a drastic crisis in the ideology of the Western bourgeois class to which Conrad allied himself (p.7).

What is certain about him is that Conrad is highly pessimistic about the nature of human beings and the struggle for reform and improvement. Conrad's contempt for both idealism and materialism is shown in his letters to R.B. Cunninghame; he argues:

Reform is ultimately futile, because human nature is selfish and brutal (letters 5, 8, 17, 18, and 31); because there are no absolute moral criteria, so that one has at best a choice of illusion; and because humanity is at any case destined to perish of cold, amid a mechanistic and soulless universe (letters 4, 5, 7 and 18); so that even consciousness itself may be regarded as an evil, because its survey of our condition removes the illusion of freedom to improve our state (letters 4 and 9). (qtd. in Watts, 1969, p.24)

In letter five Conrad addresses Cunninghame:
You are a most hopeless idealist-your aspirations are irresistible. You want from men faith, honour, fidelity to truth in themselves and others. . . . . what makes you dangerous is your
unwarrantable belief that your desire may be realized. This is the only point of difference between us. (qtd. in Watts, 1969, p.6)

Whether written from a racist point of view or not, *Heart of Darkness* shows both the superiority of the whites over the blacks and the evil of imperialism. Conrad who has witnessed the idealism and the materialism of the colonizers attacks the British colonialism though he does not defend the oppressed blacks anyway by showing them as voiceless, non-revolutionary, and docile subjects much like domestic animals. Conrad shows how the oppressive ideologies of the European colonizer, such as imperialism, rugged individualism, education, religion and classicism manipulate, commodify and finally alienate the docile and obedient black subjects who are made to believe, by the false and illusionary concepts, that they are inferior to the superior intelligent whites and for this reason they need their guidance, theological teachings and superintendence.

Congo was the last part of Africa to yield to European explorers. Its colonization refers to its first exploration in 1876 by the Welsh Journalist, Henry Morton Stanly till 1885 when it was affixed as a personal property of King Leoplod II of Belgium. Conrad acknowledges that *Heart of Darkness* is based on his own experiences during his trips to Congo in 1890. Being a witness to the brutal treatment of the natives, hypocrisy, exploitation, and disparity between imperialism's rhetoric and harsh reality, Conrad attempts to show through Marlow the very unjust heart of imperialism to the readers. He shows how imperialism, aided by the other companion ideologies, leaves catastrophic consequences in a primitive society and devastates it from within. Conrad depicts a satiric and skeptical treatment of imperialism which not only destroys the colonized country but also ruins the capitalism's voracious agent, Kurtz. He shows how with a mien of benevolence this ideology is the first cause for the intruders to justify their terrible deeds without regarding the colonized country.

Imperialism is rooted from the Latin word "imperium" meaning to rule over large territories. As the definition signifies desiring much and even to extreme, the word is thus no different from avarice which is the connotation of this ideology.

The very famous sentence of *Heart of Darkness* is a key to the aim of imperialism. "The conquest of the earth . . . mostly means the taking it away from those who have a different complexion or slightly flatter noses than ourselves" (Conrad, 1999, p.34). In this novel, imperialism is felt everywhere, it is interesting that there is no sense of God in this place; in other words, God is the ever absent agent because the imperialism is the ultimate power in this place. Here the idealism of the European countries and the material condition matters; imperialism is the ultimate and powerful god here which is embodied in the apparently godly creature, Kurtz. Marlow says, "All Europe contributed to the making of Kurtz; and by and by I learned that, most appropriately, the International Society for the Suppression of Savage Customs had intrusted him with the making of a report, for its future guidance." (Conrad, 1999, p.77). Marlow is cognizant of the innate fake existence of imperialism and is highly skeptical about it. "I've seen the devil of violence, and the devil of greed, and the devil of hot desire; but, by all the stars! These were strong, lusty, red-eyed
devils, that swayed and drove men—men I tell you" (Conrad, 1999, p.44). What Marlow says about imperialism is the avarice which results in ravage and robbery along with violence.

Imperialism reinforces the second repressive ideology, rugged individualism. It focuses on the individual glory and encourages the individual deeds. Though devastating the other countries creates many devilish enemies, it makes these devils the national heroes of the colonizer's nation. Imperialism justifies the attack to another country and prepares its force by deceiving the individuals to reinforce it. The best example is Kurtz with his unspeakable lusts and desires. Marlow says: "Mr. Kurtz lacked restraint in the gratification of his various lusts that was something wanting in him" (Conrad, 1999, p.86). Kurtz searches for glory; consequently, he is sent to a primitive place to find it. Although the natives are afraid of him, they worship this charismatic hero who has stepped even further and become a god for them. This individualism though made him the powerful god among these people, is the most important cause of his destruction because his desires are all united in the avarice for wealth and stability of power. Kurtz wants to be the perpetual and autonomous powerful god there, but he is only an agent of the more powerful and more voracious imperialist authorities who cannot exempt such transgression. His desire for wealth makes him first detached from his fiancée and then from his benefactors. He has chosen a native girl and established a private property; that is to say, he has betrayed both his fiancée and his benefactors. Kurtz is so much deceived by this fake individualism that he thinks he deserves all he has gained so far; no more he sends ivory to the station because he deems that he is an independent person and the ivories are his property but he is just an agent and nothing more. White (1993) argues: "imperialism is enabled by an idealism that is and must remain ignorant of what imperialism actually means in practice" (p.178). Much deceived by this imaginary relationship, Kurtz and his property must be confiscated and the authorities send Marlow for this mission to return the guilty, voracious, and idealist Kurtz who has gone so far and needs to be removed from that critical station.

The private property which Kurtz has established detaches him from his masters and makes him powerful enough to challenge those for whom he has been sent to this place; Kurtz has many faithful servants who serve him faithfully and thus they are the threat for the imperialist employers, as the attack to Marlow's ship attests to this. This property also demands slavery and makes a master-servant relationship between Kurtz and the natives. It is what the idealist Kurtz has considered before going there; indeed, Kurtz has gone there only for idealist and materialist motives. "Kurtz is an embodiment of all the evils created by free enterprise in a capitalist system. His inordinate passion for ivory in the Congo can attest to this." (qtd in Sardar, 2014, p.29)

Kurtz is at the heart of imperialism and the imaginary individualism caused by it. He is both the embodiment and the victim of imperialism. Conrad tries to show how imperialism and its agents are corrupt and greedy and how the covetous and corrupt government removes its agent when its profit is not ensured. Kurtz is highly voracious, materialist, idealist and morally corrupt; that is, he is all that Conrad detests. Beach believes:

Kurtz is a personal embodiment, a dramatization of all that Conrad felt of futility, degradation, and horror in what the Europeans in the Congo called 'progress,' which meant the exploitation of
the natives by every variety of cruelty and treachery known to greedy man. (qtd. in Alcorn, 1994, p.160)

The second repressive ideology is education. Marxist critics assume education as a superstructure offered by the capitalists to stay in power by reinforcing the subjectivity of the individuals through making the false consciousness that the educated are better therefore must be obeyed. Here the whites are better than the blacks because they are educated and the blacks are ignorant. The black subjects then need a guide for being directed and this ideology convinces the blacks to attest to the whites' superiority. Tyson (2006) says:

To colonize the consciousness of subordinate people means to convince them to see their situation the way the imperialist nation wants them to see, to convince them, for example, that they are mentally, spiritually, and culturally inferior to their conquerors and that their lot will be improved under the 'guidance' and 'protection' of their new leaders (p.63).

In this novel, the chief accountant is depicted as a very polished, high class, and educated person who is revered by the natives because his prestige needs a compulsory reverence. Marlow, when he first meets him, says: "I respected the fellow. Yes; I respected his collars, his vast cuffs, his brushed hair. His appearance was certainly that of a hairdresser's dummy; but in the great demoralization of the land he kept up his appearance" (Conrad, 1999, p.45). He is the only person who is identified as an educated person and because of being culturally and mentally superior to the primitive blacks; he is deemed very different from them. The blacks are pictured as animals; they are almost naked, they yell and are frightening to see but this polished and educated agent is very sensitive about his books. "He was devoted to his books, which were in apple-pie order" (Conrad, 1999, p.46). Not only reverence but also worship is granted to Kurtz who is spiritually superior to the natives. He is a religiously knowledgeable person who not only avoids educating these people but also aims to exterminate all of them. Kurtz is a god for them but a contradictory one who is about to suppress them along with their savage custom.

This ideology which is portrayed through the imperialist agents, the chief accountant and Kurtz, is the illusionary light in the middle of darkness; the darkness which is supposed to get luminescent by the existence of these educated whites but gets darker in order not to disclose their true purpose of presence. One egregiously oppressed individual by the British education and behavior is the helmsman, the dressed navigator who is the only black person that speaks English. He thinks that by learning the colonizers' language and behavior he can be different from other natives. In postcolonial terminology it is called "Mimicry (the attempt of the colonized to be accepted by imitating the dress, behavior, speech, and lifestyle of the colonizers)" (Tyson, 2006, p.427). What the Helmsman does is but a tacit acceptance of his inferiority to the superior whites. He is an oppressed black who is neither identified by his own culture nor can be equal to the colonizers. He is caught between two agnostic cultures with any of which he can identify himself.

The next repressive ideology is religion. Marxists believe that religion is a very powerful program of the upper-class society to hold the lower-class in their inferior place and subdue them.
That is why the Marxists are devoid of religion which is defined by those seemingly superior capitalists. They declare that, religion, that is a supreme ideology of the upper class in a split society, completely disappears in a classless one, a Utopian-like place where there is no upper, middle, and lower classes, or in other words where people are all equal. In Congo, the Christian Europeans are the superior and the pagan Africans are the inferior because the whites know the way to get to Heaven but the blacks are doomed to go to Hell. Though the real religion promulgates that all the people are equal, the manipulated one sternly claims the fallible people are doomed to suffer and must be guided and restrained for the sake of their own soul. It claims that those with the genuine religion are the superiors and the heretic superstitious people have to obey these men who are close to God. This ideology is another strong excuse to ravage a primitive culture and territory. It is ironical that there is neither a sense of God nor at least a Bible existent in this place, and though their religious leader—Kurtz, is morally degenerate, he is worshiped by the docile and subjugated natives who think of him as a spiritual being. Kurtz is a false god from the upper-class who uses religion to exterminate all the savage customs when unnecessary, though for the time being he reinforces these savage and superstitious deeds in order to be worshiped by the natives and to stay in power. Indeed, were not Kurtz believed as a spiritual character, he would not gain neither the wealth nor the strong position and support of the natives. The customs are wrong and Kurtz is a false person who takes the advantage of this ignorance.

Another ideology which the Marxists strongly detest and disapprove is classism or hierarchy which results in corruption, abuse, and cruel inequity. It is a discriminatory concept which divides the individuals into many distinct and different groups. The group which is deemed to be better gains the power and the inferior groups accept it as superior and acquiesce to its domination. In *Heart of Darkness*, this class difference makes the inferior place of the blacks permanent and reinforces their subjectivity not to revolt against these ostensibly heavenly but innately corrupt white men. Here, the whites have monopolized the power because they are affluent, educated, religious, and hero like but the natives are weak, ignorant, heretic and animal like. The whites have names and titles such as chief accountant, Marlow, manager, Kurtz, and the like but Conrad has withdrawn not only names but also speech from the black people and their primitive place of living which is several times compared to darkness. Marlow calls it one of the darkest places of the earth and deliberately detaches himself from the people and their living place. When prepared to travel with the black crews, Marlow says:

The idleness of a passenger, my isolation among these men with whom I had no point to contact, the oily and languid sea, the uniform somberness of the coast, seemed to keep me away from the truth of things, within the toil of a mournful and senseless delusion. (Conrad, 1999, p.41)

What the prejudiced Marlow wants to signify is the nausea he feels because of the inappropriateness of being in a place where he cannot share anything with those inferiors who cannot perceive him a bit. What Marlow says shows that though he disapproves imperialism he cannot deny that he, as an agent of imperialism, is superior to them.
The last ideology is Stalinism which is both a style of government and a political ideology. After the death of Lenin, Joseph Stalin rose to gain the power. Stalin was highly criticized by Trotsky as rude in manner and ambitious in desires. He was an absolute dictator who distorted Marxism along with its supposed Utopia. He executed those who were against him; and though he called himself "pupil of Lenin" he put on trial and executed every single member of Lenin's leadership team and strangled the freedom which Lenin and Marx fought for. Stalinism is an extremely suppressive ideology which concentrates and centralizes the power in an aggressive person or policy and is characterized by the extreme suppression of dissenting political and ideological views. In *Heart of Darkness*, Kurtz centralizes and monopolizes the power. He considers the place he is living in as his own and with the help of the native force, he represses all the dissident and agnostic groups. To protect his policy, this ambitious leader orders the attack to the ship which belongs to his own company. When Marlow gets to the central station, he observes the heads of dissenting rebels on the stakes under Kurtz's window and later on he realizes that Kurtz is there to exterminate all the brutes and suppress savage customs. Kurtz is a covetous and absolute leader like Stalin who for being in power does all sorts of evil things.

In order to be transferred, these ideologies need to be interpellated or put into the heads of the individuals. Interpellation is the creation of a servile subject (that is continually ideological) through hailing. These subjects willingly accept the values and rules which are not definitely theirs but are imposed on them (though they do not recognize it). In *Heart of Darkness*, the colonizers have completely interpellated the natives. The members of Eldorado Exploring Expedition, the crews of Marlow's ship, and Kurtz's protecting army are all natives who serve the capitalist whites. These people search for, protect, and work for those white men who constitute and control their society. Indeed serving them is an obligation which they have accepted freely. Marlow tries to hail the readers by calling the black crews of his ship "pilgrims". The hailed readers accept Marlow as a sympathetic character who avoids discrimination and is so generous to call them pilgrims, a name that signifies the blacks as shipmates rather than servants or instruments; the conscious readers, however, doubt him because Marlow's words by which he modifies the native are inherently mixed with racism.

When for the first time Marlow faces the Eldorado Exploring Expedition gang, he says: "this devoted band called itself the Eldorado Exploring Expedition, and I believe they were sworn to secrecy" (Conrad, 1999, p.58). The devotion which Marlow talks of is granted to the uncle of the manager who is an agent of capitalism. Marlow also sees even more devotion in those who work for, protect and worship Kurtz. Kurtz is a god and his subjects worship him not solely out of belief but also out of obligation.

When the ideologies are interpellated and prevailed over the subjects, they alienate and commodify them. There are two different kinds of alienation in this novel. The first is alienation from self and labor, or in other words, dissociation from the product and labor. Here the workers are paid to gain ivories which are going to be transferred and sold in another country. They are alienated from their labor which is changed into a product that is specified to the whites. Marlow says: "I don’t like work—no man does—but I like what is in the work,— the chance to find yourself. Your own reality—for yourself, not for others—what no other man can ever know"
It is very ironical to own the products, the producing place, and be the medium of production but have nothing of your own production. Their country is despoiled and is supposed to become the prospective market place of not their own but their European masters who ravage the sources and sell European commodities by which they can still exert their influence. This alienation is not only unjust at the time being but also in the future because it makes the existence of the colonizers stable even after leaving this country.

The other form of alienation which is detected in this novel is alienation from others. In a capital society which labor is treated as a commodity, people assume one another only as tools necessary to obviate their needs. Love, sympathy and humanity are missing in such societies. In Congo, the only black female character is a tool for Kurtz's sexual satisfaction. Besides, being portrayed as domestic animals and nonexistent others, the natives are depicted as commodity; they are explorers, porters, protectors, workers and crew without at least a bit share of power. Marlow speaks about the black helmsman: "for month I had him at my back-a help-an instrument. It was a kind of partnership" (Conrad, 1999, p.78). The partnership that Marlow talks of is but a master-servant relationship; Marlow is actually his master not his partner. This alienation has also affected Marlow and Kurtz. Kurtz is alienated from his fiancée and has completely forgotten his love. Marlow is completely changed after returning from the journey and it sounds the capitalist ideologies have not left any one unaffected in that dark place. This time Marlow shows his detest of his attitude towards his fellow citizens. When he returns from the journey, he finds himself among the people whom he hates:

I found myself back in the sepulchral city resenting the sight of people hurrying through the streets to filch a little money from each other, to devour their infamous cookery, to gulp their unwholesome beer, to dream their insignificant and silly dreams. (Conrad, 1999, p.99)

What Marlow observes in the city is the evil of colonizers manifested in their own people. The alienated Marlow sees them defective and blamable but is unaware of his own faults which are reflected in the people who act as a mirror. Very much like the German philosopher, Arthur Schopenhauer who believes that a man sees everything in a mirror but his own face, Marlow who is afflicted by the darkness he is living in, finds the faults with these people but is unaware of his own shortcomings. Schopenhauer declares:

A man can see other people's shortcomings and vices but is blind to his own. This arrangement has one advantage: it turns other people into a kind of mirror, in which a man can see clearly everything that is vicious, faulty, ill-bred and loathsome in his own nature. . . . He who criticizes others, works at the reformation of himself. (qtd. in Nazari, 2000, p.26)

If all these ideologies be placed in their historical setting at the end of the 19th century and if the novel be scrutinized from a new historical way of evaluating history that contends, history is subjective, the writing of history is a matter of interpretation, no objective truth exists, and there is only access to the basic facts. The text of the novel is therefore only an interpretation of history where different discourses interacting with each other. About Conrad, Edward Genet argues: "his metaphor is revealing, implying as it does that history, a text inscribed by writers, is a fallible,
human endeavor subject to various distortions, not the monolithic, monologic narrative it was often assumed to be" (qtd. in White, 1993, p. 173). Brook Thomas scrutinizes *Heart of Darkness* against the traditional view of history and points out:

Conrad's novel debunks the traditional historicist belief that history is progressive, that human species improves over time; and its narrative structure, which obscures plot behind a hazy veil of subjective description, implies that we do not have access to a clear, unbiased view of the past. (qtd. in Tyson, 2006, p. 293)

This uncertainty and subjective analysis is also remarked by the Marxist critic Fredric Jameson who describes Conrad's position an unstable and his works as uncertain: "his place is still unstable, undecidable, and his work unclassifiable, . . . floating uncertainly somewhere in between Proust and Louis Stevenson" (qtd. in Nazari, 2000, p. 15).

The only objective truths and basic facts in *Heart of Darkness* are therefore as such: there is a clash between two nations; the powerful whites win it against the weak blacks; their ideologies prevail over and omit the colonized nation's ideologies gradually; the whites gain the power and their ideologies are established; the blacks are expelled from the canon and become the others of their own society; they are deceived and reinforced by these ideological programs, and the European colonizers ravage their lands and its sources on this account. What Marlow seeks to disclose is a voice in this mute nation but these people are so manipulated by the ideologies that they become non-revolutionary, speechless, passive, and docile subjects. If they talk a bit, that is the colonizer's language; if they fight, they fight for the European masters; if they work it is for the foreigners; if they search for money and benefit, they grant it to the masters and if they worship a god, it is the foreigner Kurtz. It is then the colonizer's ideologies that make the history of the so called primitive Africans who are, in colonizer's point of view, less developed, uncivilized, barbarous, lawless, Godless, and highly superstitious and for these forged reasons the colonizers become dominant.

**CONCLUSION**

Joseph Conrad who sees the evil of imperialism and other ideological programs is ambivalent in portraying what he has once experienced during his travel to Congo. He calls the British presence unjust but his narrator Marlow is not very sympathetic towards the black subjects. Marlow indeed calls them savage and primitive people who are like obedient and mute animals; in other words, though Marlow is against the British ideological programs, he does nothing to stop them. Being completely sympathetic or a revolutionary character is impossible for the ambivalent Marlow because his ambivalent creator, Conrad, is not identifiable by any mode. He once defends colonialist ideologies through decanonicalizing and portraying the blacks as inferior and another time resists the colonialist ideologies through convicting these unjust programs. Made by the context, Conrad is inevitably handled by the Victorian and Edwardian ideologies, two eras with strict and contradictory ideological programs. What Conrad shows is but a subjective record of what he has witnessed in person about the history of the black nation and the intrusion, pretense, misdeeds and degeneration of the idealist and materialist white colonizers whom he denounces and detests.
Conrad's novel is a personal record of history which is unable to show the true history because literature is a superstructure which is controlled by those powerful hands which handle and affect it. Therefore, neither Conrad nor Marlow, neither his work nor its historical setting can be trusted because they are controlled by the ideologies, the programs which wield power to those in charge in order to reinforce the subjectivity of not only the black people but also the idealist individuals of their own like Kurtz whose idealistic thoughts are finally smashed into pieces and changed into "horror".

REFERENCES
THE IMPACT OF TEACHING PRACTICE ON PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS’ COGNITION IN LISTENING INSTRUCTION

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ABSTRACT
The present case study investigates pre-service teachers’ cognition about listening comprehension. The participants were Algerian students studying English as a foreign language, at Tlemcen University. They completed a questionnaire which sought to discover whether their cognitions changed after a course of teaching practice. The main result showed that the majority of the participants changed their beliefs and appeared to adopt the methodology of their trainer. The researcher attributed the findings partly to the trainees’ dissatisfaction with their teachers’ instructional practices throughout their previous learning experience as EFL listeners, and their satisfaction with the period of training. Thus the article ends with a recommendation that practicum experiences should highlight pre-service teachers’ beliefs, and challenge those which are inappropriate early in the training in order to maximize the adoption of new cognitions.

KEYWORDS: listening instruction, pre-service, cognition, teaching practice.

INTRODUCTION
Research into teacher cognition has been growing since the 1990s. This can be indicated in the proliferation of studies which examine what teachers think, know, believe in relation to their work. The literature in this field is concerned with either pre-service teachers or in-service teachers. Regarding the former, Borg’s review (2009) of 180 studies reveals that only cognitions related to teachers of grammar and literacy instruction (reading and writing) attracted the most significant attention. Graham et al.(2014) notice paucity of research in listening comprehension saying that: “Our review of the literature on language teaching cognition did not uncover a single study examining teacher beliefs about listening.”(p.45) Thus, the present study seeks to investigate pre-service teachers’ cognition about listening comprehension in an EFL context. The purpose is to examine how flexible are trainees’ cognitions.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Pre-service teachers' perceptions can be grouped into two types: (i) the ones constructed throughout their lives which derive from their memories of their lived experiences as EFL learners (also called apprenticeship of observation), and (ii) the ones constructed during their training. Research into the influence of teaching practice on apprenticeship of observation produced mixed findings. Some researchers reported apprenticeship of observation as being stable and, hence, the dominant source of pre-service teachers’ beliefs. Peacock (2001) examined
cognitions of 146 pre-service teachers during a three-year programme and found no significant change. Urmston (2003) also noted resistance to changing beliefs in 30 trainee teachers who enrolled in a TESL course.

However, the idea that training has no or a little influence has been questioned by other researchers. Busch (2010) explored the influence of training on student teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning, and found significant changes. MacDonald et al.’s study (2001) found that the trainees’ beliefs shifted from the behaviourists’ views to some of the current ideas about language learning theories.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**
The present case study tries to answer the following research question: Will pre-service teachers’ cognitions about listening instruction persist or change after training? It seeks to uncover the nature of such cognitions and the reasons underlying flexibility or persistence.

**METHODOLOGY**

**The participants**
The participants of this study are five students who received training in the module of teaching practice. They are third-year learners who study English as a foreign language at Tlemcen University, Algeria. After graduation, they are supposed to teach English in the middle school.

**Research instrument**
The trainer developed a questionnaire so as to find whether or not the participants’ cognitions changed. The first item of the questionnaire investigates the subjects’ learning experience (how long they studied English). The second item asks the trainees to describe how they were trained in listening instruction during teaching practice. The third item tries to find whether or not the subjects conducted research about listening comprehension. The following question seeks to find about the participants’ experience in listening as EFL learners. Finally, the pre-service teachers were asked about their beliefs regarding the methodology they will adopt, as future teachers of listening.

**Procedures**
The pre-service teachers were first trained into listening comprehension. The training focused on the three stages of listening: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening. They were given opportunities to practise the stages, and they received feedback on such practice, from their instructor. At the end of their course, the researcher gave them the questionnaire. Data was analysed quantitatively using frequencies, as well qualitatively by trying to find the common patterns underlying the respondents’ answers.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The participants had been learning English from nine to ten years. When asking the trainees to describe how they were taught listening in teaching practice, only three of them mentioned the three stages. One subject stated only the pre-listening stage, and the fifth trainee did not mention any stage. Concerning the third item, none of the five student-teachers cited conducting research about this skill. When asked about their previous experience with their previous teachers of listening comprehension, four participants did not state the stages they were taught in teaching practice. They mentioned activities like, listening and taking notes or/and answering questions, practicing dialogues. Only one participant said that his teacher went through pre-listening, while listening, post listening stages.

The last item sought to find whether the trainees will adopt the three-stage listening lesson that they were taught during teaching practice sessions, or they will keep the way they were taught this skills as EFL learners. The result showed that four participants believed that a listening lesson should comprise three stages. The other participant, who did not adopt the trainers’ methodology, expressed dissatisfaction with the period of training, saying that he needed more time. He also criticized the trainer for not using more visuals.

**Interpretations**

The findings of this study represent evidence that beliefs can be changed under some conditions: (a) providing an intervention which is long enough for the participants, (b) making pre-service teachers aware of the weaknesses of their previous beliefs (c) taking into consideration the learning styles of pre-service teachers. The participants, whose beliefs changed, were not satisfied with the previous methodology of teaching listening, as EFL learners. Encountering new knowledge in teaching practice was a stimulus for them to adopt a new way which is different than the previous, dissatisfying one. At the same time, they did not complain about length of the training course. In contrast, the participant who did not adopt the trainer’s methodology also described the sessions of teaching practice as ‘very helpful’, yet the period of practicum, which he perceived as being short, apparently weakened the impact of his trainer. What is more, he appeared to be a visual learner who could not process his trainer’s lessons effectively.

**Pedagogical Implications**

The trainees should recognize that their previous beliefs may be inappropriate. Once they are dissatisfied, they need new knowledge to adopt. Furthermore, practicum should provide educational experiences using a variety of learning styles; it should take place in period which is long enough for the trainees.

In order to weaken the negative impact that apprenticeship of observation may have, trainees can be guided through reflective practice. This latter is “the process of critical examination of experiences, a process that can lead to a better understanding of one’s practices and routines” (Richards and Farrell, 2005, p. 7). Reflecting on beliefs entails asking questions about how and why things are the way they are, what values they represent, what limitations underlie such values, and what alternatives may be available (Farrell, 2015). In teaching practice, microteaching experience can be used to provide an opportunity to master specific teaching
skills, as well as experiences that can encourage and develop a deeper understanding of teaching through processes of critical reflection (Richards & Farrell, 2011). At the end of each microteaching activity, reflection can be triggered through questions that should be answered in the form of journal writing, lesson reports, group discussions, and students’ viewing videotapes of their teaching. In a lesson report, for example, the student teachers record the main features of the micro-lesson in the form of questions to be answered and, then, discussed. The questions include: what were the main goals? What did the learners learn? What were the teaching procedures that I used? What were problems that I encountered and how did I deal with them? What were the most effective parts and why? What were the least effective parts and why? How was I taught as a student? Would I do anything differently if I taught the lesson again and why? What did I learn about the teaching of this skill/ technique? (Lee, 2004).

CONCLUSION
Pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs with beliefs about learning and teaching that are developed from apprenticeship of observation. A priority to trainers is, hence, to bring these cognitions to light and to try to challenge them in order to maximise the adoption of new ones. This can be done through a gradual process of critical thinking and reflection, taking into account trainees’ learning styles.

Limitations of the study
In this research, the researcher used only the questionnaire. Additionally, the bulk of the study is concerned mainly with the impact of practicum on trainees’ beliefs without examining whether the trainees turned their beliefs into practice. Thus, future research may examine to what extent the newly adopted beliefs in teaching practice are consistent with the instructional practices of teachers. For this purpose, interviews can be used in order to have rich qualitative data.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
The author is grateful to the pre-service teachers who accepted to participate in this case study.

REFERENCES


AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE COMPLAINT SPEECH ACT STRATEGIES USED BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS: A CASE STUDY OF GENDER EFFECT

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ABSTRACT
This study attempts to compare the speech act of complaints in English in different situations varying in two contextual variables namely social status or power (P) and social distance (D) among male and female Iranian English as foreign language (EFL) learners. Moreover, the performance of students was investigated to see how they perform complaints in the target language. A Discourse Completion Test (DCT), composed of three situations (teacher, roommate and waiter), in each of these situations there are five patterns followed by two multiple choice questions was administered to 20 Iranian males and 20 Iranian females students majoring in the English Language Translation at Abadan University, who were selected based on their score on Oxford placement test OPT (2013). The DCT was administered to the learners and data were collected. Then the data were coded and analyzed based on the taxonomy of complaints developed by Rinnert and Nogami (2006). The taxonomy analyzed the complaint responses elicited from the participants in terms of main components, level of directness, and the amount of mitigation. Independent Samples t-tests were conducted to compare the performance of male and female speakers. With regard to the use of complaint main components, the level of directness and the amount of mitigation, the differences between the complaint strategies employed by male and female learners in waiter situation were statistically significant. However, no significant differences between the two groups were found in teacher and roommate situations. The performance of Iranian male EFL learners showed that they significantly diverged from their female counterparts. The implications of the study could contribute to EFL learners learn not only L2 grammar, but also socio-cultural rules governing the L2 in order to communicate competently in the L2 community.

KEYWORDS: Speech act; complaints; discourse; social distance; social status

INTRODUCTION
Speech acts are “the basic or minimal units of linguistic communication” (Searle, 1969, p.16). The concept of speech act has been suggested by Austin (1962). It is defined as “the level(which) mediates immediately between the usual level of grammar and the rest of a speech event or
situation in that it implicates both linguistic form and social norms” (Hymes, 1979, cited in Farnia, Buchheit & Vedaei, 2012). Searle (1969) claimed that speaking a language is performing speech acts. In other words, when we say something, we are simultaneously performing communicative acts. A speech act has three types of meaning including locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary meanings. Locutionary meaning is the meaning conveyed by the words that the utterance contains. Illocutionary meaning or force is the effect the speaker wants the utterance to have and perlocutionary meaning is the effect produced by the utterance on the listener’s mind. Based on Searle’s (1976) classification of speech acts, speech acts are fallen into five categories: declarative, representative, directive, commissive, and expressive.

Searle (1976) placed the speech act of complaints into the expressive category, because this category is concerned with the speaker’s psychological state or his expressions of attitudes towards someone’s social behavior. According to Olshtain and Weinbach (1993), Complaining occurs when the speaker expresses his/her displeasure to the action that s/he perceives as unfavorable to him/her. Since this speech act potentially is a face-threatening act, second language learners who are not familiar with the conventions of complaining may come up with utterances which are regarded as “impolite” in the target community, and this can result in communication breakdown or threatening the hearer’s face.

There is a positive relationship between indirectness of complaints and politeness; it means the more indirect the complaint the more polite it will be. Several linguistic theories of politeness were proposed. The most well-known theory of politeness was proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). They believe that every human being has a public self-image called face. They further state that there are two types of face: positive face and negative face. Although politeness is a universal trait, its perception varies across cultures. Brown and Levinson (1987) enumerate power, social distance, and the rank of imposition as the contextual factors affecting the choice of politeness strategies in different situations. When the size of imposition is low, it is the two variables of power and social distance, which affect the choice of politeness strategy in performing a face-threatening act. This study focuses on comparing and contrasting the politeness strategies used in the speech act of complaint in relation to the two social variables, that is power and social distance.

The speech act of complaint involves a face-threatening act (Sauer, 2000). Second language learners should be familiarized with the conventions governing the expression of complaints in the target language in order to employ this speech act appropriately in their speeches so as not to cause communication breakdown or misunderstanding on the part of the hearer or complainee.

This study intends to investigate how the speech act of complaint is realized in English, and to study the complaint strategies in the interlanguage of Iranian EFL learners to see whether there are any significant differences between the complaint strategies produced by Iranian male and female speakers. The findings of this study will be helpful for Iranian EFL learners to develop sensitivity and awareness for English, so as to produce polite and meaningful complaints in English. The study will also have several pedagogical implications for teachers of English to pay
more attention to sociolinguistic aspects of English to help learners to communicate effectively and successfully in the target language.

**Significance and Objectives of the Study**

Despite the importance of the speech act of complaint, this part of language has not received as much attention as other speech acts like apology, thanking and request in Iran. A number of studies such as Salmani-Nodoushan (2008) were conducted on Persian complaints. This study intends to investigate how the speech act of complaint is realized in English and Persian and to study the complaint strategies in the interlanguage of Iranian EFL learners to see whether there are any significant differences between the complaint strategies produced by male and female Persian speakers. The findings of this study will be helpful for Iranian EFL learners to develop their sensitivity and awareness of English, so as to produce polite and meaningful complaints in English. The study will also have several pedagogical implications for teachers of English to pay more attention to sociolinguistic aspects of English to help learners communicate effectively and successfully in the target language. Consequently, this study intends to illuminate the L1 effect on the production of complaints made by Persian EFL learners.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

In the process of second language learning, second language learners constantly change some rules to form new ones. Their end product may not match the target language due to the fact that they do not see flaws in it or even see them as grammatical. This idea led to the emergence of the term “interlanguage” which was introduced by Selinker (1972), as he refers to a linguistic system resulting from learners’ attempts to have a functional command of the second language. Interlanguage, as Ellis (1985, p. 45) puts it is “language-learner language”. As its name suggests, it is a separate language knowledge system differing from learner’s L1 and L2 system (Ellis, 1985). Learners’ interlanguage system develops over time as they employ different strategies to achieve the L2 norms. Consequently, interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) as one of the many specializations in interlanguage studies as stated in Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993, p.3) is “the study of non-native speakers’ use and acquisition of linguistic action pattern in a second language”. Selinker (1972), enumerated five cognitive processes involved in creating learners’ interlanguage:

1. Language transfer: language learners transfer some rules from their L1. This process usually occurs at the early stages of learning.
2. Transfer of training: Sometimes, the ways learners are taught the target language are responsible for some elements of the interlanguage.
3. Strategies of second language learning: some features of the interlanguage may be the result of the specific approach in which the learner is trying to learn the target language.
4. Strategies of second language communication: language learners may produce elements in their interlanguage which result from the way they learn to communicate with native speakers of the target language.
5. Overgeneralization: some elements of the interlanguage result from overgeneralization of the syntactic rules and semantic features of the target language.
Interlanguage studies deal with describing the components of interlanguage system in learner performance and accounting for the processes involved in language learning and use. According to the two studies on interlanguage pragmatics (Bouton, 1994), language speakers will tend to move toward the less severe strategies than do native speakers. In the heyday of Chomskyan linguistics, interlanguage studies focused on grammatical aspects of learner interlanguage, but with the advent of Hymes’ (1979) communicative competence their focus shifted. Hymes’ (1979) heavy focus on sociocultural knowledge rather than grammatical knowledge inspired L2 researchers to turn their attention to the pragmatics and discourse aspects of language as well as communicative, functional aspects of it beyond grammatical aspects of learner language (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989).

**Speech Act Theory**

The origins of speech acts theory can be extended to philosophy of language but now it is considered as a sub-discipline for cross cultural programmatic. This theory basically explains how human beings achieve and accomplish desired intentions and motives through the use of language by using words in a way that they actually highlight the meaning of the sentence in a manner that the hearer understands what they actually mean besides the literal meaning. Austin (1962) relates the performance of saying words with an act of locutionary and the study of how specific words are uttered and what impact does utterance have on the message that is being delivered.

Speech acts are one of the key areas of pragmatics. The speech act theory came into existence as the result of Austin’s (1962) theories of illocutionary acts, and later on, it was developed by Searle (1976). Austin (1962) states that communication is a matter of ‘doing’. In other words, when we say something, simultaneously we are performing some communicative acts or speech acts. The term “speech act” was introduced by Austin (1962). He argued that every speech act has three kinds of meaning as follows:

1. Locutionary (propositional) meaning: this is the literal meaning conveyed by particular words and structures which the utterance contains. For example, if someone says “I’m thirsty”, the propositional meaning is what the utterance says about the speaker’s physical state.

2. Illocutionary meaning: this is the social function of the utterance, or the effect the speaker wants the utterance to have on the listener. The sentence “I’m thirsty” uttered by someone who is thirsty is not only a mere description of his physical state, but also an indirect request to the addressee or someone nearby to bring him something to drink.

3. Perlocutionary meaning: it deals with the effect produced by the utterance. For example, bringing the speaker something to drink is the perlocutionary effect of the utterance “I’m thirsty”.

Later on in 1976, Searle, a student of Austin, worked more on speech acts and extended them into five categories:

1. Declarative: a speech act which changes the state of affairs in the world. For example, “I pronounce you man and wife”.

2. Representative: the speaker describes states or events in the world. For example, “this car is brown”.

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3. Directive: the speaker gets the listener to do something, such as a suggestion, or a command. For example, the utterance “Please sit down”.

4. Commissive: the speaker commits the listener to do something in the future, such as a promise. For example: “I’ll be back soon”.

5. Expressive: the speaker expresses his feelings and attitudes about something, such as an apology, or a complaint. Since the focus of the study is the speech act of complaint, next chapter is devoted to discussing it in detail.

According to Searle (1976, cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 160), speech acts fall into five general classes; a) **Representatives**: These speech acts include assertions relating to true or false values (e.g. asserting, concluding); b) **Directives**: In these speech acts, the speaker tries to have the hearer do something (e.g. requesting, ordering); c) **Commissives**: Speech acts which result in an obligation to the speaker; that is, they commit the speaker to do something (e.g. promising, threatening); d) **Expressives**: These speech acts express feelings and attitudes of the speaker (e.g. thanking, congratulating); e) **Declarations**: Speech acts in which declarative statements are performed (e.g. excommunicating, declaring war, marrying, and firing).

**The Speech Act of Complaints**

The speech act of complaint belongs to expressive category of Searle’s (1976) classification of speech act. Olshtain and Weinbach (1993, p.108) stated that “in the speech act of complaining, the speaker expresses displeasure or annoyance as a reaction to a past or going action, the consequences of which are perceived by speaker as affecting her unfavorably”. For a complaint speech act to occur, several conditions should be met. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), the speech act of complaining implies that ‘S (the speaker) has a negative evaluation of some aspect of H’s (the hearer’s) positive face’ (p.66). From S’s point of view, the following preconditions are needed in order for the speech act of complaining to take place:

1. H performs a socially unacceptable act (SUA) which is contrary to a social code of behavioral norms shared by S and H.
2. S perceives the SUA as having unfavorable consequences for him/herself, and/or for the general public.
3. The verbal expression of S relates post facto directly or indirectly to the SUA, thus having the illocutionary force of censure (Olshtain & Blum Kulka, 1984)

A complaint speech act serves many functions; some of them are as follows:

a) To express displeasure, disapproval, annoyance, censure, threats, or reprimand as a reaction to a perceived offense/violation of social rules, to hold the hearer accountable for the offensive action and possibly suggest/request a repair (Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993)

b) To confront a problem with an intention to improve the situation (Brown & Levinson, 1987),

c) To share a specific negative evaluation, obtain agreement, and establish a common bond between the speaker and addressee. For example: A. "I really think his grading is unfair. I worked so hard for this exam." B. "Same here. He wouldn’t be satisfied even if we copied the whole book" (Boxer, 1993).
d) To allow ourselves to vent/let off steam. For example: “oh rotten luck!” and “what a shame!” are utterances expressed by a speaker in order to calm him/herself down (Boxer, 1993).

Studies on Complaint

Although the speech act of complaint has not been widely studies as it is the case with other speech acts like thanking, promise, apology, and request, there are a number of studies conducted in this area, which would help to provide a framework for this investigation. The research is designed to investigate the speech act differences between men and women, especially when they were confronted with complaint situations that force them to convey complaints. Based on evidences that have been explained in the previous section, it is concluded that EFL learners realized the speech act of complaining in eight complaint strategies: hints, annoyances, ill consequences, indirect accusation, direct accusation, modified blame, explicit blame (behavior), and explicit blame (person). The most frequently used strategy was accusation. There is a different way between men and women in employing the complaining act. Men use direct accusations as their major strategy while women use indirect ones. However, in the overall blaming distribution, women tend to use soft blaming as their preferred blaming strategies (Abdolrezapour & Eslami-Rasekh, 2012).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study provides answers to the following research questions:

1. Is there any difference between the complaint strategies used by male and female speakers in English in different situations?
2. If so, how do Iranian EFL learners express their complaint in English?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In order to conduct the study, the researcher selected two groups of participants. The participants of the first group were 10 Iranian male native speakers of Persian and the participants of the second group were 10 Iranian female native speakers of Persian, majoring in English Language Translation at Abadan University. They were selected among 60 learners based on the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The age of the participants in the two groups ranged from 18 to 26. They were B.A students and were non-randomly selected among the second year students to have a homogeneous group of the participants.

Instrumentation

Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

To be assured that the EFL learners’ language proficiency level, the researcher used Oxford placement test (OPT, 2013). The test was composed of 90 multiple-choice items covering grammar, and reading comprehension. The grammar section contained 40 items including fill-in the blanks, multiple-choice items and selecting the ungrammatical items. The reading comprehension section contained 50 items. In the reading comprehension section, each passage was followed by several multiple-choice items. The test was piloted on 10 B.A learners before
administration and its reliability was calculated through Cronbach Alpha as \(\alpha=0.731\). 60 minutes was allocated to the completion of the test. The students’ performance was assessed based on their scores on the test. Their scores for each item ranged from zero to one (wrong=0, right=1), and for the total test ranged from 0 to 90. Then 20 students whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as the participants of the study. Thus the participants were determined as the intermediate level.

**DCT Questionnaire**

The DCT used in this study, was a modified version of Rinnert and Nogami’s (2006). In order to ensure the content validity of the DCT, firstly it was checked by the researcher’s supervisor, and then the researcher piloted it on a number of the B.A students other than the participant and those items which did not elicit the desired responses were either changed or modified. It was composed of three situations representing five complaint scenarios for each of which we provided five possible complaint statements varying on the contextual factors of the speaker’s social power and his/her social distance with hearer. These five complaints scenarios followed by two multiple choice questions and participants are asked to answer them. The relationships between the speaker and hearer in terms of social distance and social power in three situations are given below in Table 1, followed by a summary of each scenario:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenarios</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>Social status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. student vs. Professor</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>S&lt;H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. student vs. roommate</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>S=H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. student vs. waiter</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>S&gt;H</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** D=social distance, P= Social power, S=speaker, and H=hearer.

Summary of each situation:

S1: A student goes to his/her professor who has a close relationship with him/her to complain about his/her low grade.

S2: A student complains to his/her roommate about the noise after 11:30 p.m.

S3: A student complains to a waiter, whom s/he meets for the first time in a restaurant about spilling the drink over his/her new shirt.

**Procedure**

Oxford placement test OPT (2013) was administered to 60 B.A learners majoring in English Language Translation at Abadan University and they were given an hour to complete the test. The Persian EFL learners took the English version of the DCT questionnaire.

Taxonomy of complaints developed by Rinnert and Nogami (2006) was adopted to analyze the data. This taxonomy consists of three main components of complaints, namely the main
component, the level of directness and the number of softeners used in the interaction. These components are presented, as follows, in detail:

1. Main component
A complaint consists of three main components including initiators, complaints, and requests, which are presented as follows:
Initiator (e.g. greetings, address terms, and other opening formulas). Initiators include greetings (e.g., “hi”, and “good morning”) address terms (e.g., “hey guy”, and “sir”), and other opening formulae.
Complaints (expressions of negative evaluation, including justification) Complaints refer to utterances expressing negative evaluation, including justification (e.g., “I studied hard in your class so how come I was given such a low grade”).
Request (direct or indirect attempts to get the hearer to redress the situation). Requests refer to direct or indirect attempts to get the hearer to redress the situation (e.g., “can you explain me why I got this grade?”).

2. Level of directness
Indirect (no explicit mention of offense, implied offense only)
Somewhat direct (mention of offense, but no mention of the hearer’s responsibility)
Very direct (explicit mention of offense and hearer’s responsibility for it)

3. Amount of mitigation (counting the softening expressions, e.g. “a little, sort of, you know, would/ could, I think/ I wonder”). The amount of mitigation refers to the number of softeners used in interaction. According to Blum-Kulka's (1982) softeners include hesitation markers (e.g., um, well), hedges (e.g., a little bit), apologies (e.g., if you don’t mind), and use of past tense (e.g., wanted) or past tense modals (e.g., could).

After the coding was completed, descriptive and analytical procedures were conducted. Frequency of responses containing a given complaint pattern in each DCT situation was calculated by finding out how many times each complaint pattern was used by each group in each situation. The number of softeners used by each group was counted separately in each DCT situation. In order to find out the similarities and differences in the realization patterns of complaints between Iranian male and female Persian EFL learners (PEFL), the data were entered into the SPSS software, version 17. Then Independent Sample t-tests were conducted for comparing the complaint responses in terms of main components, level of directness, and amount of mitigation across all situations.

**Data Analysis**
In order to determine whether is a difference between complaint strategies used by Iranian male and female EFL learner, the collected data will be analyzed by the taxonomy of complaints developed by Rinnert and Nogami (2006). Then, in order to address the research questions, the data will be entered into the SPSS software version 17 for descriptive and statistical analysis. The following chapter reports the language data gathered from the two groups of participants across the three DCT scenarios.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this scenario, the speakers and hearers who are roommates are socially equal and there is no social distance between them (=P, -D). In this situation, the male speakers tended to use these patterns more than females (male M=2.2470 and female M=1.9480). The findings of the statistical tests demonstrated that in dealing with roommate situation, male speakers employed pattern F significantly more frequently than female speakers. Finally, it is concluded that both two groups thought this pattern is socially appropriate. Table 2 shows the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Mean Males</th>
<th>Mean Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A) Reza/Mina, I was hoping you'd try to be a little quieter when you come in at night.</td>
<td>How socially acceptable/appropriate do you think it is in the context?</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How effective/successful do you think it would be?</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B) Reza/Mina, I've been wondering if you might have forgotten our agreement recently? If possible, could you try to keep our agreement in mind?</td>
<td>How socially acceptable/appropriate do you think it is in the context?</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How effective/successful do you think it would be?</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C) Reza/Mina, be quiet when you come in at night.</td>
<td>How socially acceptable/appropriate do you think it is in the context?</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How effective/successful do you think it would be?</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D) Oh, wow, Reza/Mina! Look at the time. I guess it must be quiet time.</td>
<td>How socially acceptable/appropriate do you think it is in the context?</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How effective/successful do you think it would be?</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E) Reza/Mina, you've been making too much noise at night recently. Please be quiet when you come in.</td>
<td>How socially acceptable/appropriate do you think it is in the context?</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>1.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How effective/successful do you think it would be?</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In pattern B for the first question there is not a significant difference between male (M=2.14) and females (M=1.72) and less than half of participants in the two groups believed it is socially acceptable because their means are close to the value given to “somewhat rude”. In pattern C, less than half of participants of two groups believed it is socially acceptable. Like pattern B, in pattern H, females believe this strategy is ruder. Both groups strongly reject pattern D ”Oh, wow, Reza/Mina! Look at the time. I guess it must be quiet time.” for the first question “How socially acceptable/appropriate do you think it is in the context?”. In this pattern both two groups had the lowest mean among all patterns of the second situation; both male participants (M=0.66) and female participants (M=1.10) are close to the value given to “very rude”. Most of male students and female students believe that this pattern is a face-threatening complaint and is not a polite way of complaint to a teacher.

In pattern E, the statistical findings showed that the male respondents (M=2.09) performed complaints somewhat similar to the way their female counterparts (M=1.69) did, as no statistically significant differences were found between the two groups regarding the use of this complaint pattern. They are close to the value given to “somewhat rude”. It can be noticed that the means of male and female groups for the second question “How effective/successful do you
think it would be? ” in this table are also different. In pattern A, males found this strategy more effective than their female counterparts. The mean of males and females for the second question are respectively (3.68 and 2.81). It indicates that over half of the respondents believe this strategy is effective in dealing with the roommate situation. The majority of male students accept this pattern while over half of females think it is effective. In pattern B, participants had a performance similar to pattern A. Again males found this strategy more effective than their female counterparts. The mean of males and females are respectively (3.58 and 2.58). It indicates that male students tend to accept this pattern more than females. Both groups strongly rejected pattern C for the second question. In this pattern, females had the lowest mean among all five patterns of the roommate situation; both male participants (M=1.44) and female participants (M=0.81) are close to the value given to “very ineffective” so we can say male and female students believed that this pattern is not effective to complaint and rejected it. In pattern D, male participants strongly rejected it for the second question. In this pattern male participants (M=0.87) and female participants (M=1.54) are close to the value given to “very ineffective” and ‘somewhat ineffective’ respectively. In pattern E, the means of male and female groups for the second question are (1.82 and 2.11) respectively and they are close to the value given to ‘somewhat ineffective’. It means that most of the males and more than half of the females believed this pattern is ineffective. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test was conducted to assess the data in terms of normality of scores. Results are presented in Table 2.

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test was conducted to assess the data in terms of normality of scores. Table 3 indicates the normality of the data. The mean score of male participants is (M=2.2470) and the mean score of female participants is (M=1.9480) and the difference of these two means is (0.299). The mean score of two groups is 2.0975.

Table 3: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>VAR00001</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Parameters a,b</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>2.0975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>.98445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most Extreme Differences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absolute</td>
<td>.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>.183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
<td>.817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.516</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>VAR00003</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.2470</td>
<td>1.18410</td>
<td>.37444</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.9480</td>
<td>.77086</td>
<td>.24377</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive Statistics Table was conducted to assess the data in terms of mean of scores and shows the descriptive statistics of the participants’ performance in student situation. Table 4
indicates the descriptive statistics of the male and female participants’ performance on five patterns in the second situation. The mean score of the male group is 2.2470 and the mean score of the female group is 1.9480. To find out if there is any significant difference between the two groups in the second situation, an Independent Samples t-test was administered. Table 4 shows the results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: Independent Samples Test</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</td>
<td>t-test for Equality of Means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>.669</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows the observed t (.669) is less than the critical t (1.753). Since the observed t (.669) is less than the critical t (1.753) with: df= 18, the difference between the males and females in this situation is not significant. Despite differences in the frequencies of complaint patterns used by the male and female speakers, the results of t-tests for this situation showed that the differences were not statistically significant (p<0.05).

**Discussion**

The speech act of complaint as a face-threatening act may be realized differently in different languages or cultures. This study as a contrastive one investigated the way this speech act was realized in English. It also investigated the performance of Iranian EFL learners to see how they perform complaints in English. In the following sections, research questions are addressed in light of the findings reported in the previous chapter. Discussion of the findings focuses on answering the research questions to accept or reject the null hypotheses. Two research questions and their answers are as follows:

RQ1. Is there any difference between the complaint strategies used in English in different situations?

RQ2. If so, how do Iranian EFL learners express their complaint in English?

There were some differences identified between male and female learners regarding the way speakers of the two groups performed their complaint in lower, equal, and higher settings. Therefore, the answer to the first research question is obviously positive.
Lower Setting

The teacher situation represents lower social settings and the speaker is interacting with someone whom s/he is intimate with (-D). Regarding complaint patterns, it was demonstrated that in this situation male speakers showed more tendency to start their complaining with the least face-threatening complaint strategies as it contains greetings, apologizing expressions, and address terms. However, the findings of the study are in line with the study conducted by Rinnert and Nogami (2006), which demonstrated that English native speakers in the teacher situation employed I+C+R (I; initiator, C; complaint, R; request) complaint pattern more frequently than other complaint patterns and in this study male speakers preferred to use more number of softeners to mitigate the threat to the hearer’s negative face.

As an indicator of politeness towards their teacher, male and female speakers used pattern C: "Excuse me, Professor Amiri. Sorry to bother you, but I was hoping to discuss my final grade. I was rather surprised and disappointed with the grade. Could I perhaps find out how the grades were figured?" And pattern E: "Professor Amiri, I was hoping to acquire some information on my final grade. If possible, could I find out how the grades were figured?" Was more than other patterns of the first situation. The means of males and females in pattern C for the first question are (3.11 and 2.39) and for the second question are (4.06 and 4.25) respectively. Also the means of males and females in pattern E for the first question are (3.22 and 3.04) and for the second question are (3.75 and 2.37) respectively. In pattern C, there are several softeners such as; sorry to bother you, I was hoping..., I was rather surprised, Could, perhaps. Also in this pattern the complaint is indirect; I was rather surprised and disappointed with the grade. In pattern E like pattern C we have several softeners “I was hoping, if possible, could” to mitigate the threat to the hearer’s negative face and the complaint is indirect “I was hoping to acquire some information on my final grade”. It means that both two groups believe these two patterns are both socially acceptable and effective.

On the contrast, patterns D and B had the lowest means among five patterns. The means of males and females in pattern D “Professor Amiri, I don’t understand why you gave me a C. Did you make a mistake?” for the first question are (0.36 and 1.08) and for the second question are (1.06 and 2.00) respectively. The means of males and females in pattern B “Professor Amiri, I want to discuss my final grade with you. Please explain why I got a C.” for the first question are (1.23 and 1.58) and for the second question are (0.75 and 1.25) respectively. In pattern D, there is no softener and in pattern B we have just one softener “please” and both two patterns are very direct and face threatening. Wolfson (1989, p. 79) addressed terms such as “very salient indicator of status relationship”. In lower settings, interlocutors used address terms more frequently. The result is in line with the findings of Behnam and Niroomand’s (2011) study. They found that lower status interlocutors used more address terms than higher status interlocutors. In this study, address terms were more frequent in the first and second situations because just in these two situations the interlocutors were expected to complain to higher status individuals. In lower settings, where the hearer has dominance over the speaker, the speaker tended to express their complaint as indirectly as possible. In the teacher situation, both male and female speakers violated the maxim of manner as majority of them expressed their complaint indirectly. Maxim of manner wants every interlocutor speak directly, not ambiguously and
abundantly. As compared to the teacher situation, both male and female speakers tended to make complaints directly more frequently in the last situation. This difference can be justified on the ground that in dealing with unfamiliar individuals, they feel it more comfortable to challenge the hearer less indirectly. Due to the formality of the teacher situation, male and female speakers showed a tendency to use more polite strategies in this situation than in other situations. They showed deference for the addressees’ negative face. Their politeness was reflected in their use of considerable amount of mitigation and less use of direct complaint strategies. In the unfamiliar setting, i.e., the waiter situation, they used politeness strategies fewer than in the familiar setting, i.e., the teacher and roommate situations. This shows that both male and female speakers pay attention to both social power and social distance factors in expressing their complaint. It runs counter to previous studies conducted in Iranian culture on different speech acts, i.e. requests (Abdolrezapour & Eslami-Rasekh, 2012) and reprimands (Ahmadian & Vahid Dastjerdi, 2010) which demonstrated that Persian speakers tend to pay attention to social status and ignore the social distance factor.

**Equal Setting**
The roommate situation in the DCT represent equal social settings and the speaker is dealing with an intimate (-D). As for the complaint patterns used in the roommate situation, the results showed that all complaint patterns were used by both male and female speakers but pattern F has the highest mean for males and females among other patterns of second situation. Means of male and female speakers for the first question are (4.11 and 3.11) respectively and for the second question are (3.68 and 2.81) respectively. We saw that they employed an initiator (i.e., Hey Reza/ Mina) and a request for action (i.e., I was hoping you would try to be a little more quiet”) and a number of softeners (i.e., hoping, would, a little) to avoid producing an act which was too face-threatening to his/her roommate. It shows that in female group, there is a tendency to express complaints to familiar equal status individuals more directly.

In pattern B, we have all three components; initiator: Reza/Mina, complaint: I've been wondering if you might have forgotten our agreement recently? And request: If possible, could you try to keep our agreement in mind? It is an indirect complaint and there are several softeners in it: if you, if possible and could you. Based on the means of males and females for the first question (2.14-1.72) and for the second question (3.58-2.58) it is concluded that male speakers accepted this pattern more than female speakers. In patterns C and E, means of male and female participants for the first question are close together; C (males mean=2.09, females mean=1.68) and E (males mean=2.09, females mean=1.69). It is concluded that over half of the males and majority of females rejected this pattern as a face-saving strategy. Most of the participants believed these patterns are ineffective. Unlike pattern A, pattern D has the lowest mean for males and females among other patterns of the second situation. Means of male and female speakers for the first question are (0.66 and 1.10) respectively and for the second question are (0.87 and 1.54) respectively. It is concluded that both male and female participants believe that pattern D is a face-threatening strategy and strongly rejected it. It is realized that male speakers tend to use face-saving strategies more than females. Regarding the amount of mitigation in equal settings, the findings showed that male speakers used more softeners than female speakers.
Higher Setting

The waiter situation represents lower social settings in which the speaker is interacting with a stranger (+D). Because a power inconsistency exists between interlocutors and the addressees who the speaker is complaining to, the results are different with two previous situations results. Since the observed t of situation one(0.295) and situation two(0.669) are less than the critical t (1.753), then the difference between the males and females in these situations is not significant but in situation three the observed t(2.628) is greater than the critical t (1.753) so the difference between the males and females is significant. In higher settings, interlocutors used address terms less frequently than two previous situations. The results are not in line with the findings of Behnam and Niroomand’s (2011) study.

About half of the speakers in the male group preferred performing the FTA directly by the use of somehow direct, very direct complaints and fewer softeners to express their disapproval towards the hearer. As compared to their performance in higher social setting, they employed initiators less frequently and complaints more frequently. This situation can be justified on the ground that they have power over the hearer and do not feel it necessary to use initiators to redress the threat to the hearer’s face. The analysis of the amount of mitigation used by male speakers showed that they tended to use softeners rarely. In the situation where the interlocutors know each other very well (roommate situation), most of speakers in the male group tended to use indirect responses with the highest number of softeners in their complaints to redress the threat to the hearer’s face. Their performance across these two situations and the third situation indicated that degree of familiarity of the interlocutors is an affective factor in lower settings. The statistical findings of the roommate situations also showed that the female respondents performed complaints similar to the way their male counterparts. There was no statistically significant differences were found between the two groups regarding the use of complaint patterns of the waiter situation in which the participants tended to use more softeners significantly more frequently than the male speakers (t= 2.628, df= 18, sig=0.65) to redress the threat to the hearer’s face. Unlike to their female counterparts, male speakers employed direct complaints more frequently in lower settings than higher settings. The majority of them did so within complaints (e.g., you spill coffee on my new shirt and I should cancel my appointment just because of your mistake.).

CONCLUSION

This study explored differences and similarities between complaint strategies used by male and female EFL learners in terms of main components, level of directness, and amount of mitigation. With regard to the use of complaint patterns, the complaint patterns used by the two groups were quite similar, but some significant differences were found between the frequency uses of each complaint pattern by the two groups. In the teacher situation, male speakers used A, C and E complaint patterns more frequently than their female counterparts but no significant differences were found between the two groups.

In the roommate situation, it was demonstrated that although the frequencies of using each complaint pattern were different between male and female speakers, like the first situation the male speakers tended to use more face-saving strategies but the difference between the two
groups was not significant. Regarding the level of directness, it was demonstrated that in situation
three the frequencies of using each complaint pattern were different between male and female
speakers. As far as the amount of mitigation was concerned, despite differences in the
frequencies of using softeners in the patterns between the two groups in the first and second
situations, in the third situation the males tended to be more polite and the difference between the
two groups was found to be significant.

Implications for EFL
The findings of this study contribute to teachers in accomplishing their challenging task of
teaching English in various EFL contexts where students have less exposure to language
compared to ESL contexts. Teachers can help learners use appropriate strategies based on socio-
cultural rules in order to interact competently with other people. According to the results of this
study, it is suggested that EFL teachers implement the findings of this study into their
instructional programs to teach their learners how to express complaints appropriately.

The study entails some important pedagogical implications. Its findings will be helpful for EFL
learners. They increase the quality of their interactions by learning how to use complaint speech
act appropriately. They also will be aware of what factors affect the realization of the speech act
of complaint in order to perform complaints appropriately so as to avoid communication
breakdown. The implication of this study for material designers would be that they should pay
more attention to complaint speech act while designing courses for EFL learners. The findings of
the study will be helpful for material developers to include exercises and activities focusing on
pragmatic competence of text users in designing textbooks or other educational materials. The
material designers should believe that including these elements in the students’ textbooks has
become a necessity.

There are a number of limitations to the study. One limitation of the study lied in the data-
collection method, namely the DCT. In spite of a rationale for the use of DCT as an appropriate
method for this study, using only the DCT as a means of data collection is insufficient as they
might yield results different from naturally occurring data. Other methods of data collections
such as role-plays and oral DCTs are needed in order to authenticate data collected through the
DCT. Another shortcoming of the study is the lack of English native speakers in the study. Due
to the issue of availability and security, it was hard to find enough number of English native
speakers to participate in the study. As the sample of EFL learners, only advanced EFL Iranian
learners were selected and gender difference of the participants was taken into account.
In order to fully investigate the speech act of complaint in Persian and English, studies should be
conducted using other ethnographic methods such as role-plays, besides the DCT to offer more
in-depth data. Other studies are needed to include a large number of participants so that the
results will be more reliable and generalizable. Proficiency level may be a factor influencing EFL
learners’ performance, so other interlanguage studies should be conducted to investigate
complaints among EFL learners in different proficiency levels.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF STRETCHED TEXTS ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS’ WRITING FLUENCY AND ACCURACY IN LORESTAN PROVINCE, IRAN

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ABSTRACT
The present paper investigated the effect of stretched texts on Iranian intermediate English as foreign language (EFL) learners’ writing fluency and accuracy. Stretched text is a text displayed on a computer with references (hyperlinks) to other texts which the reader can immediately access, or where text can be revealed progressively at multiple levels of details (also called Hyper Text). To conduct the current study, sample research included 60 male and female English language learners were selected from an English language institute in Poldokhtar city, Iran. They were given a teacher made proficiency writing as a pre-test to select the participants at a homogeneity level. Then they were divided in two equal experimental and control groups. The experimental group received stretched text through the Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) medium while the text displayed on a computer with references (hyperlinks). The control group received conventional method of reading texts via reading their text book. Both groups received the same materials and time of instructions. After 10 sessions of treatment, the post-test of writing fluency and accuracy was given to the learners. Data were analyzed through an independent sample t-test to find if there are salient differences between the findings of the two groups in their writing test. Results revealed that there was a significant difference in the performance of the experimental group in comparison to the control group. Results showed the experimental group outperformed the control one in the post-test. In other words, the stretched text could provide EFL learners’ with enough exposure in writing tasks and enhance their writing fluency and accuracy.

KEYWORDS: stretched text, English institution, writing fluency, writing accuracy

INTRODUCTION
Stretched text consists of nodes or chunks of information and links between them in a virtual space in the Internet. Stated in this way, it might seem easy to find examples of stretched text any text which references another can be seen as two nodes of information with the references forming the link; any text which uses footnotes can be seen as containing nodes of information the text and the footnote providing the link or pointer from one node to the other (Jahin, 2012).
The idea of a node is very general and there are various rules about how big a node should be or what it should contain. Thus there are some variations governing what information gets linked to the other one.

Recently, writing is receiving great interest and a significant role in English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) educational setting since teaching English L2 writing is different from other language skills as it is used as a supportive skill in language learning (Reid, 2002). On the other hand, writing is an outlet for emotions and thoughts which makes it as a skill that is at the final stage of language acquisition; therefore, it still forms an important component of second/foreign language learning (Fageeh, 2011). Reilly and Reilly (2005) believed that writing is also a skill that many teachers find difficult to teach and, as a result of this, many learners do not enjoy to teach it. That is why during the last two decades there have been new ideas in the introduction of new techniques for helping students become fluent and accurate writers. Thus writing as a productive skill is more complicated than it seems at first and often seems to be the hardest of the skills since it involves not just a graphic representation of speech, but the presentation of thoughts in a structured way (Gabrielatos, 2002). In fact, it plays a significant role in academic writing in educational settings. Consequently, it has become one of the major requirements in English for General Purposes (EGP) as well as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) syllabi. Fluency and accuracy development is an essential component of language learning.

**Statement of the Problem**

Writing is a complicated process where in most EFL learners have difficulties in expressing themselves by means of this skill either at fluency or accuracy levels. Written communication is a need for people to express their own thoughts and views (Baron, 2007). Hence, in the current study attempts will be made to examine resorting to stretched texts as a facilitating way of mastering on writing fluency and accuracy. Therefore, the researchers will measure the influence of stretched text model on enhancing writing fluency or accuracy achievement. The present research will consider the influence of this approach called stretched texts on Iranian intermediate EFL learners’ writing fluency and accuracy.

The present study was supposed to investigate the effect of stretched texts on writing comprehension ability of intermediate EFL learners positively. Put another way, this study will examine the impact of stretched text on the enhancement level of writing among Iranian EFL learners. Thus, the fundamental aim of the present study is solve the research problems of: (1) investigating the effect of the stretched text on EFL learners' writing fluency and accuracy and (2) teaching EFL learners how to work with stretched text to enhancement their writing fluency and accuracy.

**Significance of the Study**

Writing is one of the important ways of expressing one's thoughts and communicating ideas to others. Some have the innate ability to put their thoughts into words. Writing is more beneficial, specifically for those who are working in an academic setting. This tool allows them to express their ideas, thoughts or their existing mental condition. Writing is one of the basic skills which
people acquire throughout their life. Writing skill is an important part of communication which is a vital mean of communication within an organization. Therefore, the skill of tactful writing is essential for achieving career and business goals. Apart from the workplace, writing is essential in many other areas like academic writing as well. If one wants to achieve his/her goals, the art of superior writing is imperative. Recently, CALL could be a great help in developing a variety of methods to enhance this ability. Good writing skill allows EFL learners to communicate appropriate messages with clarity and ease to a far larger audience than through face-to-face or telephone conversations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As students create texts, they develop spaces for themselves and others. Just as an architect who designs spaces by means of the resources at hand, learners are constantly engaged in spaces that they create from their resources, frameworks, machinery at hand, and goals. Stretched text is a non-sequential form of composing and writing. Therefore, it provides choices for the reader as to how to navigate such text. While the organization of regular, sequential text may be based on a multitude of criteria and dimensions, the final product freezes the presentation into a single, sequential chain of paragraphs and chapters (Jamal, 2012). The author is to satisfy the reader to accept this text organization or has to resort to a supplementary source such as a dictionary or technology based facilities like e-dictionaries or hyper-reading notes with the help of table of contents, indices and previous notes (Kim & Hirtle, 1995).

Pianfetti (2001) argues for a more prominent place for technology in professional programs for teachers. Some of the features identified in her discussion are administrative support and give time to teachers to learn new skills. They also can learn explorations of the ways in which those technology skills which is integrated in the curriculum, access to up-to-date resources, and develop educational technology. In brief, digital literacy will prevail when teachers address pedagogical changes that may be necessary with the implementation of technology in the classroom. This idea invites the teachers to introduce a pedagogical experience integrating stretched text design to teach fluency and accuracy in writing, so the learners may get the benefit of dealing with this electronic age that demands proficiency in utilizing information. According to Glister (1997, as cited by Pianfetti, 2001), this format has to do with the main construct of deep research into the usability of stretched text. Stretched text is the ability to link any place in text nodded by some links with any other places in the same or different texts that permit rapid access through buttons and other tools across nonlinear pathways.

The electronic text can be interactive and satisfies specific requirements of a reader. The design of an electronic text can incorporate media that guide the reader in his exploration, promoting and encouraging in reading comprehension. The structure of an electronic text lets the reader search multiple nodes of complementary information and have access to various multimedia resources (i.e., audio, video, animation, photos) (Conklin, 1987). The stretched text comes up as a new textual structure that provides the learners with huge volume of information. Great advances of storing information made easy the digitalization and storing of graphs, audio and video and there is a beginning of creating and designing reading and learning material in hypermedia format.
Goldman (1996). Some other stretched text features are focused on rapid browsing. Thus the user must be able to get around in the stretched text quickly and easily which means that the user interface must enable the user to navigate across the links in the system. They can do this through a couple of clicks of a mouse to focus on non-linear discoursal sources and information that are non-linearly structured. It refers to the non-linear structure of the text and non-symmetrical organization (Horn, 1989). Teachers in the same schools with the same years of experience can have different notions about using texts in their classrooms. It was suggested the students could split up and check their ideas on a way to determine the amount of pollution in a local stream using various textual resources. The teacher has some notions of nonlinear texts and opens to various non-linear texts which invite the students to find out information everywhere. The teacher encouraged the students to be interested in webs of information by using non-linear hypermedia or what the authors call in this article non-linear texts. Non-linear texts represent a web of connected knowledge similar to the distributed knowledge which is stored "out in the environment" (p. 202), in books, computers, and many varied sources.

The students became more fluent in using web information available in the real world (i.e., in the classroom, school building, and beyond the boundaries of the school). Authors discovered that teachers have a common-sense definition of text that does not include many formal components and that they see non-linear text as something different form other texts. They wonder if increased effort in the form of writing to non-linear text might lead to better readers. Landow (1992) sees personal textual construction as a major component in his definition of non-linear text. Landow's English students may respond to texts in marginal notes, references, even complete other texts. Although this is possible with paper-based texts, a big difference within computer-based non-linear text is that others may immediately see the newly created text and, in turn, comment on it. This experience is very convenient to incorporate in the school work and to understand that teachers and students need to be familiar with hypermedia environments, structure and functioning. After checking the main features of the stretched text as a non-linear phenomenon, it is necessary to look at its structure whose basis is a kind of concept mapping since it is a developing technology that can ultimately make people more effective researchers (Altun, 2000, 2003). It is a method of giving a text depth, structuring it, and let the computer help you explore it. Stretched text is normally defined as accessing information in a non-linear fashion.

The emergence of computers by a few years has been suggested in 1945 by inventor, scientist, and Vannevar Bush (1890–1974, cited in Flynn, 2002). This led the researchers to use computer as a teaching tool. Stretched text as a teaching tool may give the teachers a chance to use new sources in teaching EFL. Stretched text which is also called hyper linking can link the related pieces of information by electronic connections in order to allow a user easy access between them. Stretched text is a feature of some computer programs that allows the user of electronic media to select a word from text and receive additional information pertaining to that word, such as a definition or related references within the text. In the article “whale” in an electronic encyclopedia, for example, a stretched text link at the mention of the blue whale enables the reader to access the article on that species merely by “clicking” on the words “blue whale” with a mouse. The stretched text link is usually denoted by highlighting the relevant word or phrase in
The stretched texts could be operated very similar to the way our brains do in a series of networks or associations that are opposed to a linear path. The stretched text software provides the human beings with the elements in the management of information. They analogize the way our minds normally work (i.e., not in a straight line but in several dimensions at once) and they are also can be considered as a thought machine (Landow, 1992). It may conclude that the stretched text is one of those crucial ideas in intellectual history to the development of the printing press of the computer itself. It is highly significant for all disciplines that are concerned with the creation and providing supplementary information. Providing access to information is a core mission of all libraries; therefore, an important line of inquiry is the effect of stretched text and its nodal organization of information on users' abilities to find and understand texts. At the most basic level, users need general reading skills along with particular equipment and the knowledge of how to use it in order to read stretched text documents. More than that, it is essential for information professionals to understand the reasons that lead clients to seek, consume, and use information in particular ways. In a broader context, there are two distinct structures in stretched text including hierarchical and networked structures. In hierarchical structures, readers are provided with contextual cues and organizational links; whereas in networked structures, readers are provided with relational links. In either of these structures, links could be presented in various modalities (types), among which are verbal and pictorial links.

The idea of stretched text is now emerging as a serious and sensible approach to use the computer for reading and writing. Technical writing and pedagogy such as interactive communication between teachers and students are obvious and important applications for the stretched text systems. However, the stretched texts may apply to the whole range of human literacy, including the writing and reading of fiction (Smuts, 2009). Using the stretched texts as a vehicle for fiction could be a great help in providing enough input for the EFL learners who are using it for technical writing or academic education. It is more usable since fiction seems practical in the pragmatic world of data processing. It also could be useful at least in modern fiction, which is by nature open to experiment, and being open or open-ended in creativity of writing. It is precisely enhancing the quality of text and fostering writing. The point is that the stretched text can change for each reader and for each act of reading. According to Taylor’s (2006) meta-analysis, there was a statistically significant difference between two conditions of a CALL gloss group and a traditional gloss group with a large effect size since the CALL gloss group outperformed the traditional gloss group on a reading comprehension test.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
With regard to the main intention of the present research, the following questions will be made:
RQ1. Do stretched texts affect Iranian EFL learners’ writing fluency?
RQ2. Do stretched texts affect Iranian EFL learners’ writing accuracy?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Design**
The design of this study was based on a pre-and post-test control group design. Sixty EFL learners took part as the participants in two groups of 30 EFL learners. The treatment period lasted 10 sessions. The post-test was conducted to determine the impact of the stretched texts on writing fluency and accuracy of the participants.

**Participants**
To fulfill the objectives of this study, 60 male and female Iranian EFL students in an English language institution in Poldokhter city were chosen among 100 pre university students. Then they were given a teacher made language proficiency as a pre-test. They were in the age ranging from 17 to 19 studying participated in this study. The participants’ selection procedures were done at the beginning of the semester meaning. Then they were non-randomly divided into two equal control experimental groups.

**Instrumentation**
For data collection purpose, the following instruments were used: A teacher made writing test was used as a pre-test which included 15 open ended questions which held 100 marks. The pre-test was scored based on using appropriate grammar, vocabulary, and unity. The students answered the questions in explanatory forms. According to the participants' scores, the students' writing fluency and accuracy level was determined. This test was given to a rater for rating and correcting probable errors. This could add the reliability of the test scoring. The reliability of the scoring was met through inter-rater reliability as \((r=.681)\).

The post-test was designed based on the pre-test in terms of its difficulty level and the number of open ended questions. The learners' answers were rated in 100 marks and each wrong structures or problematic meanings scored based on a checklist focused on grammar, meaning, spelling errors, cohesion, and sentence development. The papers were scored by two raters to obtain the reliability index. The reliability of the scoring was met through inter-rater reliability as \((r=.808)\).

**Procedure**
In the beginning of the study, based on the teacher made writing test, 60 participants out of 100 learners were randomly selected based their scores at the pre-test and assigned into two groups (i.e., control and experimental groups, 30 students in each group). After they are assigned into two groups, the treatment (stretched text treatment) was begun to see whether it does have any effects on EFL learners’ fluency and accuracy. A researcher made checklist was used to score the fluency and accuracy of the learners' sentence completion.

The pre-test conducted to exclude any bias or preference in doing the research regarding the EFL learners' homogeneity level. The teacher made writing pre-test was designed in sentence
completion form to assess the two groups' writing proficiency at fluency and accuracy levels. According to learners' means of the pre-test the trainee got, they were divided in two groups at the beginning of the course. Then they formed a control and experimental groups. The experimental group took benefits of stretched texts as the effect of this trend on their own writing enhancement in the whole semester and the control group did not take benefits of stretched text during the course.

The participants in the experimental group were trained based on a series of stretched texts by means of CALL facilities. They encountered long passages to read and practice grammatical points and writing fluency and accuracy through scrolling (windowing) and card (frame) model which are in fact the basic trends and models of the intended stretched text. One major approach is the scrolling (or windowing) models in which a node may be contain more information. They could use the stretched texts on the writing fluency and accuracy by means of computer programs. In reality, the classes were held twice a week each time one hour in ten sessions while the control group did not have the benefit such a trend and they were taught in the traditional method of reading comprehension including reading aloud, search the vocabulary meanings, skimming and scanning. The user moves linearly in the node by scrolling its window up or down. The benefit of this model is that a node may contain as much information as is needed to explain whatever concept it is supposed to cover. The other fundamental approach to stretched text is the card (or frame) model in which a node has a fixed size and layout, all of which is displayed at once. This model limits the amount of information that can be contained in any given node, and the user has to move to another node to see more. The benefit of the card model is that the author can exercise more control over the appearance of the information and that whatever has been designed to be a node is in fact seen as a unit with everything visible.

After the treatment, a final writing achievement test as the post-test was conducted for both control and experimental groups. In order to determine whether there are any identifiable differences in the writings completed by the learners working individually, the writings were analyzed for the fluency and accuracy issues such as length of each essay in words and then dividing the written work into T-units and clauses, and identifying dependent clauses. Fluency measured in terms of the average number of words, T-units and clauses per text. Accuracy is measured by global units expressed in terms of the proportion of error-free T-units of all T-units (EFT/T) and error-free clauses of all clauses (EFC/C). Errors in lexis (word choice) included only when the word used obscures meaning. All errors in spelling and punctuation were ignored. Then the Independent and Paired Samples t-tests were used to calculate the data.

**Data Analysis**

The results of the statistical analysis provided direct answers to the research questions. Descriptive statistical, analysis of variance, and inferential statistics between the experimental and control groups showed any significant differences regarding the pre-test and post-test scores. Independent sample t-test was run to compare the writing ability of the control and experimental group on the pre and post-tests.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Independent Samples t-test was calculated the differences between the two groups which showed that they were homogeneous at the pre-test. The results are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>T obs.</th>
<th>T crit.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 (Experimental)</td>
<td>58.36</td>
<td>23.38</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
<td>1.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 (control)</td>
<td>58.70</td>
<td>23.16</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>-0.055</td>
<td>1.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 indicates that the t-observed is less than the t-critical at the p<0.05 level of significance. Based on these results, it can be concluded that the difference between two groups is not meaningful and both groups are nearly homogeneous. It indicates the observed $t$ ($t_0=-0.055$) is less than the critical $t$ ($t_c=1.645$) with df (58); therefore, the difference between the two groups is not significant at the level (p<0.05). This shows the groups’ homogeneity at the beginning of the experiment. After the treatment period, both groups took the post-test and the data were calculated through the Independent Samples t-test. The results are presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>T obs.</th>
<th>t crit.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G1 (Experimental)</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>13.84</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.832</td>
<td>1.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2 (control)</td>
<td>44.33</td>
<td>11.43</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7.832</td>
<td>1.645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the observed $t$ ($t_0=7.832$) is greater than the critical $t$ ($t_c=1.645$) with df (58), the difference between the two groups is significant at the level (p<0.05). In other words, stretched text media application trait has been effective in developing participants’ knowledge of writing fluency and accuracy. Thus, it indicates that students’ knowledge of writing in experimental group improved significantly.

More specifically speaking, descriptive statistics including minimums, maximums, means, and then standard deviations of pre-test and post-test of all groups were computed. Results indicated that the mean score of control group which had been 58.70 in pre-test exam reached to 44.33 in post-test exam. It also indicated that the mean score of experimental group which had been 58.36 in pre-test exam promoted to 70.00 in post-test exam.

Discussion

Results of the present study showed the positive effect of stretched text instruction on students’ post-test since there was significant compared to control group. The results of Independent Samples t-test analysis showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of stretched text instruction (p<0.05). By the comparison of mean scores of participants,
the instructional method of stretched text media instruction application strategy appeared much more beneficial to the experimental group rather than the control one. The post-test scores indicated that the stretched text group following the appropriate instruction was positively gained higher scores. The post-test scores of the experimental group indicated that the group had better improvement compared to the control one. Descriptive statistics also showed that the mean scores of the experimental group were greater than the control group. Therefore, stretched text media instruction application strategy had positive effects on enhancing in writing fluency and accuracy. EFL students mostly tend to experience considerable difficulty in writing English texts. Not only do these texts most often contain unfamiliar vocabulary, but they also need proper styles. Traditionally, attempts to enhance writing text comprehension for EFL students have focused on familiarizing the students with the vocabulary needed to comprehend the passage. Such instruction, however, is unlikely to raise students’ interest in writing the text or to well prepare them for the writings of the standard texts.

The basic question in this study was whether or not the stretched text media instruction application enhances EFL writing fluency and accuracy. The results are straightforward and make a strong argument in favor of considering the stretched text media instruction application with Iranian EFL learners. Investigation of the differential potential of experimental group's writing of the text indicated that EFL writing fluency and accuracy of Iranian EFL learners was more significantly facilitated in doing the writing activities. The activities based on stretched text media instruction might also make writing more enjoyable and thus encourage the learners to participate in more writing activities. This would result in the building of the learners' background knowledge and lead them to a better grasp of the English language. The field of the stretched text has covered so much in the last few years that many researches needed to discover its effects on educational settings and its curriculum. Thus the results of the present study should be studied with care. Rather, it is needed to provide a perspective on the stretched text while offering guidance to the published literature.

Many websites are entirely or largely use the stretched texts. It refers to the presentation of video, animation, and audio, which are often referred to as “dynamic” or “time based” content or as “multimedia.” Non-Web forms of stretched text and hypermedia include CD-ROM and DVD encyclopedias, E-books, and the online help systems we find in software products. It is common for people to use the stretched text as a general term that includes hypermedia. For example, when researchers talk about “stretched text theory,” they refer to theoretical concepts that pertain to both static and multimedia content.

A remarkable difference came about between the two groups at the post-test stage. The data revealed a significant difference between the performances of the two groups. This means that learning writing skills in English by experimental enhances a better understanding of the writing skills. After comparing the two mean scores through t-test calculations, the null hypothesis was justifiably rejected. The results showed the degree of performances of the two groups was totally different since the experimental group demonstrated a more-superior improvement than the counterpart group. The use of the stretched text strategies helped the experimental group learn writing fluency and accuracy and enhance their attention to writing fluency and accuracy. The
stretched text has proved to be effective and has desirable impact on the writing skill. The two groups were not significantly different at the outset of the study but they behaved differently on the final test. Therefore, it seems to be justifiable that holding the idea that the stretched text application has served the intended purpose of the present study. It could be strongly argued that the stretched text application strategy instruction can significantly influence EFL language learners’ enhancement of writing fluency and accuracy.

To answer the above-mentioned questions the researchers reached the conclusion that after the administration of the pre-test and determination the homogeneity of the two groups in the ongoing study, the stretched text helped the experimental group to improve their writing fluency and accuracy. It was clearly seen that stretched text media application was effective and had an affirmative influence on Iranian EFL learners’ writing fluency and accuracy achievement. It can be claimed that it is clearly seen that there is a positive effect of the stretched text on learners’ progress in writing fluency and accuracy.

CONCLUSION
Findings of this study indicated that the stretched text strategy training in a classroom had a significant effect on the students’ writing fluency and accuracy skills. Prior to the treatment, the Independent Samples t-test was administered to find out any significant difference in pre-and post-test mean scores in both groups. The findings revealed that both groups were nearly equal in their performances at the beginning of the course (p<0.05). After the treatment, the data analysis was done to find out any significant difference in reading post-test mean scores between the both groups. Results indicated that students in the experimental group showed a significant improvement in their writing compared with the students in control group (p<0.05). This study came to a conclusion that the stretched text training can contribute to the improvement of the students’ writing fluency and accuracy skills.

The findings of this study will be highly invaluable for EFL teachers, material developers and text designers to consider the usefulness of the stretched text to invest more in designing and applying such materials. However, the present thesis focused on the stretched text strategy training task as a treatment which can be useful and effective in boosting Iranian learners’ writing fluency and accuracy. It was supposed that the stretched text strategy training would reinforce the learners’ writing fluency and accuracy of learners more effectively than the normal traditional way. Likewise, it seems that the stretched text strategy training tasks are more powerful in testing students writing fluency and accuracy skill. The results also showed that the there was a positive impact of the stretched text on the students’ writing fluency and accuracy.

This study may be useful to Iranian EFL learners who have serious problems with writing fluency and accuracy. Instruction based on the stretched text prior to the writing activities and before engaging those in writing tasks may encourage the teachers to replace conventional or traditional method of instruction for the purpose of enhancing EFL learners’ writing fluency and accuracy. However, teachers and researchers are highly suggested to use this approach in a flexible manner (Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, Couzijn & van den Bergh, 2002). This can be helpful if
the stretched texts are used with other tasks leading to success. Other studies may be needed to find that whether the stretched text strategy training could affect other language skills or the users' higher levels of self-esteem. Although the stretched text training is perceived as a desirable trend, the technology may have some side effects such as lack of live interaction among the participants or technophobia which affect the learners' motivation in using the computer for learning a language. The limitations of the present study could be the small size of the research sample and slow internet which halted the searching hypertexts difficult.

REFERENCES


USING COHESIVE DEVICES OF REFERENCES IN ENGLISH POLITICAL NEWS WRITTEN BY PERSIAN NON-NATIVE RESEARCHERS

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ABSTRACT
This study compared and analyzed the use of references as cohesive devices in English political news articles written by American natives and Iranian non-natives. It aimed to find the possible similarities and differences in using cohesive, demonstrative, comparative, and personal references. Thus, 200 news articles from international and national online newspapers and magazines were selected from 2011 to 2014. News articles included 100 on American native political news and 100 on Iranian non-native ones. The Halliday's (1994) study was adapted to form the model for analyzing the data in the present study. The number of references used in American native political news included 6308 among 64046 words while the number of references in Iranian non-native political news composed 4353 words among 64054 words. After determining the frequency and percentage of each reference, Chi-square was used to see if the difference between these references in group of writers who used references was significant. Descriptive analysis showed that the reference “the” held the highest frequency and references like “hers” had the lowest frequency among Native American news articles. In Persian political news, the highest frequent reference was “the” and references such as “yours” had the lowest frequency. Thus, the quality and quantity were totally different. Implications of this study for teachers could be useful in teaching effective writing through using cohesive devices like cohesive, demonstrative, comparative, and personal references.

KEYWORDS: Cohesive devices, reference, news articles

INTRODUCTION
A text or discourse is not just a series or combination of sentences for introducing different random topics. It is combining sentences in a logical way, according to their meaning and that helps to create unity for a text. This is what we call cohesion in which sentences stick together to function as a whole. Cohesion, the most important principle and criterion of textuality, is the
connection or the connectedness manifested when the interpretation of one textual element in the
text (a word usually but not necessarily in another sentence).

Dooley and Levinson (2001) state that cohesion is achieved by “using linguistic signals in the
text as clues to help hearers in coming up with an adequate mental representation. Within a
discourse structure, these linguistic signals function as a link which glues the individual parts of
discourse together. In addition, Pickering’s (1978) discussion in the introduction paragraph of
*Cohesion* implies that how much and fast a person’s mind can accommodate new information
depends on how much that piece of new information relies on what the person has already
known, that is, old information. This statement relates directly to the concept of cohesion.

Pickering (1978) also views cohesion as something which ties a discourse together in a linear
way. Halliday and Hasan (1976) explain that cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some
element in the discourse is dependent on that of another element and that one presupposes the
other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. Thus, cohesion is
the use of linguistic means or linguistic devices to knit the unity of a text. Cohesion, the most
important principle and criterion of textuality, is the connection or connectedness manifested
when the interpretation of one textual element (a word located in one sentence) is dependent on
another element in the text (a word usually but not necessarily in another sentence). Cohesion
relates to the “semantic ties” within text whereby a tie is made when there is some dependent link
between items that combine to create meaning. The foundations of text linguistics were laid
down by Halliday and Hasan’s “*Cohesion in English*” in 1976. Cohesion is defined as the set of
linguistic means we have available for creating texture (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 2), i.e., the
property of a text of being an interpretable whole (rather than unconnected sentences). The
purpose of the present study is to compare English political articles in mass media written by
American native and Iranian non-native authors concerning the use of references as cohesive
devices.

**Statement of the problem**

Second language acquisition researchers on writing skill as Halliday and Hasan’s work in 1976
(*Cohesion in English*) emphasize the act of producing cohesive discourse in order to ensure
texture or cohesion in writing. The effect of discourse devices on writing is very strong since they
provide us with various kinds of grammatical devices which are used to stretch any piece of
discourse to be cohesive. Thus, since in traditional grammar the focus is on form not syntax,
there was a need to have sentences in combination which are created with discourse analysis
attempts. This need originates from two factors. One the one hand, researchers such as Halliday
and Hasan (1976) see that using linguistic ties makes the text more cohesive and understandable.
But, it seems that students do not use grammatical cohesive devices efficiently because the
problem noticed by teachers is that students have many problems in writing effective discourse in
general and in using cohesive devices in particular. On the other hand, although a number of
researchers (Yoon-Hee Na, 2011) have mainly investigated the area of referential cohesion from
varying perspectives and in different disciplines, a handful of them have merely conducted a
comparative study on using references in the discussion section of English political articles
written by American natives and Iranian non-natives.
Significance of the study
This study may help to accelerate the knowledge of ESP students who are going to be the future writers in this domain. Findings of the present research may provide various types of references which are different in the discussion section. It is worth noting that the use of references in political articles can be realized differently among native and non-native authors. By comparing the American native with those of Iranian non-native corpora, one can draw his/her attention to how different authors treat differently with references to make their discussion sections cohesive. Its pedagogical recommendations can lead to enhance the knowledge of those instructors who teach academic political writing and make them be conscious of the standard references of “discussion” section as a subgenre.

This may make their students aware that such references are to be included in their political article discussions. Actually, this will help political students be sensitive to the format of discussion section and the design of references within the text which affect the readers’ comprehension significantly. The role of discussion as an argumentative text could be revealed through analyzing and comparing the native and non-native political discussion section in the present study. In a nutshell, what manifests as the product of this analysis will be utilized for pedagogical implementations including writing and analyzing political papers, especially in ESP courses.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Cohesion has been studied thoroughly in various aspects. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion enables us to create a text. It is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as the “set of semantic configuration that is typically associated with a particular class of context of situation, and defines the substance of the text”. In their view, the function of cohesion is to relate one part of the text to another part of the same text. Consequently, it lends continuity of the text. Most scholars (e.g., Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981; Halliday & Hasan, 1976) define cohesion as the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations.

Cohesion has gained prominence in studies on discourse analysis as well as L1/L2 writing research following Halliday and Hasan (1976) seminal work on *Cohesion in English*. Halliday and Hasan (1976) defined cohesion as “the set of possibilities that exist in the language for making text hang together” (p.18). In a similar vein, conceptualized cohesion as “the connectivity of ideas in discourse and sentences to one another in text, thus creating the flow of Hinkel's (2003) information in a unified way.” (p. 279). For Halliday and Hasan (1976) and other researchers in Hallidain tradition, the organization of text is made up of relationships among items in the text and those relationships are realized through the use of cohesive devices. Reid (1992) further extrapolated cohesion devices as “words or phrases that act as signals to the reader; those words or phrases make what is being stated relate to what has already been stated or what soon will be stated” (p. 81). Cohesion is divided into two subcategories: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion in then divided into five main categories: reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction. Reference occurs whenever an item indicates that the identity of what is being talked about can be retrieved from the immediate context. Pronouns,
determiners, definite articles, and comparatives such as *he, this, the, less* are reference items. The interpretation of the reference elements depends upon presupposed information contained in the sentences immediately above it.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), such cohesive devices which mentioned previously serve to contribute to text cohesion. They believe that text cohesion leads to greater text coherence which in turn enhances quality of writing. Although Halliday and Hasan (1976) did not consider issues of language pedagogy in their research, the effective use of cohesive devices has been identified as one of the important criteria for good writing and thus considered as something to be treated in a pedagogical context (Hinkel, 2001). The theory and practice of grammatical cohesion has been widely analyzed by many foreign linguists (e.g., Baker, 1992; Valeika & Buitkiene, 2006).

**Classification of cohesive devices**

Halliday and Hasan (1976) provide us with the basic categories of cohesive devices in academic texts which distinguish grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion and recognize more specific subcategories within them. This model is discussed in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammatical cohesion</td>
<td><em>help to guide reader through the text</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>create surface links between sentences</td>
<td>these/her/similar/it/otherwise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Substitution</td>
<td>replace a previous word or expression</td>
<td>one/ones/same/do/so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>leave out words or phrases from sentences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>show the relationship between sentences</td>
<td>moreover/and/but/or/for instance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical cohesion</td>
<td><em>involve the reader in the argument</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>restate the same lexical item in the later part of the discourse</td>
<td>e.g., newspaper for newspaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General nouns</td>
<td>refer back to animate and inanimate nouns for location; (people) for human</td>
<td>e.g., (stuff) for inanimate, (place)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synonymy</td>
<td>express a similar meaning of an item</td>
<td>e.g., “slope” for “incline”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Super ordinates</td>
<td>involves the use of general class words</td>
<td>e.g., “vehicle” for “car”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>tendency of some words to co-occur</td>
<td>e.g., fruit, skin, citrus, lemon, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grammatical cohesion refers to the linguistic structure. The highest structural unit in the grammar is "the sentence" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 28). The structure determines the order in which grammatical elements occur and the way they are related within a sentence. Cohesive relationships with other sentences create a certain linguistic environment, and the meaning of
each sentence depends on it. On the other hand, “Lexical cohesion is ‘phoric’ cohesion that is established through the structure of the vocabulary” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 318). Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are related in terms of their meaning. References, as one of the groups of cohesive devices, have been defined by some of the scholars to be presented briefly.

**The concept of references**

Brown and Yule (1983, pp. 27-28) see the nature of reference in text and in discourse as an action on the part of a speaker/writer. It describes what they are doing “not the relationship which exists between one sentence or proposition and another.” Mc Carthy (1991, p. 37) states that we must consider the notion of discourse segments as “functional units, rather than concentrating on sentences and to see the writer/speaker as faced with a number of strategic choices as to how to present them to the receiver.” He adds that reference items can refer to segments of discourse or situations as a whole rather than to any one specified entity in that situation. The main feature that characterizes reference is that the information signals for retrieval. The identity of particular thing that is being referred to has a referential meaning and cohesion is found then the same thing occurs a second time. Reference has the semantic feature of definiteness or specificity. Because of that there has to be reference to the context of situation. Referencing items do not have to match the grammatical class they must have semantic properties (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 31). Reference shows the connection between the real world and the entity, because of that it cannot refer to something that does not exist. Yule (1996) and Lyons (1995) point out that not all referring expressions have identifiable physical referents, they can be imaginary, hypothetical, or fictional entities (such as the Tooth Fairy and Santa Claus), but they do exist in imaginary or fictional world. Expressions themselves cannot be treated as having reference, but the speaker or writer gives the referential function in a context. For us it is left to assume if we can identify what they are talking about, even when the entity or individual described may not exist. Communities which share the common language and culture have certain referring expressions to identify certain entities on regular basis. We usually think that certain referring expressions can only define very specific entities and we may think that a name like ‘Shakespeare’ which can only be used to define a specific person.

One of the options that grammar of English offers creating surface links between sentences is reference. Halliday and Hasan (1976) point out that reference features cannot be semantically interpreted without referring to some other features in the text. A pronoun is the most common linguistic element as referring devices in a textual environment. However, there are other linguistic elements used to fulfill the same function such as: articles, demonstratives, and comparatives.

Reference can be accounted as “exophoric” or “endophoric” functions. This is because simply when we refer to a given item, we expect the reader to interpret it by either looking forward, backward, or outward. Exophoric involves exercises that require the reader to look out of the text in order to interpret the referent. The reader, thus, has to look beyond or out of the text with a shared world between the reader and the writer. “Exophoric reference directs the receiver ‘out of’ the text and into an assumed shared world” (Mc Carthy, 1991, p. 41). For example, ‘that must
have cost a lot of money' in this example we have to look out of the situation to retrieve the meaning of the sentences (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Hessamy and Hamedi (2013) attempted to compare and contrast the frequency of the use of cohesive devices in independent and integrated essays written by 95 upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners to find out about any possible changes in the type and frequency of using cohesive devices due to the nature of writing task. The participants were native speakers of Farsi between 18 to 30 years old, studying English as a foreign language in an English language center in Yazd, Iran. The sample included 58 female and 37 male students. They were asked to compose an integrated argumentative essay after reading a text and listening to a lecture on the same topic as it is designed in TOEFL iBT writing test. The participants first completed an independent task which had to prompt to write about and then completed an integrated writing task with a two-week interval between the writing sessions. The tasks were taken from the TOEFL iBT writing task. Results indicated that there was a significant difference in the use of almost all types of cohesive devices between the two conditions with the independent task producing essays with lower cohesive device counts. The results revealed that in terms of textual cohesion, the participants preferred using anaphoric references to cataphoric references while substitution and ellipsis in both independent and integrated sample writings were rarely used. The students were also found to be better at using references and lexical cohesion in their integrated writings than in their independent essays. Finally, it can be concluded that the integrated writing task has positive effects of test method on writing performance and may advocate the use of integrated writing tasks to provide a better picture of students’ writing abilities.

Ghasemi (2013) investigated the use of cohesive devices in second language writings. As far as the communicative nature of writing is concerned, cohesion is regarded as an essential textual component in creating organized texts and rendering the content comprehensible to the reader. Many researchers have explored the connection between the use of cohesive devices (CDs) and the quality of the writing. To gain more insight into this area, this study reviewed some studies focusing on the use of CDs and the relationship between the numbers of CDs and writing quality. The analysis of collected data from different EFL/ESL researchers has shown that the learners were able to use various CDs in their writings. Additionally, the study highlighted some of the cohesive problems in writing and the possible pedagogical implications for teachers. The purpose of the study was to investigate CDs used in different genres composed by learners from around the globe and the relationship between the use of CDs and quality of their essays. The findings also provide insight into the abilities of native and non-native writers to convey their ideas into written forms. The results of the study showed that some CDs were more preferred than some others for a variety of reasons. The dynamic nature in the use of CDs could be contributed to the nature of the data collection procedure since some CDs belong to the conversational data in oral performance. The other reason might be minimal amount of knowledge and necessary discourse in which such structures are used.

There are cross linguistic differences in the use of CDs by native and nonnative learners. Findings proved that language users resorted to pronominal more than other CDs in order for creating textuality between the sentences. There might be some other reasons for the distinct
differences between the natives and non-natives in the use of certain CDs on account of cross-linguistic differences. On the one hand, it could be emanated from the lack of non-natives’ English language proficiency, especially, because non-natives may lack knowledge of what makes a written material a meaningful English text. The results of this study provided some insights into the general pattern of CDs in EFL/ESL learners’ academic and nonacademic writing. This would help to identify students’ problems in using CDs, for instance, overuse or underuse of certain categories, and, thereby, modify teaching writing and incorporate a more precise plan for teaching the appropriate use of CDs. The pedagogical implication is that it is essential to incorporate reading into writing in order to enhance students’ awareness of coherence and cohesion. Students can acquire syntactic structures, features of genre, or vocabulary through the process of reading to write. What’s more, observing the use of CDs can also enhance students’ writing skills and promote writing teachers’ teaching quality.

THE RESEARCH QUESTION
The present study investigated the answer to the following research question:
Do non-native Iranian researchers use cohesive references functionally as similar as the American native ones in the political articles?

METHODOLOGY

Data
The research sample that is used in this study consists of 200 political articles and news i.e., American native researchers (100 written by NRs of English and 100 written by Iranian non-native researchers of English). They were randomly chosen from recent publications in prestigious international online newspapers and magazines such as (US news, Yahoo news, Newsweek magazine, Jame Jam online, & Keyhan International) in the field of politics. It should be mentioned that they were news articles of media, not the research articles published in political journals. In order to specify whether the native articles are written by American writers, the CV of each writer, that is, the country of birth and the University of their Studies were checked online. The data set were developed by selecting articles published internationally and nationally from 2011 to 2014. In order to compile more reliable and recent corpora, only the articles published since 2011 onwards were selected. There are some rationales behind this selection:
1. Firstly, many natives and non-native authors of English have written significant articles regarding this domain in various journals, etc.
2. Secondly, a bundle of theses have conducted studies on other corpora such as economics, chemistry, physics and so on.
3. Thirdly, the availability of these political articles in Mass Media like magazines, newspapers, or even on-line websites relevant to politics (e.g., News Week, Iran Daily, Tehran Times, Jame Jam online, US news, Iran news, Keyhan International, etc.) makes data collection much more feasible.
When conducting studies in contrastive analysis, Connor, Nagelhout, and Rozycki (2008) pointed out that it is important to establish a valid criterion of comparison between data, in other words, to examine sets comparable original texts with “maximum similarity” written in two or more languages. Although one set of articles in the current study were written by Iranian non-native authors, their English writing proficiency can be taken to be at a native or near-native level since the articles have been published in these widely-known national magazines and journals.

As mentioned above, this study relied on just English political articles in two set of corpus written by Iranian natives and American natives, which were compared in terms of references. The first section, political articles written by native authors, comprised of 100 articles with 64,046 words. The latter part, articles written by Iranian writers, comprised of 100 articles with 64,057 words in the articles. On the whole, 200 articles which included 93,019 words were analyzed. The reason for selecting political articles published in media was that writing articles appears to be a very complicated activity with many visible and invisible layers. Moreover, in order to communicate effectively with English language countries via media (e.g., newspapers, magazines, etc.), knowledge of Lingua Franca is a pre-requisite and lack of this knowledge leads to misunderstanding. Thus, this comparative analysis enhances native authors’ proficiency in writing highly-qualified political news articles.

Instrumentation
The present study employed a framework for the analysis of references. It was extracted from Halliday’s (1994) classification of references based on Halliday (1994). This checklist contains three or four types of references concerned with cohesive devices including cohesive, demonstrative, comparative and personal references. The references were compared to other sources (e.g., Comparative Analysis by James, 1980 & Discourse Analysis by Brown & Yule, 1983).

Procedure
As mentioned before, the non-native corpus consists of 100 published articles or stories contributed by Iranian authors. Meanwhile, the native corpus contains 100 articles published in prestigious international journals mentioned earlier. Based on the above-mentioned checklist, we extracted all the references used by writers. This researcher read the articles completely to find the full references. The selected RAs which were obtained directly from online magazines and newspapers, converted to Word Format. So, we could count the total number of words in each article and find the references one by one with (Find) section in the Microsoft Word 2007 in order to calculate the distribution of references. Our main focus was only to analyze the function of references not the structures. At first, we highlighted all the references in (Find) section of Microsoft Word, and then we began counting those which merely had the function of reference and skipped those which had other functions. For example, sometimes that had the function of a cohesive reference, but sometimes a conjunction. e.g., Friends of former president George Bush are worried that his health may be in a dangerous decline. The latter one was ignored in counting. Or it mostly was a cohesive reference and sometimes acted as an expletive. For example: It’s inappropriate for Trump to moderate the event. In addition, the references which equaled to zero or one were not taken into consideration because their frequency was low. Some
references overlapped. In other words, they had more than one function and belonged to two or three categories. Thus, it made the decision challenging for the researcher to put them in which category. Because of that, among the nine categories, only four of them which were the most frequent were chosen in order to narrow down the scope of analysis because this research cannot cover all of them. For instance, *ambiguous pronoun reference* was totally removed from the checklist due to multifunction of some references. The references were calculated twice to estimate inter-rater reliability. The results are presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Articles</th>
<th>Inter-rater reliability</th>
<th>Demonstrative</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Personal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>0.909</td>
<td>0.994</td>
<td>0.783</td>
<td>0.987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iranian</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>0.834</td>
<td>0.842</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By this descriptive analysis, the researcher can determine the frequencies of the selected references in native and non-native articles and stories within the mentioned field. The quantitative analysis also enables the author to come to an appropriate conclusion of any difference or similarity on the using of the references. All the references in all the articles were calculated. As a result, the total word count performed by Microsoft Word Office for the non-native data was about 64,057 words and 64,046 words for the native corpus. In the final stage, various references will be identified using Non-parametric Chi-square procedure, which is a technique for looking at how references function in the corpora. The sole objective of this test here is to identify the probable significant concordance among references in these two separated collection of articles. And in case of no compatibility, or at least slight correspondence, we can figure out how and why non-natives prefer some specific references and overlook some others which natives do not. In summary, 200 articles from one discipline in two languages were randomly chosen from recent published leading journals. First, the overall organization of the articles was analyzed based on Halliday’s (1994) model. Then the frequency of references was analyzed in the English political articles.

**RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS**

The first step taken in the analysis of references in the mentioned articles was to run word count to determine the length of the two corpuses. A total of 4353 references were identified among 64,057 words in the Iranian non-native corpus, and 6308 references were recognized among 64,046 words in American native data.

**Frequency and percentage of references**

The two sets of political articles investigated in this study were analyzed concerning the frequency of occurrence of references in each of the 4 categories of the checklist used in this study. The data presented in the following tables show the statistics which were obtained after the analysis of the articles; rows numbered 1-4 represent the taxonomy applied here in the present study. The frequency and percentage of all references in each of the two groups (data) of political
articles under study are shown under the columns of native and non-native corpora (data) as well. Total number of references is also given.

| Table 3: Native American and Non-native Iranian Articles Using References |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------------------|
| **American native articles and news** | **Demonstrative references** | **Comparative references** | **Personal references** | **Total references** | **Total words** |
| cohesive references | 5464 | 91 | 306 | 447 | 6308 | 64046 |
| **Iranian non-native articles and news** | | | | | | |
| | 3387 | 81 | 375 | 510 | 4353 | 64054 |

**Frequency of occurrence of references in articles**

*Cohesive References*

The first category in the classification used here represented the cohesive references. Different cohesive references were found which were mostly situated in texts on politics by native writers. However, the least amount of this category was found in political articles written by Iranian non-native authors. The sum of the occurrence of this category in the two groups of articles equaled 8851 cases (83.02% of all the references) among which the definite article “the” had the highest frequency in both native and non-native articles while “yesterday” had the lowest.

*Cohesive References*

The most frequent demonstrative reference was found in political articles written by native writers. This category had the frequency of 172 cases in all the two groups (1.61% of all the references) among which the demonstrative reference “those” had the highest frequency and clearly “then” the least frequency in both native and non-native articles.

*Comparative References*

This category occurred 681 times in the two groups (6.38% of all the references). The most frequent type of this category was found in articles by American native authors and clearly the least amount of this category was found in articles by Iranian non-native writers. Among which, in native corpora “other” had the highest and “identical”, “differently” and “equally” had the lowest frequency. Nevertheless, “more” had the most and five items, that is, “additional”, “else”, “identically”, and “likewise” had the lowest frequencies in non-native articles.

*Personal References*

The fourth category of references in the classification of references in the present study deals with the personal references. The overall number occurrence of this category was 957 cases equal to 8.97% of the references highlighted in this study. The most frequent type of this category was found in articles on politics by non-native writers, while the least amount of this category was found in American native articles.

*Descriptive statistics*

There were some differences in the frequency of references used by American and Iranian writers of the news articles.
Table 4: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>91.00</td>
<td>5464.00</td>
<td>1577.000</td>
<td>2595.46438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iranian</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>81.00</td>
<td>3387.00</td>
<td>1088.250</td>
<td>1542.93041</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this table, N is the number of four items of references we considered in each group. The obtained mean was 1577 for American native articles and 1088 for Iranian non-native articles. It shows that Iranian writers used fewer references in comparison to American native ones. Since descriptive statistics cannot show the significant difference between the groups, data were analyzed through Chi-square analysis.

According to Tables 3 and 4, there are four categories of references in both groups which are compared. The American NSs and Iranian NSs used references in their political news and editorials. The contingency table was used to do the Chi-square calculation. The significance level was at (p<0.05.) which indicated the difference between each category of the references between American NRs and Iranian NNRs regarding the use of references in the political texts.

**Discussion**

In this section, the results were discussed to give the possible reasons for the results obtained from the study. Moreover, it gives answers to the research question.

Do non-native Iranian researchers use cohesive references functionally as similar as the American native ones in the political articles?

In answering the research question, the researchers proposed the following discussion: The results of the Chi-square analysis showed that there are some differences and similarities between native and non-native news articles. The most frequent types of references used by American researchers were cohesive references, and the least used ones were demonstrative references. For instance, the following examples show this phenomenon.

In the end, Gingrich emerged where he started under sharp attack from his rivals and under increasing security by the media as he tries to maintain his position as the GOP front-runner.

People who heard the debate on the radio thought Nixon won but those who saw it on TV thought he lost.

In Iranian non-native articles, the most frequent items of references were cohesive references, but the least used items were demonstrative references. For example, the use of “he and those” in the following examples.

On Iran’s nuclear program, Gates has said he still believes Iranian leaders are intent on building a nuclear weapon and are “getting closer.”
A senior advisor to the Islamic Revolution leader says the European Union serves as a tool in the hands of the U.S., adding the policies of the bloc are influenced by those of Washington.

In native news articles, 6308 words out of 64046 were references whereas in non-native news articles they were 4353 words out of 64054. Generally, the writers of American news articles used more references than those of Iranian ones. The probable reasons and justifications for the obtained results may be due to the mastery of native researchers in their writings. Due to the fact that there are some differences between English and Persian grammar, and overgeneralization which sometimes occur by non-native researchers in writing English political news. In other words, Iranian writers feel free to overuse some references in their own language and may omit some of them without clear reasons. The other reason may be due to transferring this habit in writing English texts coming from their L1. In fact, overuse of the references is open to criticism heavily reference-based might appear “layman like” and also readers may lose their trust in what writers try to express. On the other hand, because of uncertainty and lack of sufficient knowledge, some other writers prefer to underuse them. It may expose them with a lot of criticism on the part of readers. Thus, learning how to use references is a must. Difficulty with cohesive devices is either because of discourse conventions or because of the lack of familiarity of Persian writers with a wide variety of techniques in applying these devices. Differences in the use of cohesive references may be due to the knowledge of grammar Iranian researchers may have in using grammatical patterns which help them to feel self-confident in using grammatical elements without referring to the English native samples in using the pre-fabricated structures. Other references such as comparison, personal and demonstrative were not significantly different from Persian researchers’ use of references. This may be due to the lack of enough knowledge on using such references since they hold less frequency and Persian researchers may follow the English native researchers in using such structures.

The result of the present study is compatible with the following works including Abdul Rahman (2013) who has emphasized that there was a vast difference between the natives’ and the non-natives’ use of cohesive devices such as reference in frequency, variety, and control. Similarly, Ghasemi (2013) in his study concluded that there were distinct linguistic differences in the use of cohesive devices by native and non-native learners. In a similar vein, Hessamy and Hamedi (2013) in an attempt to compare and contrast the frequency of the use of cohesive devices in independent and integrated essays found out that there was a significant difference in the use of almost all types of cohesive devices between the two conditions.

In American native news and articles, the frequency of cohesive references was 5464 cases, 91 demonstrative references, 306 comparative references, and 447 personal references. On the whole, the total number of used references was 6308. The most frequent types of references used by American writers were cohesive references, and the least used ones were demonstrative references. The following examples present the use of these references.  

In the end, Gingrich emerged where he started under sharp attack from his rivals and under increasing security by the media as he tries to maintain his position as the GOP front-runner.
People who heard the debate on the radio thought Nixon won but those who saw it on TV thought he lost.

Meanwhile, the frequency of these four categories of references in Iranian non-native news articles were 3387 cohesive references, 81 demonstrative references, 375 comparative references, 510 personal references. Totally, Iranian non-native writers used 4353 references in writing news and articles. In Iranian non-native articles, the most frequent items of references were cohesive references, but the least used items were demonstrative references.

On Iran’s nuclear program, Gates has said he still believes Iranian leaders are intent on building a nuclear weapon and are “getting closer.”

A senior advisor to the Islamic Revolution leader says the European Union serves as a tool in the hands of the U.S., adding the policies of the bloc are influenced by those of Washington.

A comparative analysis between these two sets of articles indicates that Iranian non-native writers used less references than American native writers. This incompatibility may be due to several reasons proposed as follows:

Lack of mastery on cohesive markers can lead to inappropriate use of references.

Iranian students’ lack of variety in using references. For instance, some of comparative references are unique in use like otherwise, less, identically, etc. They may not have known the function of each reference and also the context they should use.

Teachers are not competent enough to teach references to students appropriately.

Sometimes students cannot distinguish form from the function. For example, students have difficulty comprehending the difference between the two functions of the same form such as it, this, or there which may be references or expletives in terms of function in different contexts.

**CONCLUSION**

Cohesive devices are important features of academic writing which connect the sentences together in a text and make it cohesive. The main purpose of cohesive devices is to help readers make logical connections between sentences. Writers use these devices in their academic writing in order to make their writing more accurate and comprehensible. The results of this study showed that the researchers of Iranian political news and articles used fewer references than those of American news. This underuse problem may be related to the impact of first language and culture of non-native writers on the use of references in the second language. Following Atai and Sadr (2006), results of this study showed that familiarizing and involving students with the rules of academic writing may improve their reading ability and can help them to know what kind of discourse they have to produce and understand in academic settings.
Finally, it can be said that even when Iranian non-native researchers have a good knowledge of references, they may be influenced by their first language and culture. Contrastive studies on the use of references in two or more languages could help the writers to be familiar with the differences between the Persian and English structures and cultures and the language use of discourse markers when they write the text.

The most important contribution of this study to English for academic purposes classrooms is that students seem to have little awareness of these cohesive devices and the interactional nature of reading in general. In Iranian context, special instruction should be integrated into ESP or EAP for political courses specially and for writing courses generally to help students become competent and successful writers. There are discrepancies in different disciplines in applying references. A better understanding of these discourse devices by Persian writers can help them to have a good command of using these cohesive devices to be able to write their essays articles with standard academic format and to introduce themselves as members of the academic discourse community. Despite the growing demand for English for specific purposes instruction in Iran, ESP courses are still limited to learning specific cohesive texts rather than a variety of these linguistic elements. With the continued expansion and participation in the international specific arena, much attention should be drawn to the design of ESP courses and the roles of references in binding the sentences together in an ESP passage. This can help to prepare learners for future professional communication. The materials should help learners to be familiar with different strategies which are helpful to comprehend the grammatical structures of the passages deeply. The results of the present study can be useful for both ESP developers and ESP text designers to explain the structure of disciplines which have specific characteristics in terms of using grammatical cohesive devices specially references. Finally, the results of this study can be useful for every EFL teacher and learner who is interested in learning the nature of English political news and articles and their linguistic structures.

This study is limited to the size of two sets of data. We used the “data” here instead of “corpora” due to the fact that this work does not include a wide range of computerized data but only 100 native articles and 100 non-native articles. The researcher merely took an adapted checklist based on Halliday (1994) and four categories of references including cohesive, demonstrative, comparative, and personal. The other references out of the scope of the checklist were not included in the analysis.

For future research, it is hoped that more large-scale, corpus-based studies on non-native and native writers’ articles will be done to enable us to gain a more comprehensive picture on the interlanguage development of references by different group of learners and nations. Another research can be an investigation on the reasons of over-use or under-use of references by Iranian native authors. With regard to pedagogical implications, address to the effective practices in helping the learners to improve cohesion of their writing. Other studies can provide a list of references in Persian and compare and contrast in order to predict what problems students might encounter based on the differences and to discover whether students over generalize and transfer the use of references from their first language to English. Further studies can be done to compare the frequency and position of references in native and
non-native essays, compositions, and letters to provide important implications for the teaching of references in those genres. The focus of some other studies can be on those cohesive references which were not included in the proposed checklist.

REFERENCES


MORPHO-SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS OF PERSIAN-ENGLISH BILINGUAL WRITTEN CODESWITCHING BASED ON THE MATRIX LANGUAGE FRAME MODEL

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ABSTRACT
The present paper investigates Persian-English codeswitching based on the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) Model of Carol Myers-scotton, 1993 in written texts of bilinguals in online communications. Three principles of MLF model is tested on Persian-English bilingual discourse extracted from a website named www.mohajersara.com. The three principles of the model are as follow: the morpheme order principle, the system morpheme principle, the uniform structure principle. The method of this study contains three stages. At first stage, each principle was tested on the corpus of 300 bilingual CPs separately to see whether our data validate the principles or not. Then the morpho-syntactic analysis and explanation for each sample CP was provided. The morpho-syntactic analysis provides general support for the principles of the model although a few counterexamples were founded in the corpus. Finally the numerical results for the principles were calculated using the percentage formula. The results of the numerical analysis reports that the principles of the model are valid for Persian-English written data. The results also design a pattern for Persian-English compound verb formations.

KEYWORDS: codeswitching, MLF model, morpheme order principle, system morpheme principle, uniform structure principle

INTRODUCTION
In some societies, where language speakers apply more than one common language during their conversations, a number of outcomes may result from the grammars of those languages in contact. Among those outcomes, codeswitching is a subject which has strongly attracted linguists and language researchers’ attention. The researchers introduce different definitions for CS in the literature but all share the common idea of, in order to codeswitch, language speakers must know more than one language. One of the definitions is by Muysken (2011) which defines codeswitching as “the use of more than one language during a single communicative event”. Studies on the subject of codeswitching (CS hereafter) generally look into sociolinguistic approaches but in recent two decades some researchers developed structural theories to find the possible universal structural constraints on CS. Among the studies of such material Poplack’s(1980) linear order constraints and other non-linear approaches have been developed
such as Woolford’s (1983) government and binding framework and Disciullo, Muysken, and Singh, 1986, the Null Hypothesis of Mahootian in 1993, Myers-scotton’s 1993 MLF model, the Functional Head Constraint (Belazi, Rubin, & Toribio, 1994) and the Minimalist approach (MacSwan, 1997). Among the structural approaches MLF model claims to be universal and applicable for languages which are not mutually intelligible. Most of studies in CS in general and within the MLF model in specific focus on oral CS and not written CS.

Matrix Language Frame Model

Matrix Language Frame (MLF) model is a theoretical model which applies a production-based approach for CS. It was first proposed by Myers-Scotton in 1993 in a book named Duelling languages and then it has been developed and expanded with adding a new supporting model named 4-M model in some further publications for instance Myers-Scotton and Jake (2000a, 2000b, 2001). According to Myers-Scotton, the participating languages in CS do not participate equally. The language with the larger participation is called the Matrix Language and the other language is called Embedded Language (Myers-Scotton, 2002). This model is designed for intra-sentential CS. In general, intra-sentential CS refers to a switch between languages in a particular clause or sentence but according to Myers-Scotton (2006) clause is the best unit of analysis for bilingual data whether dependent or independent clauses and the sentences can not be considered as the unit of analysis.

This model is built on two oppositions, Matrix Language (ML) vs. Embedded Language (EL) opposition and content vs. system morpheme opposition. It is essential to divide content and system morphemes for identifying which language is ML and which is EL. And it should be mentioned that what 4-M model does is the division of content and system morphemes and clarifying of the three categories of system morphemes. So, the categories are divided as follow: content morphemes such as nouns, verbs, some propositions and system morphemes: 1-early system morphemes for instance determiners, plural –s and some propositions, 2-late system morphemes, 3-bridge late system morphemes e.g. possessive “s and of”, 4-outsider late system morphemes for instance the 3rd person singular –s.

Content morphemes according to Myers-Scotton and Jake (2000a, 2000b, 2001) are those “morphemes which express semantic and pragmatic aspects and assign or receive thematic roles, e.g. nouns, verbs, adjectives and some prepositions”. These morphemes are necessary to transmit messages in communication. System morphemes like function words and inflections, express the relation between content morphemes and do not assign or receive thematic roles. They are crucial in building grammatical frames. In bilingual CPs, system morphemes are coming only from the ML and content morphemes are taken from both the ML and EL.

According to Myers-Scotton (1993a), a bilingual clause may consist of three types of constituents:

“1- ML islands which are made of ML morphemes only and are under the control of ML grammar. They don’t have any influence from the EL”.

“2-EL islands, EL islands are also well-formed by EL grammar but they are inserted into an ML frame. Therefore EL islands are under the constraint of ML grammar”. (2002:58)
“Mixed constituents include morphemes from both Matrix Language and Embedded Language”.

The following examples show constituents types:

(1) yeki az sargarmi-ha walking mall hast.
   ML island + EL island → Mixed constituent
   One of hobby-pl walking mall is.
   One of the hobbies is walking mall.

(2) job offer-am umad
   Mixed constituent
   job offer-poss come-3rd-PST
   I received my job offer.

Regarding the above information, the MLF model is based on several principles. Three principles of the MLF model which were tested in the present study are:

**The morpheme order principle**
In Matrix Language + Embedded Language constituents consisting of singly occurring Embedded Language lexemes and any number of Matrix Language morphemes, surface morpheme order will be that of the Matrix Language. (Myers-Scotton, 1993:83; 2002:59)

**The system morpheme principle**
In a mixed constituent, all system morphemes “which have grammatical relations external to their head constituents will come from the Matrix Language”(Myers-Scotton, 2002).

**The uniform structure principle**
This principle predicts that “the structure of the Matrix Language is always preferred in bilingual speech”. (Myers-Scotton, 2002)

**LITERATURE REVIEW**
**Studies on MLF Model**
Since the arise of the MLF model in 90s when Myers-Scotton (1993) examined a Swahili-English data of conversations in Nairobi and proposed the model after a large corpus was tested, it has been employed to test different contact phenomenon such as CS and convergence for different pairs of languages. A number of studies in CS have applied the MLF model; one of the studies was applied by Margaret Dauchar (2006) who tested three principles of the model on the collected data of informal conversations by bilingual Welsh-English speakers. She examined the model to decide whether Welsh-English can be considered as a classic case of CS or not. The results of her analyses suggested general support for the three principles she tested which were as follow: the asymmetry principle, the uniform structure principle and the matrix language principle. The principles of the model were examined on the collected data of informal conversations by bilingual Welsh-English speakers. Finally the result showed that Welsh-English CS can be marked as a classic case. Another study which was conducted by Laura Callahan in 2004, applied the model on a corpus consist of Spanish-English CS in novels published in the
United States. She found implications for applying oral model to a written corpus and the results of tested principles supported the model on the especial corpus. It has been several studies in different language pairs, like the above studies and other language pairs such as German-English, Russian-English, Turkish-English and etc; still it seems there is a lack of enough study on the corpus consisting Persian language as one of the participating languages in CS. Examples of such studies are two studies which have conducted this model to a corpus consisting Persian language in 2013. One of them is a study of Azeri-Turkish/Persian CS conducted by Rouhi and Heidri. They employed this model for the features of light verb construction in Azeri/Turkish-Persian. The data collected from the interactions between bilingual students and teachers. The results revealed that Persian finite verbs do not participate in Azeri-Turkish morpho-syntactic frame simply because such verbs are [+thematic role assigner] and carry more syntactic baggage. Another study is a test of this model in 2013 by Rahimi and Dabaghi which is conducted to an oral corpus of Persian-English data. The corpus was obtained from conversations of Persian-English bilinguals on TV shows. Then the three principles of the MLF model were validated. The results of the analyses suggested general support for the principles of the MLF model. They also concluded that Persian-English CS can be considered as a classic case of CS.

**RESAERCH QUESTIONS**

Considering the Matrix Language Frame model principles, the problem statements are as follow:
1. Is the MLF model which is a model for oral CS, qualified to predict written CS?
2. Is Persian-English written CS a "classic case" of CS?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Data collection procedure**

The data used in this study were collected from a website names www.mohajersara.com, and thus this study can be considered as a part of what is known as Computer Mediated Communication (CMC). The website is a virtual community in which the Persian-English bilinguals communicate and write about various topics such as immigration ways to different countries, how to apply for higher education abroad, the life styles outside Iran and etc. The participants are Iranian bilinguals who live/are going to live in English speaking countries. The data which gathered from this website are written texts on different subjects and also the comments which the participants make on each others' texts. A numbers of bilingual clauses with intra-sentential CS were extracted from these written texts. It should be mentioned that according to Myers-Scotton bilingualism is “the ability to use two or more languages sufficiently to carry on a limited casual conversation.” (Myers-Scotton, 2006).

**Instruments**

We have applied Computer and internet as the instruments of the present study in order to collect data, no special software was used to extract the information, and the data was extracted randomly and manually through the pages of Mohajersara website.
Statistical procedure

As mentioned in the previous section this model has some principles for determining the matrix language from the embedded language and therefore the model has a specific design and procedure. In this study two decisive factors which are morpheme order and the source of a special type of system morphemes were considered in each bilingual clause for identifying the Matrix Language. Wherever the two languages involved in CS have distinct surface orders, the morpheme order will be applicable and thus this is true of Persian and English, since Persian is SOV language while English is SVO.

The application of the first factor which is morpheme order results in four possible outcomes:

1. “Persian” is marked as the ML if the order of morphemes follow Persian rules;
2. “English” is marked as the ML if the order of morphemes follow English rules;
3. “either” is marked if the order is well-matched with both of the languages;
4. “neither” is marked if the order is not well-matched with either of the languages.

After the application of the first factor (morpheme order), the application of the second factor was applied. Identifying the source of system morphemes. According to Myers-Scotton (2002), in a mixed constituent, all system morphemes which have grammatical relations external to their head constituents will come from the Matrix Language. These morphemes are called the outsider late system morphemes. Examples of outsiders are morphemes marking sub /obj-verb agreement and case affixes in some languages. Considering this factor, we can have three different conditions in our bilingual CPs:

1. Persian is the source of outsider late system morphemes
2. English is the source of outsider late system morphemes
3. Both Persian and English provide late system morphemes

After the application of above factors on the data, the percentage of Persian and English as the matrix language is shown in different tables for each principle.

Data Analysis

All of the bilingual utterances were extracted manually. The utterances were then divided so that the resulting units of analysis were bilingual clauses. The data were analyzed according to the MLF framework, in order to identify each clause as having a Persian, an English, either or neither ML. Additionally another classification was defined in the data analysis process, which was the verb formation process for Persian compound verbs found in data. The verb formation processes were involved (1) EL Verb + ML Verb and (2) EL Noun +ML Verb. In fact the samples were descriptively analyzed one after each other. By descriptive analysis we mean that for each example, the reasons which made the CP to mark as Persian, English or etc. were discussed. Then, after the process of descriptive analysis for each CP, the number of each ML categorization was counted and the percentage for each ML category was calculated using the percentage formula for both morpheme order principle and system morpheme principle.
Testing the Morpheme Order Principle on data

According to this principle in any of the bilingual clauses of the data, the Matrix Language dictates the word order of the CP. As we know the word order for Persian language and English language are not equal. The major constituent order of Persian in SOV and the major order for English is SVO.

The following are several examples that show the differences of ML and EL word order and we can obviously see that one of the participating languages which is ML dictates the surface structure of the CP.

(3) har state-i ye tax-i dare bara mahsoolat-eš.
    each state-indef one tax-indef have.3rd for product-pl-pospr
    Each state has different taxes for its products.

This clause simply shows the different patterns for Persian and English word order. The place of object and verb show that the ML is Persian. Another point is that although the word tax can be used as a singular mass noun in English, but it uses in plural form when it aims to refer to different kinds of levies. Here the word tax which is a noun of EL, embedded in a bilingual CP, have a singular form in the CP refereeing to different kinds of levies. It seems that the word taxes tend to be singular here because the morpho-syntactic frame is organized by Persian grammar. But it may sounds ungrammatical if we use the singular form in the same CP of English.

(4) Ø mixāštīm cell phone begirim
    want-1st-pl cell phone get-1st-p
    We wanted to get (buy) cell phone.

In this example we can obviously see that the word order of the CP obeys Persian grammar. Considering the fact that Persian is a pro-drop language, the subject can be absent and when the subject is absent, the ending of the verb determines the person and number of the subject. Here for the subject ma which is a null-subject, we have-im clitic which is a subject-verb agreement on both of the verbs in CP. We can also see that the word cell phone (which is an EL element) is placed in the Persian object position and placed before the verb begirim. According to these two reasons Persian is the Matrix language.

(5) Ø say konid be Engelisi communicate konid. (SCV)
    Try do-2nd-pl in English communicate do-2nd-pl
    Try to communicate in English.

In the previous example we pointed out that Persian is a pro-drop language but English is not. When a language is not pro-drop, it means that it is a non-null-subject language. But there are exceptions even for a non-null-subject language as English. For English language, it is standard for clauses in imperative mood to lack explicit subjects. Considering this fact, the above example is a challenging case in determining the ML.
In this CP we can see that the subject position in empty in Persian, and here we have a null-subject (šoma), which is a characteristic of Persian language but not English. Besides since the clause has an imperative mood, it has a null-subject (you) in English too. This may cause the CP to seem to be compatible with the word order of both Persian and English. But still, there remain some points which make Persian as the ML. Firstly, here we have inflection on the verbs which is a specific feature of Persian. Secondly, the position of the verb shows that the ML is Persian.

(6) man tu highway ziād ranandegi mikonam. (SACV)
   I on highway too much drive do-1S
   I drive too much on highway.

As we can see the verb mikonam is in the final position in this clause and the word ziād which is a complement for the verb, obeyed Persian word order and placed before the verb; but for English the verb complement position is after the verb, thus the clause has obeyed the Persian word order. So we should consider Persian as the matrix language of the clause.

(7) key approve-šun umade?
    when approve-POSS come-PST
    when did their approve(letter) come?

Here the affix–šun is the possessive adjective which joints to the English noun, approve. According to the place of pronoun, the ML for this CP is considered to be Persian.

**Persian compound verb formations in bilingual Cps**

**EL verb + ML verb**

(8)Ø bayad apply konam.
    should apply do-1st-PRES
    I should apply.

The word order of this CP is SV, and thus the ML can be marked as ‘either’, because it’s acceptable in both of the languages. But before deciding on the matrix language, there is a point about Persian verbs that we should pay attention to. As we know in Persian language like many other languages, verbs are divided into two categories of simple and compound verbs. A compound verb is a multi-word compound that functions as a single verb. For a compound verb in Persian usually a noun or an adjective is combined with a light verb and makes a compound verb. For example:

Noun + Light v → compound v        šekast dādan / šekast xordan
Adj + Light v → compound v          xaste šodan / xaste kardan

Here we have an English verb (apply) in the CP which combined with a Persian light verb (konam) and formed the Persian compound verb (apply konam). But as we referred to Persian compound verb formations, a v+v compound do not occur in Persian language. Although we do not have such a compound v constituent in Persian but the combination of this English v with a
Persian light v is completely meaningful and possible here in this CP. This makes the decision a little bit hard. So, we mark the ML of this CP as ambiguous. There are several cases in the data in which an English lexical verb is combined with a Persian 1\textsuperscript{light} verb. The following are some examples:

(9) Ø bad az yek sāl instate šodim. 
after one year instate become-1\textsuperscript{st}pl-PST 
We instated after a year.

Although in this CP the Persian compound verb formation goes through the same process as number (9), and it makes the decision on what is the matrix language a little difficult but we can simply mark Persian as the ML if we look at the word order which obeys Persian rules, v is located at the final position and verb compliment is placed before the verb.

(10) Øunja ro(-ra) leave kardim. 
There obj-marker leave do-1\textsuperscript{st}pl-PST 
We left there.

The determining factors in this CP are as follow: subject and object position. Subject-verb agreement and verb position. All these elements follow Persian grammar rules.

(11) key šomā lease kardid? 
when you -pl lease do-2\textsuperscript{nd}pl-PST 
When did you lease?

The surface structure seems to be equal in both Persian and English, so the matrix language can be marked as either by morpheme order principle.

(12) agar in kar-o bekonid, mojebre distract šodane havas-e-šun miše. 
If def job-obj do-2\textsuperscript{nd}pl, cause distract become attention-poss become. 
If you do this, it will distract them.

(13)Ø faqat bače ro(-ra) care mikone. 
just baby obj-marker care do-3\textsuperscript{rd}S-PRES 
She/He just takes care of the baby.

Persian is considered as ML in two (12-13) above clauses.

**EL noun+ ML verb**

In a number of cases an English noun joints to a Persian light verb to built up a Persian compound verb. A number of examples are as follow:

(14)Ø mitars-am na-tun-am handle kon-am.
afraid-1st s  NEG-can-1st s  handle do-1st s
I'm afraid (that) I can't handle the problems.

In this CP the English noun (handle) combined with the Persian light verb(konam), made the compound v (handle konam) which means (edāre konam) in Persian. The compound verb formation obeyed the Persian formation process. The surface word order seems acceptable in both Persian and English. But since we have subject-verb agreement on verbs and we have a Persian compound verb formation process, we marked ML to be Persian.

(15) Ina ro bayad raayat konid vagarna detention mikonan. These obj-m should respect do-2nd pl otherwise-NEG detention do-3rd pl.CONT You should respect these (law), otherwise they will arrest you.

Here the noun (detention) is added to the verb (mikonan), and made the compound v of (detention mikonan) which obeys Persian grammar rules. We considered Persian as the ML in number 15.

(16) tā do sāl-e dige citizen miše. In two year other citizen become.3rd s
He will be a citizen in two years.

Table 1: Persian compound verb formations found in bilingual CPs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EL verb + ML verb</th>
<th>EL noun + ML verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instate šodan</td>
<td>Handle kardan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distract šodan</td>
<td>Detention kardan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply kardan</td>
<td>Citizen šodan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Testing the System Morpheme Principle on data
As we mentioned earlier, according to system morpheme principle, outsider late system morphemes must come from the ML. There are some examples of outsider late system morphemes:

(17) Ø tuye dog friendly-tarin šahr zendegi mi-kon-am in dog friendly-superlative city live do-CONT-1st s I live in the most dog friendly city.

(18) bedune passport ne-mitun-id check in beš-id. without passport NEG-can-cont-1st pl check in become-2nd pl You cannot check in without a passport.

(19) Øgofteš ke she drives like crazy. Say-past-3rd s that she drive-3rd s like crazy
He/she said that she drives like crazy.

As we can see in above (17, 18) examples, Persian personal endings (-am, -id) which are morphemes that placed at the end of verbs and are used to mark person, and the number of the verb are coming from Persian, these are a typical examples of outsider late system morphemes and thus according to system morpheme principle “Persian” should be marked as the ML here. For number (19), we can see that the personal endings are coming from both Persian (–š in gofteš) and English (–s in drives), and the ML should be marked as “either” according to system morpheme principle. But if we take a deeper look into this CP we can see that there exists a challenging point which makes it a little hard to decide which language is the ML here. If we consider the morpheme order principle here, at first it seems that the order of morphemes in the whole CP is compatible with both Persian and English, and thus the ML must be marked as “either” according to morpheme order principle, but in a deeper look of Persian and English structure, we know that it’s only in “Persian” that we can have null subjects and not English. Considering this feature, Persian is qualified to be marked as ML according to morpheme order principle and not English, because it is only in imperative mood of English that we can have null subjects. So, the challenging point is that if we have Persian as ML according to both morpheme order and system morpheme, then how can it be possible to have an outsider late system morpheme from the EL? We mark this CP as “ambiguous” for system morpheme principle.

(20)Ø faqat bače ro(-ra) care mikone.
She/He just takes care of the baby.

(21) man white trash-ha ro(-ra) qabul daram
I count on white trash(Americans).

(22) aval begir permito (-ra), ba’ad…
First receive Permit obj-marker, then…

(23) Amricai- hā nemipazirand discrimination o(-ra)
The Americans do not accept discrimination.

Another type of outsider late system morphemes are case affixes. Considering this fact, we can note that Persian has one overt case morpheme, the accusative suffix –ra which is obligatory on specific direct objects (Ganjavi 2007, Karimi 1991, 2003a, 2005). Although there have been debates on what –ra actually is, most of the linguists suggest that –ra is, in fact the accusative case morpheme. So, Persian is considered as the matrix language according to system morpheme principle in examples number (20) to (23).
Testing the Uniform Structure Principle on data

As it was mentioned before in the definition of this principle, uniform structure principle predicts that the structure of the Matrix Language is always preferred in bilingual CPs. In the previous sections, we saw that content morphemes are supported by both ML and EL, whether each of the languages is the ML in each specific CPs. But outsider late system morphemes supports only from the ML. In other words, English as the EL in our corpus provides only content morphemes. This obviously indicates that the structure of Persian is preferred in our data as the Matrix Language, and thus this is a support of the uniform structure principle.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Having applied the principles on the data, the results indicated that in most of the bilingual clauses in the sample, the Matrix Language can be identified as Persian according to the morpheme order principle. In fact only 15 CPs found for which the matrix language can be marked as ‘either’ which is equal to 7.00 %. The analysis of the bilingual clauses in the sample according to the System Morpheme Principle showed that Persian provides system morphemes in 91.66percentages of the cases. Table 2 and 3 show the percentage of each principle for the sample data.

<p>| Table 2: Percentage of matrix language according to morpheme order principle |
|------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matrix language</th>
<th>Number of CPs</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>88.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Either</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| Table 3: Percentage of matrix language according to system morpheme principle |
|------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Matrix language</th>
<th>Number of CPs</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>91.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Either</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results of this study the answer to the first question reveals that written CS can be predicted by MLF model which is a model developed for speech and therefore there found no limitations for the application of the MLF model to written data and thus the written data can be as much valuable in morpho-syntactic analysis of CS phenomenon as speech data are. For the second question we came to the conclusion that Persian-English CS can be considered as a classic case of CS in order to which only one of the participating languages is the source of morpho-syntactic frame of the CPs. In 88.33% of CPs considering the morpheme order principle and 91.66% of CPs considering the system morpheme principle, Persian is the source of morpho-
syntactic frame of the bilingual CPs. The results of this study are in line with other earlier studies on CS through the framework of MLF model in Persian as a participating language and other language pairs like Welsh-English (Margaret Deuchar, 2006), Spanish-English (Laura Callahan, 2004), Chinese-English (Yu Liu, 2007) etc. Although all these mentioned studies, validate the applicability of MLF principles, but it seems that ambiguous CPs or counterexamples might be found in data samples, like what we found in number (8) and (19), and thus there is a need for further research in this framework.

CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, the data tested was significantly compatible with the MLF principles. This suggest that written Persian-English CS in indeed a classic case of CS and the morpho-syntactic analysis of the data indicates that Persian is the ML which dominantly provides the morpho-syntactic frame for the mixed constituents and on the other hand English is contributed as the EL. The findings have implications for the use of written data in linguistics analysis in our limited corpus. Applying morpho-syntactic models rather than sociolinguistic models can be considered as a tool for analyzing different contact phenomena, such as CS, especially for analyzing bilingual children’s CS since its obvious that different developmental factor interact with language contact phenomena. The MLF model also can be applied to classical bilingual written texts in Persian such as S’aadi or Molana books, etc in order to testify the universality of the principles of the model and in order to test the validity of written data for linguistic analysis.

REFERENCES


ENGLISH LINGUAFRANCA (ELF) AS A MEANS OF COMMUNICATION AMONG CONSTRUCTION WORKERS IN GHANA

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ABSTRACT
In countries that English is spoken as a second language, it is mainly learnt in the classroom as a school subject. However, individuals who have not had formal education can acquire and use English in informal settings outside the classroom. This study explores the various social contact situations and instances that motivate or make it necessary for construction workers to acquire and use English at the construction site. It also seeks to discover the communicative strategies employed by the construction workers to communicate. Using observations and interviews, it was discovered that some construction workers acquire and use English through their interaction with workers they do not share the same Ghanaian language with. The findings of the study show the reality of the global use of English as a language for communication beyond academic and official circles. The study concludes that though the English acquired and used among the construction workers is not the Standard English spoken by educated Ghanaians, it enables them to communicate to get their work done at the construction site.

KEYWORDS: construction workers, social interaction, communicative strategies

INTRODUCTION
In Ghana, English is spoken as a second language. In English as Second Language (ESL) countries, the English language is used as the official language of the country as well as for inter-ethnic communication. For this reason the English language serves as the language of rule and it is learnt in school. Though the English language is mainly learnt in the classroom as a school subject because it is spoken as the official language and used for inter-ethnic communication among educated people, the communicative environment serves as language input for people who have had little or no classroom education to acquire English. Rogers (2004) observes that because English is dominantly spoken or is the official language in an ESL context, language learners can make use of social interaction as a source of language input to acquire the language in an informal setting.

In Ghana, just as it is in most African countries, people migrate from the rural areas to the capital city to work. Some of the people, who migrate to the capital city to work or look for job, are people who have had little or no classroom education. Some of these people who migrate to the capital city, Accra, work as artisans, casual workers in factories, labourers, taxi drivers and others engage in all sorts of petty trading.
For some of these people, the environment or the social context in which they work make them come into contact with people who speak English. For this reason, they have the opportunity to learn English in an informal setting outside the classroom.

In addition, people who migrate to the capital city come from different parts of the country and for that matter speak different languages. As pointed out earlier, English is used for inter-ethnic communication among educated Ghanaians. People with little or no classroom education who speak different languages and cannot speak English like the educated Ghanaians are confronted with communication problems when they have to interact with people outside their ethnic group in the city of Accra. How is this communication problem resolved?

As noted earlier, the social context of ESL countries as the case is in Ghana provides the opportunity for some of the people who migrate to the capital city to learn English. Even though the multilingual situation in Ghana has led to the situation where many Ghanaians speak two or more Ghanaian languages, the ESL context still enables some Ghanaians who have not had formal education to learn English outside the classroom in an informal situation.

The kind of work that people who have not learnt English in the classroom do to some extent determine the people they come into contact with. Individuals who by virtue of the work they do or the kind of social interactions that they have expose them to people who speak English, are likely to learn to speak English to some level of proficiency.

Apart from the kind of work or exposure that an individual has had which is a factor that can facilitate the learning of a second language, learning a second language is also facilitated by different kinds of motivation. The inner edge that an individual has toward the learning of language facilitates the learning of a second language. In addition, the purpose of enhancing one’s intercultural communication and affiliation serves as motivation for learning a second language.

Gardner (2001), states that learning a second language stems from the integrative motivation of the individual to identify with the speakers of the second language (L2) community. And Dornyei (1990) explains that in the absence of a salient L2 group in the learner’s environment (as the case is in the ESL context of Ghana where English is learnt in school) the identification can be generalized to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the L2.

Though social interaction and motivation are not the only factors that facilitate the learning of a second language, they are by far the major factors to consider in any study that investigates the learning of a second language.

This paper seeks to explore the various social contact situations and the factors or the instances that motivate or make it necessary for individuals who have had little or no formal education and work in the construction field to acquire and use English outside the classroom in the ESL context of Ghana. It also seeks to discover the communicative strategies employed by the construction workers to manage communication when they have to use English.
LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of studies have been conducted on the role of motivation and social interaction in the learning of a second language. Social contact situations and motivation play vital roles in the acquisition of a second language. In an informal setting too these factors still play important roles in the acquisition and use of English as a second language. People in ESL countries learn English in informal settings under several different circumstances and for several different reasons. Moreover, the way communication takes place in multilingual communities involves certain negotiation strategies. The literature review focuses on studies that have considered how communication takes place in multilingual communities and also addresses the role of social interaction and motivation in the acquisition and use of a second language with reference to the acquisition and use of English in ESL settings.

Communication in Multilingual Communities

How people communicate in communities which are linguistically heterogeneous is different in many ways from how people communicate in monolingual communities. In multilingual communities the complex language contact situation brings with it different norms. Canagarajah and Wurr (2011) question the theorization of speech community as based on shared language which makes the notion of a speech community homogeneous. According to them, for South Asians, community is based on shared space. Therefore, it can accommodate many language groups living in the same geographical space. Such communities assume diversity and contact. Language diversity is the norm in such communities. This is the kind of communities we have in the situation of Ghana; especially in the capital city Accra and other urban communities in Ghana.

In one neighbourhood in Ghana, one can count as many as more than ten languages co-existing in one community. When one moves out of one’s house, one encounters people who speak different languages. One does not assume one will come into contact with others who speak one’s own language. Though many people speak more than one language, sometimes, there is no common language to facilitate interaction among interlocutors. In most cases the common language that interlocutors may share may be English or Akan. Canagarajah and Wurr (2011:2) in their description of the situation in Asia, pointed out that what enables people to communicate in such multilingual communities is “not a shared grammar, but communicative practices and strategies that are used to negotiate their language differences.” They observe that the speakers negotiate their differences to construct norms that work for them in their conversation. These are intersubjective norms; they are co-constructed. While these norms will work in that particular context, they may not work for another set of communicators.

One of the earliest strategies to emerge in the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) was documented by Firth (1996) in what he calls the let it pass principle. It is noted that multilinguals do not disturb the flow of communication when one encounters a word or structure that deviates from one’s norms or turns out to be unintelligible. The person waits patiently for further occurrences of the item, so that with more clues or additional opportunities the person is able to renegotiate it for him or her to construct meaning. Canagarajah (2007) points out that to know more about the negotiation strategies and communicative practices that facilitate communication,
we have to directly observe and empirically analyze interactions. The strategies we derive from ELF research is a good starting point. They help us develop a more representative taxonomy and a list of strategies that multilinguals adopt in their interactions.

Kramsch (2002) points out that what multilinguals aim to achieve therefore is an alignment of the language resources they have with the purposes in question. He indicates that successful communication depends on aligning the linguistic resources to the social, situational, and physical features operative in a context. Atkinson, Churchill, Nishino and Okada (2007:171) define alignment as “the means by which human actors dynamically adapt to—that is, flexibly depend on, integrate with, and construct—the ever-changing mind-body-world environments posited by sociocognitive theory”. In other words, alignment takes place not just between human beings, but also between human beings and their social and physical environments.

Khubchandani (1997:94) cited in Canagarajah and Wurr (2011:2) identifies two strategies used by communicators to negotiate their language differences. He referred to these two strategies as “serendipity and synergy.” He explains these strategies as follows:

Individuals in such societies acquire more synergy (i.e., putting forth one’s own efforts) and serendipity (i.e., accepting the other on his/her own terms, being open to unexpectedness), and develop positive attitudes to variations in speech (to the extent of even appropriating deviations as the norm in the lingua franca), in the process of coming out from their own language codes to a neutral ground. (Khubchandani, 1997:94)

The communicators in these situations are constantly exposed to codes that they are not familiar with in their interaction with speakers of other languages. In their effort to construct mutual intelligibility, they become more open to unexpected norms.

Several studies have confirmed that multilinguals who use English in contact situations do not adopt a common code. For example, House (2003) in a study, shows how students of English from different countries use culture specific pragmatic strategies to facilitate communication with outsiders. Canagarajah, (2006) found that multilinguals who use English for contact purposes start with their own codes and adopt negotiation strategies to achieve intelligibility. In this sense, LFE is a locally achieved practice.

It has also been pointed out in the literature that the objective of language learning is also different for multilinguals. They do not aim to master a language for all purposes and functions. They master the codes that are sufficient for the functions they want that language to perform. There is no need to develop proficiency in all the languages for the same purposes or the same language for all purposes. Multilinguals adopt different codes in different contexts and for different objectives. From this perspective, the objective of their acquisition is repertoire building rather than total competence in individual languages. Multilinguals prefer to develop a range of codes for a range of purposes.

Based on her observations of multilinguals, House (2003:559) argues that ELF (English lingua franca) users are competent enough to be able to monitor each other’s moves at a high level of
awareness. Canagarajah (2007) observes that the competence of ELF speakers is of course different from that of monolinguals. This competence for cross-language contact and hybrid codes is derived from their multilingual life. According to Canagarajah, because of the diversity at the heart of this communicative medium, ELF is intersubjectively constructed in each specific context of interaction. The form of this English is negotiated by each set of speakers for their purposes. The speakers tend to be tolerant and try to monitor each other’s language proficiency to determine mutually the appropriate grammar, phonology, lexical range, and pragmatic conventions that would ensure intelligibility. The speakers involved in the interaction tend to negotiate what is acceptable for the purpose of their interaction.

Motivation in L2 Learning

L2 motivation research started in Canada because of the unique situation of Canada with the co-existence of English and French communities (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). As a result of this, early studies on L2 motivation such as Gardner and Lambert (1972) viewed L2s as mediating factors between different ethnolinguistic communities in multicultural settings.

In this case, an individual’s motivation to learn the language of another community is for the purpose of enhancing intercultural communication. The idea of an individual’s desire to communicate with people from the other speech community led to the notion of the language learners’ desire to integrate into the culture of the second language community. For this reason, the L2 motivation that has been well developed is the integrative motive.

A well known example is Gardner’s (1985) motivation theory. Under the integrative motivation approach, it implies that the learner of a second language has a positive affective disposition toward the L2 community or speakers and has the desire to interact with them and associate with them and become similar to the members of that community. This further implies that the L2 learner has respect for the members of the L2 group and wants to be identified with them.

For the case of an ESL situation, there is no salient L2 group that the L2 learner would like to integrate with. Since there is no salient L2 group, Dornyei and Csizer (2002) have expanded the meaning of the integrative motive to also refer to some more basic identification process within the individuals self concept. They pointed out that the concept of ‘possible self’ and ‘ideal self’ proposed by Markus and Narius’s (1986) form part of the integrative motivation. According to Markus and Narius (1986 : 954) ‘possible selves’ represent “individuals’ ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming” and “idea self represent the attributes that a person would like to possess.”

Gardner (2007) states that when considering motivation and second language learning or acquisition, it is possible to consider two types of motivational constructs. According to him research has always contended that there are in essence two types of motivation that should be considered when referring to second language acquisition. The two motivational constructs that are well known are integrative and instrumental motivation.
Instrumental motivation in learning a second language relates to how the learning of a second language can help an individual to improve in his or her career. An example of instrumental motivation for L2 is a study carried out by Wongthon and Sriwanthana (2007). The study reports how a group of taxi drivers experienced problems because of their lack of fluency in English caused by extreme poverty that denied them access to formal education. According to the study, the drivers believe that with improved English competency, they would live their lives and earn a living more comfortably.

**Social Interaction in L2 learning**

Research on interaction is conducted within the framework of the Interactive Hypothesis, which emphasizes that conversational interaction facilitates language acquisition because it connects input (what learners hear and read); internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention; and output (what learners produce) in productive ways (Long, 1981). Interaction provides learners with opportunities to receive comprehensible input and feedback as well as to make changes in their own linguistic output by making adjustments in what they say to match with the norms of the target language. Long investigates conversations between a native speaker (NS) and nonnative speaker (NNS) and proposes that negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways (Long, 1983).

Vygotsky (1978) emphasizes the importance of social interaction in the acquisition of language and proposes the “Zone of Proximal Development” (ZPD). The most frequently referenced definition of the ZPD is “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978:86). Vygotsky laid the foundation for the interactionists view of language acquisition. According to Vygotsky, social interaction plays an important role in the learning process.

Vygotsky suggests that private speech, as is the case of social speech between people who have a great deal of shared knowledge, need not be fully syntactic in its form. Frawley (1997) argues that such utterances serve to focus the speaker’s attention on what needs to be accomplished, how to accomplish it, and when something has been accomplished, and then allows the speaker evaluate what has been accomplished. He points out that different languages offer their speakers different linguistic options for carrying out such mental activities.

Social interaction plays an important role in language acquisition. Dornyei and Csizer (2002), observes that the importance of language learning as a social event is recognized by L2 researchers, resulting in the inclusion of a prominent social dimension in most comprehensive constructs of L2 motivation, related to issues such as multiculturalism, language globalization, language contact and power relations between different ethnolinguistic groups. The role of social interaction in the learning of L2 is also emphasized by Williams (1994) when he points out that though L2 is a ‘learnable’ school subject that is taught explicitly, it is also a deeply social event that requires the incorporation of a wide range of elements of the L2 culture.
Social interaction is important in second language acquisition because of a number of reasons. The purpose of learning a language is to communicate with others. For one to learn the language of another group of people is to enable one communicate with that group of people. Bahrami and Sim (2012) point out that whether language acquisition is to take place in formal or informal language learning settings, ESL context or English as a foreign language (EFL) context, language learners need to have exposure and access to a sort of language input.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Much of language acquisition studies tend to be classroom based. But we do know that a lot of language acquisition takes place outside the classroom in informal settings. Language acquisition takes place in a number of everyday contexts. Classroom learning strategies may not fully reflect the acquisition in everyday communicative contexts. There is therefore the need to study interactions outside the classroom. There is also the need to conduct studies in communities outside the academic or scholarly environment to enrich knowledge about language acquisition and use.

There is the need for more studies on everyday contexts of language acquisition and use. There is the need to learn more about why adults learn a second language and the negotiation strategies they employ to manage communication and learning. Canagarajah (2007) strongly suggests the need for more studies to be conducted in communities outside the academic setting to provide insight into language acquisition and use in multilingual communities. According to him such studies are important because they reveal that language acquisition is based on performance strategies, purposive uses of the language, and interpersonal negotiations in fluid communicative contexts.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The objective of the study is to explore the acquisition and use of English outside the classroom in the ESL context of Ghana.

The research questions of the study are:

1. How does social interaction enhance the acquisition and use of English among construction workers who have had little or no formal education?
2. What factors motivate construction workers to acquire and use English?
3. What are the motivated learning behaviours of construction workers?
4. What social contexts facilitate the acquisition and use of English among construction workers?
5. What are the negotiation strategies employed by construction worker to manage communication?

**THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This study is conducted within the framework of English lingua franca or English as a lingua franca (ELF) which falls within the broad framework of World Englishes (WE). According to
Pakir (2009) the label WE is used to refer to ‘new Englishes (institutionalized varieties or nativized and indigenized varieties used in countries that use English as a second language) proposed by Kachru. WE also refer to the wide-ranging approach to the study of the English language worldwide. Kachru (1985) proposes three circles in which the English language is used: the inner circle for native speaker setting, the outer circle for ESL settings and the expanding circle for the spread of English around the world.

An important contribution to the groundbreaking work by Kachru is now occurring for the Expanding Circle English. In this respect, Brutt-Griffler (2002) proposes the term World English. This he explains as language change through the processes of world language convergence and world language divergence (i.e., World English spreads due to the fact that many people learn it rather than by speakers of English migrating to other areas; thus two processes happen concurrently: new varieties are created and unity in the world language is maintained.) World English proposed by Brutt-Griffler (2002) is now used as a general cover term for uses of English spanning Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle contexts proposed by Kachru (1985). The meaning of the term WE thus now, comprises uses of English within and across Kachru’s ‘Circles’, for intranational as well as international communication.

Some researchers who study the use of English have indicated that the labels inner circle, outer circle and expanding circles are misleading. For example, Schneider (2003) points out that the use of outer circle to refer to ESL countries such as Nigeria, Ghana, India and Singapore, for example is not appropriate because there exists an increasing proportion of indigenous people who grow up speaking some form of English as their mother tongue. From Schneider’s point of view, the three overlapping circles proposed by Kachru seems to draw a distinction between English as a native language (ENL), English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL). But Kachru indicates that English belongs to all who use it and that norms and standards should no longer be determined by Inner Circle/ENL. This revolution started by Kachru has led to the wide spread study of English use among non-native settings.

The study of English use among non-native speakers of English who do not share the same L1 is the new paradigm within the study of English. What is established in the study of English is that it is the inner circle or native speakers’ variety that directs the current of English language teaching pedagogies. This is what is usually referred to as Standard English. The definition that is generally accepted to represent this variety is that given by Trudgil and Hannah (1995:1) cited in Pakir (2009:225) as:

The variety of the English language which is normally employed in writing and normally spoken by ‘educated’ speakers of the language. It is also, of course the variety of English that students as Foreign or Second Language (EFL/ESL) are taught when receiving formal instruction.

The established paradigm is being challenged in the 21st century by the emerging and evolving paradigm of non native speakers’ use of English within the world Englishes. Pakir (2009) indicates that it took a long time before admitting WE perspectives in discussions or even recognizing WE as a viable approach to studying English in the world. Schmitz (2012) also
observes that the realization that there are more nonnative speakers than native speakers of English in the world with institutionalized and nativized varieties as well as their own specific communicative, cultural and pragmatic competencies has led to the rethinking of present-day practices in teaching, teacher preparation, and the writing of textbooks. The World Englishes ‘revolution’ led by Kachru established itself as a new and emerging alternative to teaching and researching English as a language in the world. It is within this paradigm that English used by nonnative speakers for intra-ethnic communication as well as international communication referred to as English as a lingua franca (ELF) is gaining recognition and spread.

Now let us turn to the definition of English as a lingua franca or English lingua franca (ELF) and what it entails. Seidlhofer (2005) states that in recent years, the term ELF has emerged as a way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages. And according to Crystal (2003) roughly, only one out of every four users of English in the world is a native speaker of the language. So, most ELF interactions take place among nonnative speakers of English. What is distinctive about ELF is that, in most cases, it is a ‘contact language’ for inter-ethnic or inter-national communication.

The widely cited definition of ELF is that of Firth (1996:240) who defines ELF as “a ‘contact language’ between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication.” The website of ELF known as the VOICE describes ELF as an additionally acquired language system which serves as a common means of communication for speakers of different first languages. Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011) observe that no definition of ELF could be complete without considering its similarities to and differences from the well-established World Englishes paradigm. They pointed out that while these two paradigms differ in certain ways, their research orientations have a good deal in common. Both explore the ways in which the resulting ‘new’ Englishes develop in their own right as a means of expressing their nonnative speakers’ sociocultural identities instead of the norms of a native speaker of English.

One difference between WE and ELF pointed out by Dewey (2007) is that while World Englishes research is interested primarily in the study of ‘bounded’ varieties of English, the position of ELF research is that the world has become so interconnected, and English so bound up with processes of globalization, that a traditional varieties orientation is no longer viable, and that we should, instead, focus on English as fluid, flexible, contingent, hybrid and deeply intercultural by the nature of its use. Pennycook (2007) also points out, that the world Englishes framework places nationalism at its core while ELF, with its built-in scope for variability, is similar to the notion of plurilingual Englishes.

The definition of ELF makes it part of the general phenomenon of WE. The specific instance that ELF is used is when English is chosen as the means of communication among people from different first language backgrounds, across linguacultural boundaries.

ELF is described as emerging. It is not a finished product and therefore difficult to describe; it is being developed. Jenkins (2007), who is one the proponents of ELF, considers it an emerging
language that exists in its own right and is being described in its own terms. Jenkins contends that ELF is a contact language not dependent on native speaker norms (British or American English) and is molded by its many speakers in the world who are multilingual and whose L1s are not English. Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey (2011) also noted that ELF involves not only the frequent systematic use of certain forms (lexicogrammatical, phonological and so on) that are not found in native English, but also a range of pragmatic on-line processes that determine which particular forms are utilized at any particular point in a given interaction. And this calls into question the viability of attempting a description of ELF in the first place, at least according to the traditional sense of ‘language description’.

ELF researchers are engaged in exploring ELF use in a number of domains of social contact, particularly those of business, education (both school and university settings), tourism, politics, technology and the media (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey, 2011). They noted that two domains – business and higher education – have been more extensively studied in relation to ELF than any other. ELF research focus on domains is said to be in line with the observation of McGroarty (2003) that there has been a shift of emphasis in sociolinguistics from the study of language contact across geographical boundaries to domains as fruitful contexts for the study of language contact.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD
The research design was aimed at finding out how construction workers who have had little or no formal education acquire and use English to communicate with people they do not share the same L1 with. The social contexts that facilitate the acquisition and use of English among construction workers were explored. There was also a focus on the negotiation strategies used by the construction workers in their interaction with others who do not speak their L1.

Participants
The participants for the study were construction workers who were carpenters, masons, painters, electricians, steel benders and labourers resident in Accra, the capital city of Ghana. There were between twenty to thirty workers at work at the times that the construction sites were visited for observation. Though these workers reside in the Accra, they travel to other parts of the country to work.

Some of these workers have had little or no formal education and for that matter cannot speak English as educated Ghanaians. These workers come from different parts of the country and speak different languages. Though the majority of them speak more than one Ghanaian language, a few of them speak only their native language. In their interaction with one another they speak the local language common to them.

However at the construction sites they sometimes work together with other construction workers who speak other languages. This is where communication problems arise. Because some of these construction workers speak only their native languages, in their interaction with other construction workers at the construction site it becomes necessary for them to speak English.
This is a challenge in multilingual communities like Ghana. The construction workers who have not had formal education and therefore cannot speak English are sometimes compelled to use English to communicate with other workers they do not share the same Ghanaian language with. For these workers, the acquisition and use of English is spontaneous.

**Selection Criteria for Sites and Participants**

Five construction sites were visited to observe instances where the construction workers use English in their interactions. The visits were meant to observe the communicative practices and strategies the construction workers use in their interactions.

The construction sites were selected according to how big the sites were in terms of the number of workers contracted from different ethnic backgrounds to work. This was the case because it is when a large number of workers are at the sites that one gets a multilingual situation of workers from different ethnic groups. It is during these instances that it becomes necessary for the workers to use English in their interactions because the workers come from different ethnic backgrounds and speak different languages. Moreover, it is on these occasions that you get workers who have had no formal education using English in their interaction with other workers they do not share the same Ghanaian language with at the site.

After interacting with a number of workers, seven workers were selected for interview. The interviews were conducted to find out from the workers the instances that they have to use English in their interaction with others and the factors that motivate them to use English. The interviews were also meant to find out from the workers who have not had formal education how they learnt to speak English.

The participants for the interview were selected according to workers who have had little or no formal education but speak English with other workers especially at the construction site and their willingness to be interviewed. They were selected in consultation with the master carpenter who works as one of the supervisors. Five workers who have had little or no formal education were interviewed and two workers who have had formal education were also interviewed. In all, seven workers were interviewed.

**Research Methods**

Research methods comprised the following:
- Non-participant site observation with field notes
- Interviews with seven workers (some of the interviews were recorded)

**The Research Process**

Initial contact was made by contacting a master carpenter and a supervisor who has been working with a number of construction workers. This was meant to find out the instances that English is used as the medium of communication among the construction workers. Also, the initial contact was made to find out if there had been some workers he had worked with who have not had formal education and do not speak the languages that he speaks and how he was able to instruct them.
The initial contact was followed by an initial visit to one of the construction sites to meet some of the supervisors and workers. The visit was made to explain the purpose of the study to supervisors of the various sections or divisions of the construction site. There were supervisors for each group of workers. There were masons, carpenters, still benders, painters and electricians.

Five visits were made to the construction sites to observe the use of English among the construction workers. The observations were made to find out how English serves as the lingua franca in the situations where the workers speak different Ghanaian languages. The negotiation skills used by the workers in their interaction with other workers they do not share a common Ghanaian language with were taken note of.

In all, five visits were made to three construction sites. Of the three sites, two of them were visited twice and the third site was visited once, bringing the total number of visits to five.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS**

From the observations and interviews conducted, the acquisition and use of English among construction workers takes place at the construction sites as a result of real communication needs. For these workers, their use of English becomes necessary when there is a communication gap as a result of language barrier. When two workers realize they do not share a common Ghanaian language, they resort to the use of English. This use of English among construction workers serves as a form of input for the workers who have had little or no formal education to acquire and use English to some level of proficiency.

The first objective of the study is to find out how social interaction among construction workers facilitates the acquisition and use of English. For individuals who have had little or no formal education, their interaction with construction workers who have had some formal education and speak English facilitates their acquisition and use of English. Some of the workers interviewed indicated that they began to use English to communicate at the construction sites right from their period of apprenticeship. According to the workers interviewed, the use of English begins with the learning of the names of their tools and how to take measurements.

The supervisors interviewed confirmed that people who have not had formal education acquire some level of English expressions that they interact with at the construction site even before they complete their period of apprenticeship which takes two years. According to them, most apprentice who have not had formal education are able to start using English expressions after a few weeks of going to the sites and interacting with them and other construction workers. The supervisors made it clear that people who have had formal education do not come under apprenticeship to become carpenters or masons. It is individuals who have had little or no formal education who come for training to become construction workers.

The social context that facilitates the use of English among construction workers is when working at the site with other workers who do not share the same Ghanaian language with them. Some of the workers interviewed stated that it is advisable to use English at the site when
working with people one does not share the same Ghanaian language with. According to them, when some workers begin to speak a particular Ghanaian language that the other workers do not understand, it raises suspicion and mistrust because of theft cases at construction sites. In such cases, English becomes the language that all the workers use. These situations serve as English language input for the workers who have had little or no formal education to use English in their interaction with the other workers. This facilitates their acquisition and use of English.

The English language is no doubt perceived as a prestigious language. There are some of the workers who are supervisors but did not have much formal education and are not able to express themselves well in English. Some of these supervisors insist on using English even when one is interacting with them in a Ghanaian language they speak. The motivation for their insistence on the use of English is obviously because of the prestige associated with English. This reflects Dornyei’s (1990) explanation that in the absence of a salient L2 group in the learner’s environment, the individual’s desire to identify with the L2 can be generalized to the cultural and intellectual values associated with the L2.

Some individuals, like the supervisors with little formal education who want to be associated with the prestige that comes with the speaking of English are motivated to learn to speak English. The attitude of these supervisors confirms MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan (2002) observation that an individual’s willingness to communicate is a motivating factor for the acquisition of a second language. A willingness to communicate is a motivating factor in L2 acquisition because there are L2 speakers who avoid communication in the L2 while some less proficient L2 speakers actively engage in L2 conversation.

**Communication Strategies at the Construction Sites**

The observations carried out reveal some strategies employed by the workers at the construction site to manage communication. One of the strategies used by the workers is to use a different code to respond to something said in English. Some of the labourers who cannot express themselves in English use the local language that they speak to answer questions posed to them in English. One of such scenario was an interaction between a mason who speaks Ewe and English and a labourer who speaks Akan. Questions posed in English were answered in Akan. Yet, the person who asked the question in English (who does not speak Akan) understood the answers given in Akan. Below is an example of a short conversation between the two workers.

Mason: Where is foreman?
Labourer: ṣe ṣeke ṣie (He said he has gone home)
Mason: Oh! So, when are we going to start the work?
Labourer: ṣe mo ṣe ko nkyere mo se monhye ase (He said when you come I should tell you to start)
Mason: From where?
Labourer: ṣe aha (He said here)

Another communication strategy employed by the workers is translation. Sometimes, certain instructions given in English are translated into Akan by one of the workers to the rest of his colleagues. As if by convention or something agreed upon by the workers, to a large extent,
English and Akan serve as the two languages which are frequently used when there are workers who do not share the same Ghanaian language. There were instances that some workers who could not express themselves in Akan gave instructions in English to a group of labourers but the instructions were translated into Akan by one of the labourers to the rest of his colleagues.

The use of English among the workers goes on with some negotiation of meaning. Often, certain orders or instructions given are not fully understood. In such instances the addressees ask for clarification. Sometimes too, English expressions used were accompanied by gestures to facilitate communication. Much of English expressions used at the construction sites among the workers were not full sentences that were grammatical. Much of the expressions that the workers used were expressions that the workers themselves refer to as “broken English”.

In general, construction workers are not very proficient in English. My interaction with some of the supervisors reveals that in their use of English, their concern is not about grammar. This confirms Canagarajah and Wurr’s (2011) observation that what enables people to communicate in multilingual communities is not a shared grammar, but communicative practices and strategies that are used to negotiate their language differences. In addition to the use of “broken English”, there was codeswitching (a pervasive phenomenon in Ghana) among the workers. There were several instances of English expressions and expressions in Ghanaian languages juxtaposed in the same conversation and the insertion of English words into Ghanaian language sentences.

CONCLUSION
Even though English is mainly learnt in the classroom in ESL countries like Ghana, there are certain social contexts and instances that enable some individuals who have had little or no formal education to acquire and use English (at least to some level of proficiency). The English language acquired in informal settings outside the classroom may not be the Standard English spoken by educated Ghanaians but it enables them to communicate. After all, as pointed out by Canagarajah (2007) language acquisition is based on performance strategies, purposive uses of the language, and interpersonal negotiations in fluid communicative contexts.

The study is limited in its selection of construction sites for observation. Only construction sites where workers had been contracted from different ethnic backgrounds were selected for the study. Moreover, the workers who were interviewed may orient to the use of English differently in different contexts. In spite of these limitations, the findings of the study confirm that ELF is a flexible communicative means that takes place alongside other languages and forms part of a larger framework of multilingualism.

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AN APPRAISAL OF KRASHEN’S MONITOR MODEL

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ABSTRACT
Of all the constructs relevant to second language acquisition, Krashen’s ideation appears the most “voicing” and, paradoxically, the most arrowed with questions of validity and pedagogical fitness. This disparity has, unfortunately, turned out to be a fashion move in discourses on the Monitor Model, resulting in uncritical ‘advocacies’ and ‘objections’. The present paper, rather, takes to provide an appraisal of Krashen’s theory of second language acquisition. In line with Widdowson (1990), the appraisal partly involves a measure of the theory’s tenets along internal validity, calling for exposing, and gauging the uptake of the criticism the theory has been generating, alongside an evaluation of the model in the light of variables as input, interaction and interlanguage variation. The second portion effecting our appraisal relates to the assessment of the operational dimension of the theory, where questions of applicability and utility to practitioners and learners are raised. That the model’s ‘advantages’ and ‘drawbacks’ alternate, it is concluded that judgments of worth make not a proper “marking criterion”, for the flaws of the model are not so serious that the claims behind it are to be falsified, but are serious enough to falsify a focal adoption.

KEYWORDS: the monitor model, second language acquisition, the input hypothesis. explicit learning, output, interaction

INTRODUCTION
A salient feature of the language teaching and learning enterprise is that conducts, for their justifiability, have to base on a particular ideation. This component, which discharges the conceptualization of how language competence is attained, renders practices reputable, for they are said to reflect a particular understanding, or as Schouten (1979) calls “a sense of direction”. In fact, the inception of second language acquisition (SLA) as a recognizable area of enquiry marked the departure of rival claims, each competing to provide the adequate idealization for the nature of the processes involved in acquisition. This tension, which features in the multitude of constructs, may not be problematic, nor is it, as Schouten qualifies an “indicative of the immaturity of the field” (as cited in Ellis, 1995, p. 73). Tension, perhaps more accurately, does justice to the complexity of language as it touches on a variety of spheres and, thus, identifies with multiple frames of reference. Such multidimensionality hardly allows the persistence of a monologic, self sufficient theory. It is, yet, undeniable that some theories—perhaps for the audacity of their generators—are more attractive than others. Indeed, among the many SLA theories, krashen’s Monitor Model appears of high prominence, for initiating a postulate for the importance of a specific input state, triggering research investigating the role of input in SLA, and for being the theoretical platform from which several models—even opposing ones—
emerged on the surface. This reputation explains the multitude of ‘assessments’ whose very being reasserts such reputation.

Krashen’s model is made up of the intersection of five “inter-informing” tenets, each appearing to provide a partial rationale for another. The acquisition-learning distinction, as the label denotes, shows the ‘duality’ of language competence, while the monitor hypothesis further specifies the functioning of ‘learning’ as represented in the monitor. The natural sequence advocates that ‘acquisition’ comprises several stages the movement through which gets explained via both the affective filter and the input hypothesis alike. This combination poses limitations on the act of appraisal, given that proving a tenet’s validity or otherwise cannot subsume the entire model. For this, not only the tenets would be examined, but the very move of their combination as well. In what follows, I shall begin with an interpretation of the model, providing a summary of its central tenets and an examination of ideas “within their own theoretical provenance” (Widdowson, 1990, p. 31). Embarkation, then, will be on a quest of whether the model enjoys pedagogical relevance.

THEORETICAL EVALUATION
The Acquisition-Learning Distinction

Overriding the acquisition-learning distinction is an ontological distinction positing two distinct environments language is possibly learnt in. Formal or artificial environment often identifies with classroom learning whose salient features are, more or less, utterance decontextualization, rule presentation, metalanguage as well as corrective feedback. Informal environment, nevertheless, embodies the setting characteristic of natural, tangible learning of languages. Krashen asserts that “formal and informal environments contribute to second language competence in different ways” (1975, p. 163), resulting in two distinct modes of developing language. The first mode, which Krashen labels acquisition, is seen similar to the manner in which children develop competence in their native language. In this mode, learners unconsciously “pick up” language as they are aware neither of the rules underlying the meaning they are consciously involved in negotiating, nor of their ‘acquiring’ language. Krashen maintains that. Learning, or “knowing about”, is the other way in which competence in language develops, and gets represented as “knowing about rules, being aware of them and being able to talk about them in non-technical terms” (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). Operating through focus on function, the process of ‘acquisition’ effects and brings about an acquired system that takes the generation of utterances, while, ‘learning’, which is defined by focus on form, makes up a learnt system that discharges checking the “well-formedness” of the generated utterances at various stages. It is worth noting that Krashen does tighten the relatively problematic notions of consciousness and unconsciousness, defining them in terms of attendance to form and mere concern with meaning, respectively.

It is likely to complain, as does Mclaughlin (1990), that the acquisition-learning distinction is unreliable, because it is defined in term of conscious and unconscious processes, which are not open to inspection. It might, yet, be accepted to uphold Krashen’s tightening of these concepts, and regard the identification of consciousness with focus on form. This distinction appears self-evident, as it is undeniable the prevalence of ‘dual’ trends as one tends to interact in—at least—a
When we read or listen to an utterance in our language, or in a second language in which we are fluent, we become aware of its meaning but we are seldom aware of the complex decoding processes that proceed awareness (Schmidt, 1990, p. 131). In the same vein, Krashen reacts: “Acquisition and learning are no more difficult to define empirically, as their synonyms, implicit and explicit, are terms that Mclaughlin and other critics have no problem using” (as cited in Mehdi et al., 2013, p. 225). Yet, the deviance lies in Krashen associating consciousness with knowledge of rules. Schmidt, yet, asks what he labels the articulate report question: “Can learners say what they appear to know?” (1990, p. 131).

It is my contention, thereby, that what is debatable in Krashen’s treatments is not the conceptualization of consciousness and unconsciousness as much as it is the position of, and the relation assumed to hold between both competences. It might, yet, be an adequate practice to point to the gap of explicit specification, as consciousness identifies with attention which may be either intentional or unintentional. It is perhaps the ‘unspecified’ use of the term that generated criticism, though in my opinion, this should have been taken for granted, for it is hard to imagine intentional focus on form during the process of ‘generating’ utterances. Even when postulating the need for noticing and conscious knowledge in ‘acquisition’, Schmidt himself asks: “If noticing is required, is such noticing automatic or must learners consciously pay attention” (1990, p. 134). This presents the likelihood that ‘acquisition’ involves a stage of noticing, especially in the light of the assertion that “people learn much about the things they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to” Schmidt (2001, p. 30). Later, Krashen reasserts:

The last 30 years of research in language acquisition show that people certainly can acquire language without paying attention to form. The fact that acquirers use rules they have never learnt, rules in fact that linguists have not described, confirms that attending to form is not necessary. John Truscott has an excellent discussion of Schmidt’s claim in his 1998 paper (as cited in Mehdi et al., 2013, p. 225).

Krashen conceives a dichotomy, where each of the two systems resultant from ‘learning’ and ‘acquisition’ respectively stands as a modular entity that “gravitates around itself”. This entails the independency of both ‘processes’, and the unlikelihood for the learnt knowledge to rank as acquired, embodying the non-interface position. Bialystok (1981a, 1981b, 2001), while enriching the argument for the acquisition-learning distinction, reverses the idea of their being assigned unrelated roles, raising the notion that ‘learning’ and ‘acquisition’ represent different entries of the same “continuum”. The idea is that language use being an alternate of degrees of analyzability (explicitness) and automaticity (implicitness). Similarly, Mclaughlin (1978) refutes the non-interface position, advancing an approach central to which is the view of “controlled processing”, which underlies the operation of the learnt system, possibly evolving to “automatic processing”, which behinds the functioning of the acquired system: “Interlanguage production requires controlled processes which demand the learner’s attention, but repeated performance leads to the availability of the form via automatic processes” (Mclaughlin, 1978, cited in Maria & Lopez 1997, p. 369). This denotes that attention, which the learnt system identifies with, diminishes as learners practice the form, leading to the automaticity of retrieval characteristic of acquired competence. It is even that the merits of automatization are extended to allow classroom
learners to outstrip naturalistic learners. Similarly, Spolsky (1991) notes that “language knowledge that is analyzed, and so available for recombination, may be intuitive and so not consciously available for the learner (p.47).

In the process of enhancing the claim behind the acquisition-learning distinction, Krashen asserts that ‘acquisition’ and ‘learning’ are complementary processes given that “we learn small parts of our first language in schools” (1982, p.11). This proposal is valid only in case the language spoken outside and the one taught in school are basically the same, given that another possibility prevails in diglossic communities. In the context of Arabic-speaking communities, accordingly, the learnt competence learners develop in school is not applied to the acquired competence as the former relates to the linguistic properties of Standard Arabic, while the latter concerns the vernacular, or local language which is distinct not only in terms of the attributes of syntax and semantics but in terms of context of use—the vernacular is the medium of daily communication, while Standard Arabic is the codified vehicle deployed in formal settings. This may contemplate certain constraints on the scope of the Monitor Model.

The Monitor Hypothesis

Derived, and extended from the acquisition-learning distinction, is the notion of the monitor, embodied in the likelihood of interplay between the acquired and learnt system. The latter, being in its very nature, knowledge of rules, operates as a language editor. In krashen’s terms, ‘acquisition’ initiates one’s utterances in second language and is responsible for fluency, and the competence gained from learning can only operate as a monitor, or as a self-editing tool, coming into play to check the “well-formedness” of the utterances generated on their way to the status of output. The peripheral role assigned to the monitor does justice to the features of consciousness, since “one of the most peculiar features of consciousness is its narrowness compared to the vast and almost limitless unconscious processing capacity at our disposal (Dorynei, 2009, p. 133). Consciousness is “often seen to hemp focus the brain’s vast unconscious resources and make them available for specific cognitive use” (Dorynei, 2009, p. 133). Figure 1 models the functioning of the monitor.

![Figure 1: Operation of the Monitor (Krashen, 1977, 1981, 1982)](image.png)

It would, thus, be misleading to think of both competences being of equal contribution. Otherwise, the type of ‘communication’ in which the learnt system approximates the generator in reference is, at its best, artificial, and learners who tend to constantly “hemp the brain’s vast unconsciousness” can hardly said to be successful. Indeed, the claim that the learnt system
discharges a peripheral role is subsided by considering conditions for its functioning. Krashen (1982, 2013) notes that for the monitor to operate, three conditions are to intersect: Time, knowledge of rules, alongside focus on form. These three factors, according to Krashen (1981), rarely intersect, and a possible illustration of their intersection and application in performance resides in grammar tests (discrete-points tests). However, grammar tests, in their very nature, require for their fulfillment no activation of the acquired system, but the mere concern with accuracy that the learnt system is, perhaps, the dominant trend in tasks as such. Accordingly, it is plausible to advance that the relation between the learnt and acquired system is bound to the demands of the tasks learners undertake.

Too, allocating the monitor an act of performance edition at times of concern with accuracy does justice to the psychological salience of language learning as represented in anxiety, resulting from duality of cognitive tasks characterizing language learners, for a learner, alongside ‘striving’ to generate utterances, is occupied with self-perception, which poses cognitive demands. In other words, the intrusion of the monitor derives from a relative concern with accuracy as well as from the feeling of loosing face as to communicate in a foreign language. In fact, performers are said to differ in their refuge to the monitor. Monitor over-users are performers heavily deploying consciously learnt grammar to edit their output. In effect, “such performers may speak hesitantly, often self-correct in the middle of utterances, and are so concerned with correctness that they cannot speak with any real fluency” (Krashen, 1982, p. 19).

For Krashen, monitor over-users do not often acquired enough of the second language that they employ first language competence as an utterance generator, making a way to interference errors. At the other extreme stand monitor under-users who, for not having ‘learnt’, tend to base their performance on the mere acquired system. Little or no concern with grammar allows monitor under-users to enjoy fluency, which results from both speed of retrieval and concern with message delivery. On the third way, Krashen positions optimal monitor users. Such are performers who “use the monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication” (Krashen, 1982, p. 19). Accordingly, such learners suspend conscious grammar at times of conversation. Krashen considers that, in the written modality, the careful exploitation of the conscious grammar makes optimal users “produce the illusion of being native-like in their writing” (Krashen, 1982, p. 20). Truly, the monitor standpoint, which appears consistent with variables of attitude and personality, indicates that the performance of second language learners, no matter how ‘native-like’ it seems, arises, from a successful deployment of the monitor—though non-natives can hardly ‘conceal’ their refuge to the monitor.

The relative intrusion of the monitor, which sparks relative types and amounts of errors, seems to stand as the attribution of “variable competence”. This denotes that Krashen, unlike many non-variationists who considers external issues irrelevant to the description of idealized competence, seems to reject the pervasiveness of competence, but confines sources of its variation—or “chameleon” state to borrow Tarone’s (1979) words—either to change in comprehensible input or to the interplay between the learnt and acquired system, disparaging the role of contexts. Comprehensible input, in Krashen’s paradigm, positions as the driving force not only for interlanguage development, but for its dynamism across contexts. However, Tarone (1979, 1990)
and other variationists believe that change in learners’ interlanguage is constantly related to participation in several contexts:

In the field of SLA research we have tended to err by divorcing the study of the internal development of IL [interlanguage] grammar from the study of the external social context in which the learner develops this grammar. The social context of the learner is often viewed as unrelated to the internal cognitive processes of L2 acquisition, and so, unworthy of comment [emphasis added] (Tarone & Liu, 1995, p, 108).

**The Input Hypothesis**

The input hypothesis marks the most important tenet as it sets to explain how acquisition occurs. The premise prompting krashen’s articulation resides in a challenge to a prevalent assumption: “Most adults second language teaching methods assume that adults do not acquire but depend wholly on conscious learning” (Krashen, 1976, p. 163), siding for a likelihood that “adults can acquire language at least to some extent” (Krashen 1976, p. 163). In effect, this standpoint runs in stark contrast with assertions of child superiority in learning languages on the premise of the “critical period”. As evidential basis, Krashen leans on evidence of adults’ ability to discriminate grammatical from anomalous utterances while having no metalanguage resources to explain the “well-formedness” of utterances (see Krashen, 1976).

The hypothesis, probably, comes to subside, and account for the assumption that mere exposure to L2 data does not suffice, and that learners need a kind of input suitable to their stage of development. Krashen, in essence, proposes a comprehension-based approach, central to which is the view of acquisition being a matter of an evolution learners make from a current stage in the development to another, or from “i” to “i+1”, where “i” stands for “the rule we have acquired”, while i+1 marks “the message which contains aspects of language we have not acquired” (Krashen 2013, p. 3). Acquiring “i+1” conditions comprehending the meaning expressed through this structure, partly through building on the previously acquired structure, and partly through inferring through context and knowledge of the world. Krashen (1982) hypothetically, explains the ability to perceive and make this shift in terms of a comparison acquirers make between the nature of “i” and that of “i+1”. Comprehensible input embodies intake, or “that subset of linguistic input that helps the acquirer acquire language” (1981, p. 101). The ‘essentiality’ of a specific input state downplays the proclaimed causativeness of mere “heard language” as a factor to which acquisition might be focally attributed, bringing to the surface the learner’s attitudinal and cognitive state as decisive of acquisition. This stance, as we shall see later, is compatible with the Affective Filter Hypothesis, which further advocates the the determinism of the learners’ affective position. Figure 2 illustrates the input hypothesis.
At the surface level of the input hypothesis—without indulgence in a talk about whether input alone suffices for acquisition—criticism arises from Krashen tending to confine acquisition in exposure to the comprehensible kind of input, a claim that seems to lack plausibility in the light of postulates for several types of input, each with a specific effect on learner’s development of language competence. White (1987) argues that incomprehensible input enhances second language acquisition, for “the incomprehensibility of some aspects of the input to language learners draws their attention to some specific features to be acquired” (as cited in Bahrani, 2013, p. 39). In the same vein, Gass and Selinker (1994) opposes the view of input having to contain “i+1” for acquisition to occur, and opts for one that advances the possibility for learners to notice the input in its initial state, where it does not necessarily have to be in the range of “i+1”.

Viewing the input hypothesis from the lens of accountability reveals the limited scope of the theory in “what it tries to explain”. Primarily, there appear a need for an account of what mechanisms relegate learners’ movement from one stage to another as a result of understanding input containing “i+1”. For Long (1990), an SLA theory has to suggest mechanisms to account for change. Such are “devices that specify how cognitive functions operate on input to move the grammar at Time 1 to its new representation at Time 2” (as cited in Ellis, 1995, p.79). Krashen, too, does not explain how it is that “i+1” is automatically provided without building on learners’ “i”. This legitimates characterizing the model as property, not transitional theory, which casts doubt over its ‘potential’ for explaining acquisition. The demands for transitional description become mandatory if we think, as Skehan (1995) does, that system construction in SLA operates on cognitive mechanisms. Another way in which the model lacks accountability is that the type of interlanguage resultant is one that is limited to the generation of isolated sentences, discounting their contribution to the elaboration of discourse. The model, thereby, does not cater for a range of capacities underlying the negotiation of meaning in ongoing, real-time, or extemporaneous communicative acts. Hence, “Krashen’s theory turns to be a theory of learning
sentences….Although this is a basic component in language knowledge, it is unarguably a restricted goal for the vast majority of language teaching programs” (Spolsky, 1989, p. 30). The demand for the appropriateness criterion features in Hymes’ revolutionary ideation of what competence apart from grammar, the child—and thus the learner—reflects in the conduct of communication:

We have to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not and as to what to talk about with whom….This competence, however, is integral with attitudes, values and motivations, concerning language, its features and uses, and integral with competence for, and attitudes for the interrelation of language with the other codes of communicative conducts (Hymes, 1972, p. 277).

A core measure of the acquisition of language is the learners’ ability to exploit the resources afforded by the linguistic types to formulate the indexical, culturally encoded meaning characteristic of tangible communication. The kind of language resultant from comprehensible input is not only restricted to a semantic-only generation of meaning, but is self-sufficient, monologic, and thus, intangible, for communication is dominantly dialogic, and for, as Bakhtin (1981) implies, the meaning of an utterance lies in its dialogic, interactional nature. The Monitor Model ensures the sufficiency of language knowledge for the communicative conduct, confining the act of meaning in language per se, and disregarding the likelihood of communication in terms of “what the speaker wants language to mean”, presenting a discount of pragmatic competence. On this basis, the Monitor Model exposes one example among many of pedagogy-driven and, therefore, distorting idealizations of language acquisition. It is pertinent, too, to note that Krashen’s treatment is empty of cultural consideration given the absence of accounts on the acquisition of sociolinguistic and sociopragmatic elements.

Krashen contends that “we acquire language by understanding messages” (2013, p. 03). This, however, warrants restatements, especially in the light of strong evidence for positive correlation between noticing, or “experiential attendance”, and the retain of intake (see Schmidt, 1990). In other words, acquisition seems to require a relative degree of attendance. This possible gap in Krashen’s paradigm features in Schmidt’s (1990) notion of the incidental learning question: Whether conscious awareness at the level of noticing is necessary for language learning [encompassing both ‘acquisition’ and ‘learning’]” (Schmidt, 1990, p. 129).

Krashen’s position towards what significance to allocate to both input and the learner displays might be held inadequate. In fact, to state that intake is the “subset of input that helps learners acquire language” (Krashen, 1981, p. 12), is to lend ‘acquisition’ to the mere ‘quality’ of input. An alternative treatment of intake posits that not all input used in comprehension becomes intake, and that intake construction does not occur in such an abrupt manner. Then, that Krashen sees the comprehensibility of input as a causative factor in acquisition raises the impression that factors gauging acquisition are more external than they are internal. Conversely, Gass and Selinker (1994) state that, on its path towards becoming output, input has to ‘climb’ several stages. The learner initially apperceives, or notices the input thanks to frequency and attention, and then
makes sense of it. Comprehension is followed by a stage of internalization where the input is captured as intake, then integrated in the learner’s repertoire, embodying a prior knowledge stored in long term memory and reflected in written or spoken output (Figure. 3).

Figure 3: Gass and Selinker’s (1994) Model for Second Language Acquisition

A flaw in Krashen’s conception of resources for acquisition resides in a disregard of output, or “practicing” in the process. Swain (1995) writes: “It has been argued that nothing more than a sign for the acquisition that has been taken place, and that it serves no useful role in second language acquisition except as self-input” (p. 125). The output hypothesis (see Swain 1993, 1995) suggests that producing language enhances fluency. This “seems not controversial, particularly if it is not confused with the adage that practice makes perfect” (Swain, 1995, p. 125). It is hypothesized that output, too, fosters the angle of accuracy in language acquisition through the activation of noticing, meaning that in producing language, learners notice, and perhaps inspect the functioning of both their output and themselves as they generate it. This implies that a conscious knowledge of, whose sources Krashen confines in the input found in formal instruction, may stem from the activity of producing a language. Adding to this, output, particularly erroneous one, is qualified an indicator that the learner has formulated a hypothesis identified with a particular stage of interlanguage development. It is my contention that learners, in producing language, intend to display their state in the language for possible feedback more that the intention to use language for communication. Later, however, Krashen denies output any potential for acquisition:

According to the Comprehension Hypothesis, we acquire language by input, and not by output. Thus, more output, more speaking will not result in more acquisition. If you speak French to yourself out loud every morning, while driving to work, your French will not improve. Rather, the ability to speak is the result of acquisition, not the cause (Krashen, 2013, p. 03).

Again, the assumption that speaking emerges, and that output serves nothing than a kind of self-input presupposes that competence and use are not that distinct that the latter warrants no specification. Widdowson (1989), however, asserts that the availability of competence is not a guarantee for the act of communication, for differentiating between knowledge about language and capacity, which he regards as the ability to exploit the available knowledge in actual use,
which leads to consider performance as governed by operational requirements. Another variable held to be central to determining the link between input and output is that which advances the need for a stage of processing, or the ability to retrieve stored input. The determination of retrieval is illustrated in Bialystok’s *library metaphor*: “Learners may know an interlanguage form because they have studied it or learnt it, but under communicative pressure they fail to find it. In terms of the library metaphor, one might say that the book in the library but they do not have enough time to find it” (cited in Maria & Lopez, 1997, p. 317).

Another way in which the notion of listening-based learning might be refutable comes from looking at the suspension, or the peripheral role of syntactic ‘skills’ in comprehension. In effect, “if comprehension draws on effective strategy use and on the capacity to relate input to context, it may partly be an autonomous skill whose development may not transfer to other areas [speaking]” (Skehan, 1990, p. 15). To say that production predicates on listening is, indirectly, to advocate that there is no room for consciousness in interlanguage development and change. This stems from the fact that, if learners have the impression that they have to rely on input for production, they will pay more attention to the norms by which the message is constructed, and will use that knowledge as basis for their future input (Skehan, 1995, p. 17).

Another variable proclaimed to be central for acquisition, but one that is missing from the treatments of Krashen, is that of interaction. Long (1985) while subsides the notion of input being the major explanatory variable for SLA, sharply differs from krashen in conceiving what is it that renders input comprehensible. Paradoxically, the making of input comprehensible and adaptive to learners’ current competence is, more reliably, achieved through the negotiation of meaning. The rationale for this claim is that good quality input is ensured by the learner, by means of signaling miscomprehension through clarification requests, confirmation checks and comprehension checks. This would render input comprehensible on the pace of the learner and with respect to the state of his linguistic repertoire. This feature may not be prevalent in case of reliance on ready-made input, whose quality is uncertain not only for the unlikelihood of its harmonization with the learner, but for “one have to rely on good luck or the sensitivity of one’s interlocutor, and neither of which is dependable” (Skehan, 1990, p. 17).

Interaction, too, matters is the collaborative discourse wherein learners, depending on talk exchange, build on previously occurring utterances and draw on structures, either by adding to them or by substituting some of their parts, given that conversation is, in its very nature, jointly constructed. To participate in conversations is, for (Widdowson, 1989), not only to learn how to use complete and well-formed sentences, but to learn how to make well-judged interventions with one’s interlocutor. Well-judged interventions include appropriate decisions on turn-taking and on the language form required in the exchange of talk whose circulation endangers the acquisition of ellipsis. Interaction, too, provides ready-made chunks of language that would later be used by the learner as automated, rather than controlled speech. The formulaic, or “canned” speech “contributes indirectly to the route of learners’ interlanguage by providing raw material to the learner’s internal mechanisms to work on” (Ellis 1985,p. 155).
The Natural Order Hypothesis

Seemingly, one among many possible convictions overriding the natural order hypothesis is to validate the input hypothesis. An assumption of a sequence of development is, in fact, a predication on an apparent commonness of difficulty reported to be undergone by second language learners with varying language backgrounds (see Bailey, Madden & Krashen, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1974). The notion is that the path towards proficiency is identifiably predictable not only as certain structures appear to be acquired before others, but as the errors demonstrated in the route of acquisition are developmental, that is, common to all acquirers for being predetermined by innate universal mechanism. This sequence of development, as claimed, though being distinct from that in first language acquisition, is common to all second language acquirers (see Figure 4).

![Figure 4: Average Order of Acquisition of Grammatical Morphemes for English as a Second Language (children and adults) (Krashen, 1977, 1981 1982).](image)

The proposal for a natural sequence seems incomplete, and thus, unconvincing, for Krashen offers no mechanism to explain why learners appear to acquire certain grammatical properties before others. Findings of the natural sequence studies, for Tarone, Bigelow and Hansen (2009), lack reliability, for the population such studies target is deceptive of the ideal language learner. The ‘distortion’ lies in discounting illiterate learners, and confining sources of data in literate learners only:

Can we base an SLA theory of universal cognitive processes on data drawn from literate learners only? What about illiterate learners who do not participate in the social practice of print literacy at all?...Such learners exist in large number throughout the world, but we know next to nothing about the processes of oral second language acquisition. (Tarone et al., 2009. p. x).

In fact, the natural order claim stands in stark contrast with the notion of interlanguage, according to which the approximation of the L2 system is marked by the fusion of learners’ mother tongue and target language. Thus, the idea disparages the potential L1 influence has in second language learning. This influence may not be limited to the prevalence of negative
transfer errors, but, as Zafar (2009) indicates, may extend to override the order in which language is acquired. It should be noted that the order is limited to the acquisition of grammatical morphemes that the natural order, in case valid, may stand as a mere peripheral property not decisive of acquisition. Such observation conforms to Gregg (1984), who points to the fallacy of generalizing the acquisition of limited functors to the entire outcome of acquisition.

The Affective Filter

For acquisition to take place, Krashen maintains, acquires, alongside receiving comprehensible input, have to occupy a low-filter position, jointly prompted by low anxiety, higher motivation and self-confidence. If these are to be assigned a causative status, a more complete treatment would have to account for how this state or the otherwise hinders or fosters acquisition. This claim gains more plausibility in the light of the affective filter seeming to be implicated more in production (Figure 5).

A main attraction in krashen’s model is his third path he pursues in conceiving SLA. In fact, to say that ‘acquisition’ is a variable constantly manipulated by the affective position the learner occupies is to recognize the significance of external factors, instead of expressing allegiance to a particular perceptive angle. In other words, if SLA is the outcome of the mere LAD, the learner’s syllabus is immune to external influences Ellis (1985). The affective filter hypothesis, thus, represents a getaway for the whole model to escape the criticism that “nativist theories do not have a learner in mind” and that they see language “as something which takes care of itself” (Dodigovic, 2005, p.4). Irrespective of its merits, the affective filter notion reveals a paradox in Krashen’s model: If high affective filter, which deteriorates ‘acquisition’, is caused by interaction, the latter should have been allocated a weight in the enhancement of this process.

CONCEPTUAL EVALUATION IN RELATION TO LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

In generating pedagogical principles from the Monitor Model, Krashen talks of ‘the best method’ as one that supplying comprehensible input in low-anxiety situations, and one that does not force early production, but allows students to produce when they are ready. Improvement, as Krashen (2013) contends, rather than thought of as lent to correction, results from the provision of comprehensible input, instead of a deliberate focus on certain forms of grammar. “Comprehensible input-based” syllabuses are designed around activities and discussions with input that is not only comprehensible, but “compelling” as well (see Krashen & Bland, 2014). Similarly, students’ errors are not corrected, for “grammatical accuracy is the result of comprehensible input, and not output” (Krashen, 2013, p. 06). Grammar is included only to
satisfy students’ ‘curiosity’ about language structure, or to fill the gap left by ‘acquisition’, Krashen notes that the rules learnt in grammar lessons—which should be done as homework—are not expected to share the spontaneous generation of utterances.

It is contended that the goal of language classes is to enhance students’ understanding of input given that understanding is said to effect ‘acquisition’. For this, Krashen advocates that subject-matter teaching is, for focus on message, language teaching. A possible way of rendering input comprehensible is the teacher providing contextual clues or modeling the acts of utterances. Students, Krashen maintains, “are not asked to speak, only to understand” (2013, p. 05). It is recommended that both free and in-school reading subside acquisition, especially when the content of reading and listening is “narrow”, or specialized (see Krashen, 2007, 2009).

Indeed, while some principles the Monitor Model offers enjoy sound relevance and harmonization with classrooms, others, however, might lack a “sense of plausibility”. Generally, Krashen resorting to the notion of caretaker to render the Monitor Model justifiable, makes deciding whether this notion is compatible with the teacher fundamental in gauging the pedagogical uptake of the theory. The analogy features in the claim that the most interesting aspect of the caretaker speech is that it is not a deliberate attempt to teach language (Krashen, 1982, p. 22). It is, however, advanced that a theory of learning must take account of the human predisposition to teach Lemke (1984). In fact, while drawing on such a notion for theorizing SLA displays respectability, assuming its transferability to language classrooms might not have been an adequate practice.

An interesting feature of the caretaker speech that Krashen highlights, and that perhaps fails against the forces of pedagogical reality, is that the caretaker speaks about the immediate environment, or what the child can perceive. Such properties can hardly be said to apply to language classes, partly because the motivation guiding the language teacher is distinct from that exerting a great deal of influence on the caretaker speech, and partly because the capacity for pedagogy to simulate this authenticity is by no means limited. Supposing that the caretaker approach is more useful for the child compared to unmodified speech, the question that rises is whether the same thing applies to adults learning a second language. Too, a salient feature of the caretaker speech is that mothers pay little attention to the formal correctness of their children’s speech, but instead attend to the appropriateness of their utterances. Further mismatch features in the fact that the estimate of a child’s language state might differ from that upon which the supply of language to a leaner is made. Parents, self-evidently, modify their speech on sound basis, for they know not only their children’s state of linguistic repertoire but the contextual reference underlying that knowledge (see Rowe, 2008).

On another scale framework, while interaction appears core to language classes—either as a manner of generating talk or as a skill comprising norms of conversation management—the Monitor Model implies that it is not important to engage learners in interaction whose service Krashen qualifies as a mere “way to obtain comprehensible input”. Whereas the class turns around goals and objectives, standing as reference for both teachers’ steps and learners’ performance, the Monitor Model maintains that it is not important to get learners to speak as
speaking would emerge, nor is it necessary to provide corrective feedback. It might, then, be
difficult to show the relevance of the central claims of the Monitor Model to teachers, especially
that what is implied is a hard move from judgmental intents, forced partly by pressures of
assessments, and partly by the need for teachers to examine learners’ progress while teaching.

The mismatch, however, goes not to the extent that the goals of the Monitor Model and those of
pedagogy are incompatible. Just as theories may lack the sense of plausibility, it might be argued
that pedagogy discounts the particularities of language acquisition by compelling the adaptation
of theories. In this sense, Krashen (1982, p.27) argues that “adults and children in formal
language classes, are usually not allowed a silent period, they are often asked to produce early in
a second language before they have acquired enough competence”. Another pedagogy-related
deviance is that, while curriculum designers present rules in line with the structural difficulty
criterion, the acquisitional difficulty criterion suggests that some structures, which appear basic,
are acquired late, and vice versa. For this, Krashen states:

Research has come up with surprising facts about the natural order. First, it is not true that
simple rules are acquired early and complicated rules later. Some rules that look simple
(e.g. the third person singular) are acquired late. Others that appear to linguists as
complex are acquired early. This presents a problem to curriculum designers, who present
rules to students from “simple” to “complex”. A rule my be very easy for a grammarian,
but may actually be acquired late (Krashen, 2013, p. 2).

It is true that Krashen provides evidential basis for the effectiveness of the proposed method. In
effect, the above criticism does not prove the otherwise, but casts some doubt over the persistence
of these experiments in classrooms, for the latter might not provide the same adequate
environment granted by improvised research conditions. In other words, it is application, and not
empirical assessment that gauges Krashen’s proposal.

CONCLUSION
From a theoretical angle, not only does Krashen’s theory appear well-supported—at least
compared to other SLA theories—but coherent as well: For acquisition to occur, low affective
filter has to be subsided with input that is comprehensible and matching to learners’ stage in the
natural order of acquisition, making available an acquired competence discharged with the
generation of utterances, combined with a learnt competence used as a monitor for the accuracy
of the generated utterances. This comprehensiveness is, in fact, a double-edged sword, for while
it indicates the unity of the theory, gives the impression that Krashen advances certain tenets not
out of a conviction of validity, but out of the need to draw a scheme for acquisition. Such move,
alongside some waves of assertiveness that Karshen could have avoided, triggers arrows of
criticism, questioning the sufficiency of input for acquisition, in addition to the functioning
assigned to ‘learning’ and ‘acquisition’. Yet, it is this multitude of tenets—let alone the paradigm
shift exerted by the claims—that marks the elegance and uniqueness of the Monitor Model. As
for pedagogical relevance, the property-oriented character of some aspects of the model renders
limited its direct applicability and compatibility to classrooms. However, the acquisition-learning
distinction along with the monitor hypothesis, enjoy a potential relevance to ESL pedagogy, especially in terms of characterizing both learners and language performance. In fact, it is true that the model has been taking subsequent ‘revisions’, but as Krashen comments, “the changes are additions and expansions…I cannot think of any place in which any of the original hypotheses were wrong Mehdi et al., 2013, p. 227).

Indeed, the Monitor Model did mark a turning point in the field of second language acquisition as it has been influencing all aspects of second language teaching and research, by highlighting the significance of several variables in several processes. Limitations on the model, and perhaps on any other theory attempting to account for language acquisition, are in primacy, lent to the complexity of language, and thereby to the natural unlikelihood of a hegemonic theory to prevail or persist. Accordingly, Ellis (1995, p.78) asserts that “the dangers behind attempting to explain everything about a complex phenomenon are recognizable”. Krashen’s theory represents one among many modes of ideation which should be viewed as complementary rather than rivals. Then, “the main factors involved in determining the uptake of a theory are less its internal qualities than the extent to which it is perceived as purposeful by consumers of the theory” (Ellis, 1995, p. 74), which entails that our attempt had done very little to either refute or confirm the theory.

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THE EFFECT OF INTEGRATED LISTENING ACTIVITIES ON EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING ACCURACY

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ABSTRACT
This study attempts to investigate the effect of integrated listening activities on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' speaking accuracy within the framework of task-based activities in the hope of improving their competence. A total number of 30 female students from Safir English Institute in Lahijan, Iran participated in this study as a control and an experimental group. Traditional teaching methods of listening were applied for the control group, whereas in the experimental group integrated listening tasks were applied. A standard sample of IELTS speaking test was administered as the pre-test. At the end of the semester, a post-test was given to the students to determine the influence of the treatment on the experimental group. The data analysis using SPSS (version 19.0) revealed that the subjects in the experimental group performed better on the post-test than the control group. The results of the study confirm the strong effects of integrated technique compared to the traditional approach in teaching language skills to Iranian learners. On the other hand it has an incredible effect which could help the students to be motivated in learning correct English from high school or even lower levels. Implementing such a method can provide much of the input and data that learners receive in language learning.

KEYWORDS: Integrated listening activities, EFL learners' speaking accuracy.

INTRODUCTION
The process of listening skill is not given sufficient attention in the classroom and is undervalued globally, specially in Iran. Many of the EFL learners, specially Iranian learners, are shocked and disappointed when they use foreign language in a real interaction for the first time. Lack of listening skill closes the door to full participation in discussions with native speakers. In other words, they are not prepared for spontaneous communication. When learners are in a real discussion among native speakers, they sometimes are at a loss for words and may even feel disappointment in that situation because of an unsatisfactory level and knowledge of listening skill. Listening skills are described as crucial for survival as well as for access to wider and richer experiences in the foreign environment (Littlewood, 1981). For instance, learners need to improve the listening skill in order to expand or share their experiences and views through English. Bently and Bacon (1996) believe that, listeners create meaning from oral input because listening, as an active process, is a critical part of language learning generally and particularly for the second language learning process. On the other hand, Rost (1994) points out that, listening is
vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input, learning would not be occurred. Listening is thus fundamental to speaking.

Listening is the receptive use of language, and since the goal is to make sense of the speech, the focus is on meaning rather than language. Actually the major aim of listening is to improve the ability of speaking and communicating. Bidabadi (2012) believes that, all the learners prefer to be communicative, that is, they desire to work in pairs and in groups. Lines (2005) also considers the teaching of listening skills as fundamental the development of other language skills.

Rivers (1996) in Osada (2004,55) says “speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is being said is comprehended by another person.” Osada (2004,56) says that in order to understand spoken messages, students need to integrate information from a range of sources: phonetic, phonological prosodic, lexical, syntactic, semantics and pragmatic. The fact that we achieve all this in real time as the message unfolds makes listening complex, dynamic, and fragile (Celce_Murica,1995,366).

Listening is assuming greater and greater importance in the foreign language classroom. Rost (2005) points out that listening comprehension involves the following phases: attention, perception, word recognition, syntactic parsing, comprehension and interpretation. Importantly there should be meaningful practices that will help learners reach goals in each part and be more automatic in processing listening (Fang, 2005). For learners who are studying English in a non-English setting, it is very important to expose real communicative situations in which they will learn how to express their opinions and to develop their oral fluency and accuracy. Thus listening is helpful. Integrating different skill will help learners get experience such a situation in which they can interact with each other.

The difficulty which faces the EFL students is few opportunities to speak English outside classroom (Littlewood, 1992). Most learners gain the language skills but they cannot communicate fluently and accurately (Hinkle, 2001). Researchers now agree that there is no solution but changing the way that English is taught. (Chang, 2000; Elli,2002). A reasonable solution is to present an integrated approach which usually follows the rules of the communicative approach (Fink, 2003; Canale & Swain, 1980).

There is an increased value on integrated multiskill instructional approaches which focus on developing learners communicative competence. For instance, teaching reading can be integrated with writing and vocabulary. Pronunciation and speaking can be tied to listening, and cultural features of communication (Hinkle, 2001; Lazaraton, 2001; Kasper & Rover, 2005). The current research presents an overview of the development of teaching English and the importance of integrated approach.

RESEARCH QUESTION?
The main research question in this study is:
Do integrated listening activities affect EFL learners' speaking accuracy?
METHODOLOGY
This study aims at focusing on integrated listening activities which lead to a better result of learners’ performance.

Participants
A total number of 30 female students out of 50 students, from Safir English Institute in Lahijan, Iran participated in this research. All of the participants were aged between 15-20 at the Intermediate level. They were all native speakers of Farsi. The students were divided into two groups; the one which received the treatment was called experimental group and the other group which received different treatment was named control group, each group consisted of 15 students. First of all both groups took pre-test. A sample of International English Language Teaching System (IELTS) test which consisted of a three-part speaking test was used as a pre-test and post-test. The students were evaluated according to IELTS speaking band description.

Instrument
30 subjects were recruited using two kinds of proficiency tests which consisted of speaking; as pre-test and post-test. The aim of pre-test was to know about the current level of students’ performance and the aim of post-test was to check if the treatment was appropriate and had a positive and effective influence on learners’ performance or not.

The students speaking pre-test contains three parts including different topics. At the first part, there are some information questions about family, job, and study. The second part is concerned with describing somebody or something. And finally, the last part includes discussion about a general topic.

As mentioned before 30 students have been chosen to be the members of this study as experimental group and control group. In experimental group, the students had the opportunity to expose to different short audio conversations at least 4 hours a week (1 hour in the class and 3 hours at home). Then they were asked to write down whatever they have heard and finally practice with a partner, give their opinions, try to imitate the native speakers’ intonation and pronunciation and communicate in a native like way. But in control group, the students only listen to audio materials of the current teaching book for at least 30 _ 40 minutes a week.

Post-test was administrated after 20 sessions teaching English accompanied by listening activities for experimental group. A sample of IELTS as a post-test was administrated to check if the treatment was suitable and if there was any changes in learners’ speaking accuracy and fluency. Again the test contained three parts as mentioned in pre-test relating to evaluation of the students learning quality during one semester.

Material
Considering 20 sessions for each classes in Safir English Institute, Lahijan, Iran, the teacher was able to play different short audio conversations in classroom which took about 45 minutes each session. During the term, 3 units of Top Notch book intermediate level were taught which their topics were consisted of fashion, shopping, and famous artists. According to these topics, the researcher selected the relevant aural input to play in the class. The selected listening materials
had to meet some criteria. The first criterion was the useful input such as vocabulary frequency, phrases and new information and also the variety in the topic. The second criterion was the learners’ interest in the topic. And finally, the selected materials should be appropriate to the learners’ culture and religious norms. Therefore the researcher decide to select the listening materials from the book "Impact Values" by Richard R.Day, Junko Yamanaka, and Joseph Shaules and check the relatedness of them before playing in the classroom.

Procedure
This study was conducted in Safir English Institute of Lahijan, Iran. The first step was to make sure of the students’ current level of speaking proficiency. To do so, at first the researcher selected 50 students and then administrated a pre-test among them to measure the learners’ speaking proficiency. After administrating the pre-test, 30 students were selected and were put in two groups of 15 students as experimental and control group, then the instruction phase started. One group was required to listen to different aural materials while the other one the audio CDs of the present teaching book which only took about 30 _ 40 minutes once a week. For experimental group, the treatment lasted 20 sessions, 1 hour a session, once a week and 3 hours listening practice at home. During the treatment, in each session, the researcher devoted times to listening to different aural materials for about 30 minutes, and students taking note of whatever they have heard then asking and answering about them, having students participated in a communicative situation and asking about their ideas, feelings, and opinion. During these phase, four types of techniques including note taking, question and answer, discussion, and description were used to work on.

Most of the students took notes while listening then they were asked some questions in order to discover students’ comprehension. In addition, the students discussed with each other and gave their opinion. The control group was only conducted the limited number of audio CDs of related book. After the treatment period, a post-test covered all the materials were administered to two groups. Finally, the results of the tests were compared to each other to know the importance of the listening input.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Investigation of the Research Question
The research question of this study sought to find out whether integrated listening activities affect EFL learners’ speaking accuracy. In order to answer this research question, independent sample t-test was used. Before discussing the results of t-test, the related descriptive statistics are represented in Table 1. Table1 shows that the mean and standard deviation of the experimental ($\bar{X} = 12.20, SD = 1.02$) and control ($\bar{X} = 12.39, SD = 1.14$) groups accuracy scores are not far from each other on pre-test of. On the other hand the results in Table1, indicates that the students in the experimental group ($\bar{X} = 14.11, SD = 1.54$) have acted better than those in the control group ($\bar{X} = 12.96, SD = 1.13$) on post-test regarding accuracy. Besides, Table1, shows that Skewness and Kurtosis of the four sets of speaking accuracy scores are not beyond +/- 1.96 and therefore are normally distributed. Four assumptions of interval data, independence of subjects, normality and homogeneity of variances should be met before one decides to run parametric tests (Field, 2009).
The first assumption is met because the present data are measured on an interval scale. Bachman (2005, p. 236) believes that the assumption of independence of subjects is met when — the performance of any given individual is independent of the performance of other individual. The other assumption — homogeneity of variances — will be discussed when reporting the results of the inferential statistics.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Two Group's Accuracy Scores on the Pre-test and Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.209</td>
<td>1.024</td>
<td>-.561</td>
<td>1.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.398</td>
<td>1.140</td>
<td>-.039</td>
<td>-.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.112</td>
<td>1.545</td>
<td>-.471</td>
<td>-.860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.961</td>
<td>1.136</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>-.732</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 contains the results of independent t-test that was used to compare control and experimental groups' accuracy scores on the pre-test of speaking. Table 2 shows that the assumption of equal of variances is not violated ($p = .38, p > .05$).

Table 2: Independent Samples Test to Compare Two Groups’ Accuracy Scores on Speaking Pre-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
<td>$F$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>.777</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Independent $t$-test results, as appeared in Table 2 above, indicated that there is not any statistically significant differences in accuracy scores for experimental ($\bar{X} = 12.20$) and control ($\bar{X} = 12.39$) groups on pre-test of speaking ($t (28) = .47, p = .63, p > .05$), in which the $t$-observed (.47) is lower than the $t$-critical (2.04). So, we conclude that the students in the two groups have the same speaking accuracy level before facing any special instruction.

Further, the results of independent $t$-test that was used to compare control and experimental groups' accuracy scores on the post-test of speaking are given in Table 3. A quick look at Table 3 reveals that the assumption of equal of variances is met ($p = .22, p > .05$).
Table 3: Independent Samples Test to Compare Two Groups’ Accuracy Scores on Speaking Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean Diff.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances assumed</td>
<td>1.539</td>
<td>.225</td>
<td>2.323</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>1.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variances not assumed</td>
<td>2.323</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>25.72</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>1.150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Independent t-test (Table 3 above) detected a statistically significant difference in accuracy scores for experimental (\( \bar{X} = 14.11 \)) and control (\( \bar{X} = 12.96 \)) groups on post-test of speaking (\( t(28) = 2.32, p = .02, p < .05 \)), in which the t-observed (2.32) is higher than the t-critical (2.04). Therefore we reject the first null hypothesis and claim that integrated listening activities develop EFL learners’ speaking accuracy. In fact, the students in the experimental group have performed better than the control group with the mean difference of 1.15.

Figure 1 below is a bar graph that graphically illustrates the results. A quick look at Figure 1 reveals that the students in the experimental group have acted significantly better than those in the control group considering accuracy in speaking.

![Figure 1: Bar graph of two groups’ accuracy means on speaking pre-test and post-test](image)

**Discussion**

In the past several decades, much evidence has emerged that, in order for learners to attain language competence, teaching needs to integrate linguistic and communicative skills. The overarching goal of integrated instruction is to advance learners’ language proficiency required for communication in various contexts. Today, after decades of research in language teaching and learning, it seems clear that, in many cases and for many purposes, the separation of the four macro skills is likely to be less effective than integrated instruction simply because, in reality, communication does not take place in terms of discrete linguistic skills.
The current models of integrated teaching of the four language skills have the objective of developing learners’ accuracy, as well as their sociocultural communicative competence requiring adapting the language from context to context and from genre to genre. In light of the fact that at the present time English is widely employed as the medium of international communication, it seems easy to predict that integrated language teaching will continue to dominate among the various types of pedagogical models. Within the framework of this study, it was realized that the students were willing to participate in the tasks as the two skills were presented in integration through different activities, which created real life situations in the classroom.

As a whole the study showed that the listening materials are effective in improving EFL learners' development of speaking skill at the Intermediate level of English. This result can be more approved by this evidence that there were significance differences between the means of pre-tests and post-tests. The means of the post-tests were higher than pre-tests.

One possible explanation of such result is that correct use of listening materials in classroom may help students to enhance their learning and speaking. This explanation is supported by Katchen (2003) who discovered that audio-visual materials can be used as a major course material.

**CONCLUSION**

Based on the finding, creating a meaningful environment may encourage students to speak. According to Ardriyati (2010) listening materials can make students become more motivated to learn and communicate in the language. The finding of the study conducted by Istanto (2009) support the use of listening input in class and thus is consistent with the outcome of the current study.

In conclusion, it is seen that the results of the test show that students’ success increases when these two skills are taught in integration. Moreover practicing the skills through different activities carry up student involvement and motivation mainly because these kinds of tasks are related to real life and thus leads to communication.

**Suggestions for further research**

Further research could involve different audio aids of diversified content such as news broadcast, documentary films, academic lectures, or movies. Investigating the recall success rate after a long time laps would be a good topic for further research. Some of the experts believe that delayed post-tests are meaningful if implemented in a 3_4 week range, and they are much less likely to be meaningful beyond a four-week delay.

Finally the present study indicates the following as in need for further investigations:
1. Learn more about the various ways to integrate language skills in the classroom.
2. Examine potential research on the effects of integration on particular skill development such as reading and writing; relate such research findings to error analysis of particular skill errors in EFL learners.
3. Explore the incorporation of literature teaching in an integrated skill instructional methodology for developing language skills.
4. Extend culture teaching to integrated skill introduction in the EFL classroom.

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NEUTRALITY OR DIRECTEDNESS: THE CASE OF INTERNATIONAL ELT TEXTBOOKS

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ABSTRACT
The issue of biasedness of English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks has been examined through qualitative and quantitative analyses based on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (Fairleigh, 1989, 2003; Van Dijk, 1993, 2001; Wodak et al., 1990). The present study aimed to examine aspects of meaning as represented in two of the currently used English language textbooks, namely, Summit2B and Passages2 from a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) perspective. These textbooks are widely used for advanced adult language learners in numerous language institutes in Bandar Abbas where the study was implemented and many other cities all over Iran based on the high number of circulation and reprints of these books in major Iranian ELT language publishing houses such as Rahnama, Zabankadeh, and Jungle. In effect, the study analyzed the textbooks in terms of three major aspects of meaning including relations, positions, and content. For this purpose, Fairclough’s (1989) three-dimensional model, as a well-established CDA model, which emphasizes the importance of language/power relationship, was adopted in order to extract the ideologies consisting the foundation of these textbooks. The findings revealed that the textbooks were apparently following the ideology of neo-liberalism and free market, selected English textbook writers did not have any activity to make English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners aware of or equip them with strategies to deal with different forms of infringement. Furthermore, the results of data analysis suggested that occupational position with 64% of occurrences was the most frequently occurring position in the textbooks under investigation. English textbook writers did not adopt unequal subject relations in their textbooks. The findings of the present study could be beneficial for language teachers, language learners, textbook designers, and textbook publishers because suggest that a good language teacher needs to adopt a critical outlook towards the sociolinguistic studies. In effect, s/he may discuss related issues with the students with a critical point of view, a point that is ignored by many teachers.

KEYWORDS: discourse, discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis, ideology, linguistic imperialism, fairclough's framework for CDA

INTRODUCTION
As Fairclough (1989) expressed" language use- discourse -is not just a matter of performing tasks, it is also a matter of expressing, constituting and reproducing social identities and social relations" (p. 196).
The spread of English throughout the world, over the past sixty years or so, has become one of the undeniable facts of education (Giaschi, 2000). Many, however, have been critical of this widespread use of English and are concerned about it (Canagarajah, 1999; Pennycook, 1994, 2002; Phillipson, 1992, 2003; Phillipson & Skuttnab-Kangas, 1996). These scholars have consistently argued that it is not fortuitous that English has risen to be the world’s most important language and there have been some hidden hands operating behind the scene (Baleghizadeh & Jamali Motahed, 2010). Phillipson (2003), for example, observed that the diffusion of English has been, and still is, substantially orchestrated, facilitated and led by what he referred to as the Centre, that is, USA and Britain, whose commercial and political interests such diffusion serves. Phillipson (1992) in the same vein, has talked of what he called “English linguistic imperialism”, which he defined in the following way: “The dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages” (47).

A very important aspect of the politics and economics of English today is ELT (Bourne, 1996; Phillipson, 1992). ELT has become a global activity and to a large extent a business and industry, which can be dated to the 1950s (Dua, 1994; Pennycook, 1994).

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is the uncovering of implicit ideologies embedded in the texts (Widdowson, 2000). It explores the underlying ideological bias and therefore the exercise of power in texts. In other words, critical discourse analysis and critical language education are concerned with the interests and ideologies underlying the construction and interpretation of textbooks. The purpose of CDA is to analyze “opaque as well as transparent structural relationship of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language” (Wodak, 1995: 204).

Originally, the theoretical foundations and descriptive recourses of the framework known as critical discourse analysis, or CDA for short has been applied to ELT textbooks to understand whether ELT textbooks content are neutral or they are ideologically oriented based on Western Society and its ELT market. This has been examined through qualitative and quantitative based on CDA (Fairclough, 1989, 1995, 2003; Van Dijk, 1993, 2001; Wodak et al., 1990).

The global spread of English, as well as its causes and consequences, has long been a focus of critical discussions (Rubdy and Saraceni, 2006). A number of research studies have been conducted to find out whether or not the spread of English follows an ideological path. Since ELT stands in the forefront when the spread of English and its ideological effects are addressed, some researchers have tried to spearhead their analysis on ELT textbooks to see if any type of ideology is inspired through them.

Some Iranian researchers have applied critical discourse analysis on both internationally-developed and locally-produced ELT texts which widely used in Iran to examine if these ELT texts including Spectrum 6, New Interchange 3, American Cutting-edge 4, True to Life: Upper-intermediate, New Headway: Upper-intermediate follow a particular ideology or not.
So far, none of Iranian researchers has applied critical discourse analysis on ELT text books such as Summit2B and Passages2. Therefore, this study aims to investigate if the mentioned text books follow the particular ideology as well by applying Critical Discourse Analysis on some ELT textbooks and determining social relations, subject positions and content included in the selected textbooks.

The findings of this research could be useful for material designers of English courses whose learners are pursuing their experience of a new language by controlling the ideological subtleties which are contained in their texts and often go unnoticed by both language learners and syllabus designers. The findings of the present study can remind material designers that, texts are carriers of ideologies and they should be aware of this point and act responsibly in presenting healthy discourses compatible with the cultures that their materials will be consumed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The History of Critical Discourse Analysis

The 1970s saw the emergence of a form of discourse and text analysis that recognized the role of language in structuring power relations in society. At that time, much linguistic research elsewhere was focused on formal aspects of language which constituted the linguistic competence of speakers and which could theoretically be isolated from specific instances of language use (Chomsky, 1957).

Much sociolinguistic research at the time was aimed at describing and explaining language variation, language change and the structures of communicative interaction, with limited attention to issues of social hierarchy and power (Labov, 1972; Hymes, 1972). In such a context, attention to texts, their production and interpretation and their relation to societal impulses and structures, signaled a very different kind of interest (Beaugrande/ Dressler, 1981; Titscher et al. 2000).

The work of Kress/ Hodge (1979), Van Dijk (1985) Fairclough (1989) and Wodak (1989) served to explain and illustrate the main assumptions, principles and procedures of what had then become known as CL.

Initially, Fairclough (1989) identified his approach to a study of language as ‘critical language study’ and reviewed a range of mainstream approaches, including linguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, cognitive psychology, artificial intelligence, conversation analysis and discourse analysis. Fairclough(1989) argued that, although all of these areas had something to offer language study, they also presented limitations for a critical perspective.

Kress (1990, 84-97) gave an account of the theoretical foundations and sources of Critical Linguistics. He indicated that the term CL was"quite self-consciously adapted” (1990, 88) from its social-philosophical counterpart, as a label by the group of scholars working at the University of East Anglia in the 1970s. By the 1990s the label CDA came to be used more consistently to describe this particular approach to linguistic analysis. Kress (1990, 94) showed how CDA was by that time “emerging as a distinct theory of language, a radically different kind of linguistics.”
He listed the criteria that characterize work in the Critical Discourse Analysis paradigm, illustrating how these distinguish such work from other politically engaged types of discourse analysis.

Based on Fairclough and Wodak (1997), Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a quickly developing area of language study. It considers discourse as ‘a form of social practice’ and takes consideration of the context of language use to be crucial to discourse. It takes particular interest in the relation between language and power.

Since the 1960s, there has been a dispute on the themes and fundamental methodologies in social sciences. A lot of social scholars stated that it is dangerous to limit social science to objective description and representation of facts, without noticing that human beings have their own opinions, interests, and ideologies.

Habermas (1973) summarized a scientific theoretical framework, from which people can seek critical social sciences.

CDA was put forward by Fowler, Hodge, Kress, and Tony in the work titled *Language and Control* in 1979.

CDA is also named as critical linguistics (CL) and critical language study (CLS). Discourse analysis is more interested in observing actually occurring languages with a view to discovering and describing regularities in language use rather than rules of grammar only. Critical studies aim to reveal the relationship between language, ideology, power, and society, and reveal the link between listeners and speakers.

CDA may be described as neo-Marxist; claiming that cultural and economic dimensions are crucial in the creation and maintenance of power relations. The key figures in this area include Fairclough (1989, 1995, 2003), van Dijk (1993, 2001), Gee (1999), van Leeuwen (1993, 1995, 1996), Wodak (1996) and Scollon (2001). It is generally agreed that CDA cannot be classified as a single method but is rather viewed as an approach, which includes different perspectives and different methods for studying the relationship between the use of language and social context (Wang, 2006).

**Discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis**

Discourse analysis emerged as a field of study in reaction to structural and formal approaches to language which considered the sentence as the ultimate unit of analysis. Discourse analysis is concerned with stretches of language consisting of more than one sentence and has led to the realization that language cannot be studied in isolation from the communicative intentions of language users and the context within which they use language (Stern, 1983:133).

CDA adopts a social definition of discourse and also uses discourse as accountable noun, so that the competing discursive practices of a society can be spoken of as different discourses. Discourse is both constitutive and creative with regard to social conventions and hierarchies, and much of
the creativity arises from the competition between discourses in various social fields and their novel recombination (Riches, 1999).

Fairclough (1995:131) advocated the adoption of Halliday’s (1985) systemic-functional grammar as the proper linguistic theory for CDA to be based on. This theory incorporates the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions of language into the interpretation of texts and sentence constituents. Halliday described it thus:

One of the things that distinguish systemic grammar is that it gives priority to paradigmatic relations: it interprets language not as a set of structures but as a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning. Such options are not defined by reference to structure; they are purely abstract features, and structure comes in as the means whereby they are put into effect or realized (Halliday 1985:15-16).

CDA and the ELT textbook
The accepted theory and practices in ELT are evident in ELT textbooks. One may begin by asking if questions of inequality and power are evident concerns of textbook writers, or if there is only the traditional concern with describing discourse. Conley and O’Barr (1998), noted:

The great strength of conversation analysis has been its attention to ordinary people speaking in everyday contexts... External factors, such as status inequalities or pre-existing relationships among the parties, have rarely been taken into account... This focus... has resulted in interactions between people who are (or are assumed to be) of roughly equal social status... Nonetheless, the fact is that there are few conversations in which status and power are not relevant.... Far from being the norm, relationships of true equality are so rare as to be treasured (Conley & O’Barr, 1998:13).

An important element of CDA is that the dominant discourse of one time is not static and unalterable. Foucault wrote, “Discourse transmits and produces power, it reinforces it” but also undermines and exposes it, renders it fragile and makes it possible to neutralize it” (Foucault, 1978: 101).

This makes it clear that textbook choices are highly restricted. The market leverage enjoyed by large publishers gives them easy advantage with consumers who uncritically place faith in the ‘state of the art’ textbooks published in the U.K. and the U.S.A. Where alternatives might emerge, it is almost impossible for localized and innovative projects to be deemed economically feasible.

This problem has received little attention, perhaps because many of the books and journals of applied linguistics are published by the same corporations which produce ELT textbooks. One could question, for example, whether there is a conflict of interest in David Nunan’s and Jack Richard’s pursuit of a dual careers as applied linguists and as mass market ELT textbook writers with publishing firms that are also active in both fields.
The question of a potential conflict of interest seems to draw little comment in the literature, and the authors appear not to be volunteering information on their influence their royalty checks on their theory.

Bolitho and Jolly (1998:111) noted the successes of mass-market publishers in Central Europe after the fall of communism, but they then add that “…the initial enthusiasm was quick to wear off and a number of them are now involved in producing their own school textbooks.” The logic is unavoidable. However, a logical conclusion which they failed to state explicitly, (but which they may be making implicitly) is that the mass-market textbook is itself bad pedagogical practice.

Bell and Gower (1998:129), speaking of “the great compromise” involved indesigning textbooks for the world, claim that it “...is not only inevitable but beneficial.” Yet this comment appears in a globally distributed applied linguisticstextbook, by a publisher with interests in ELT textbooks. Unexamined are the authors’ and the publisher’s motives for wanting, in the first place, to design textbooks for the world.

This is not to suggest that there is conscious censorship in all the literature. Longman, for example, has published the “Language in Social Life” series which includes Fairclough (1989, 1995,) Pennycook (1994) and Tollefson (1991). There is evidence of criticism in the field, although it seems to exist only at the margins of discussion (Riches, 1999).


He asserted “…the new cosmopolitan English reflects a materialistic set of values in which international travel, not being bored, positively being entertained, having leisure, and, above all, spending money casually and without consideration of the sum involved in the pursuit of these ends, are the norm.”

Phillipson (1992) and Pennycook (1994) applied critical language studies to ELT. They adopted the same view that language is not a politically neutral tool of communication. Their work gave a broad overview, with a historical and political perspective, of the emergence of English as a global language. Both writers stressed that it is no accident that English has raised to prominence in the world.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

1) Are selected English textbooks neutral in terms of ideology?
2) Do selected English textbook writers make EFL learners aware of or equip them with strategies to deal with different forms of infringement of their wishes in the real interactions?
3) Are EFL learners placed in a societal position or are they placed in occupational and commercial positions?
METHODOLOGY

Corpus
The corpora of this study were based on advanced student’s book of two series of ELT textbooks recently used in Iran Institutions. The selected textbooks included Summit 2B (Second Edition) and Passages 2 (Second edition). The Summit 2B is a multiple-skills general English textbook authored by John Saslow and Allen Ascher, which was published by Pearson Education in 2012. The Passages 2B is also a multiple-skills general English textbook authored by Jack C. Richards and Chuck Sandy, which was published by Cambridge University Press in 2008.

Instrument
For the purpose of data collection, Norman Fairclough’s (1989) Theoretical Framework was applied. As Norman Fairclough’s (1989) three-dimensional model of CDA is supposed to be an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse, the researchers laid the foundation of the current study on this sociolinguist and poststructuralist CDA model. This model views language as a "form of social practice" (Fairclough, 1989: 20) and focuses on the ways social and political domination is reproduced by text and talk. This more socially focused conception of texts is considered as comprising of a rather large group of structural properties among which, to mention the most significant ones, one can find aspects of vocabulary, grammar and textual structures as well as non-linguistic textual features. Those features might carry three types of socially originating value: experiential, relational and expressive as defined below (1989, p.112):

- **Experiential** value presents “a trace of and a cue to the way in which the textproducer's experience of the natural or social world is represented. Experiential value is to do with contents and knowledge and beliefs.

- **Relational** value means a trace of and a cue to the social relationships which are enacted via the text in the discourse. Relational value is (transparently!) to do with relations and social relations.

- **Expressive** value accounts for “a trace of and a cue to the producer's evaluation (in the widest sense) of the bit of the reality it relates to. Expressive value is to do with subjects and social identities, though only one dimension of latter concepts is to do with subjective values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions of meaning</th>
<th>Values of Features</th>
<th>Structural Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contents</td>
<td>Experiential</td>
<td>Knowledge /beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relations</td>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>Social relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>Expressive</td>
<td>Social identities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In particular, the above-mentioned framework was adopted here as a model of analysis of the selected ELT textbooks because Fairclough specifically invited such projects, and it is amenable to varied applications. According to the model, the conventional use of linguistic features imposes and reflects constraints on the three categories of structural effects.
**Design**

Although the current study employed some statistical quantification as the data were presented in chapter four, the nature and the overall design of the study is definitely descriptive–analytic.

**Procedure**

1. The conversations, listening, reading, writing, sections as well as pictures of each unit of selected textbooks were scrutinized to find out different features and aspects of Fairclough model.

2. Aspects and dimensions of meaning including content, relation and position were classified into comprehensible sets of data. In other words, the number of occurrences of each aspect of meaning, i.e. content, relations and subject positions was counted in each textbook, then the data obtained was tabulated to get a clear picture of the dominant pattern of occurrences of these dimensions of meaning.

3. Frequency of aspects and dimension of meaning were tallied.

4. To ensure objectiveness of data collection procedure, the results of the model analysis were double checked with advisor and another expert introduced by him.

5. Relevant data analysis was implemented on data.

**Classification of content**

Following Taki (2008), five major categories including a) Cultural contrast, festivals and customs, b) Entertainment, human interest stories, discussion starters ranging from trivial matters to social issues, c) Occupational, d) consumer-oriented, e) Interpersonal, introspective and interactional regarding individuals and institutions, for the analysis of content were adopted. Classification of contents proved to be the most challenging of all since they simply defy easy classification and, therefore managing all the data was difficult.

**Classification of relations**

Relation refers to the social relationships represented via the text like husband-wife or teacher-student or friends. In order to classify social relations, each textbook was reviewed page by page and relations were counted anytime the characters in the conversations were in verbal communication. They were represented either in two words divided by a hyphen such as husband-wife, or the relationship was shown by one word in plural form as in colleagues. In some cases a singular noun appeared in conversations and this indicated that the relation existed with an unseen audience, such as a newspaper reader, TV news audience, and so forth.

**Classification of subject positions**

Following Taki (2008), the researchers used the following three categories: a) societal, b) occupational, and c) commercial. Subject position refers to the social identity of interlocutors like customer and employer. Subject position occurrences were counted throughout both textbooks every time it appeared in a unit of a textbook under investigation. Then, following Taki (2008), the researchers employed categorized subject positions into three groups: societal, occupational and commercial. In cases where an individual or technically speaking an interlocutor appeared to be functioning in more than one subject position, for example an airline passenger travelling on business, the function that seemed most salient in the context from the viewpoint of the researcher was selected.
though there is some kind of confusion in distinguishing subject positions from relations, as Fairclough (1989) declared “all three (relation, subjects, contents) overlap and co-occur in practice, but it is helpful to be able to distinguish them” (p.46).

**Data analysis**

The obtained data was tabulated to get a clear picture of the dominant pattern of occurrences of these dimensions of meaning. The rationale for examining these dimensions was to see which aspects of the meaning were emphasized or de-emphasized, since these choices reflect the ideological stance on the part of the textbook writer. Descriptive statistics consisted frequency table and percent. The subcategories were compared across each category of content, relations and subject positions by running chi-square analyses to see whether they were significantly different in terms of their frequency. Moreover, in order to make sure about the reliability of the findings, all the data were categorized by two raters.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics encompassed frequency table and percent related to Content as a whole, Relations as a whole and Positions as a whole.

**Content as a whole**

Table 2 shows the patterns of content in all the textbooks as a whole. The first category, i.e., interpersonal and introspective and the second category, i.e., entertainment and human interests with 126 number of occurrences make up the most frequently occurring content in the textbooks under investigation. The findings indicated that most characters tended to talk about themselves and their personal experiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of occurrences</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Interpersonal, introspective</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Entertainment, human interest stories, discussion starter</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Consumer-oriented</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Occupational</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Cultural contrasts, festivals and customs</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>99.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third category, i.e., consumer oriented and the fourth one with 11.5% and 10.3% of occurrences respectively fall next in the above table. It indicates, as a matter of fact, the propensity to position learners within consumer and occupational domains and shows there is an emphasis on market economy and putting the learners in economic positions to talk about market related contents. This is followed by the fifth category with 1.8% of occurrences. The number of occurrences of this category suggests that the textbooks have allocated little amount of their content to the issue of cultural contrasts. This is rather odd as these textbooks are studied by a large number of EFL learners from various countries with different cultural backgrounds. Other
categories such as advertisement, Law enforcement, politics and education had no occurrences in the selected textbooks. This indicates these categories did not play any significant roles in the general trend that the textbooks were following.

Relations as a whole

Table 3 shows the pattern of relations in all the textbooks as a whole. It is clear that the category of speaker-audience is the most common relation presented with 40 occurrences, which makes up 30% of the relations in the textbooks, which appeared mainly in the books. To put it another way, an individual describes an event, his/her life story, describes his/her feeling or attitudes toward something or tells a story. The second most common relation, as presented in table 4.2, below, is friends with 18% of occurrences. This emphasis that dialogues put on interactions between social equals, which appear to, as (Fairclough, 1989: 10) puts it, “describe discourse as it might be in a better world rather than discourse as it is”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Row</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of occurrences</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Speaker-audience</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Colleagues</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Citizen</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Interviewer-interviewee</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Reporter-audience</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Husband-wife</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Parent-Child</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Citizen</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Consumer-service provider</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Airline Passenger-airline clerk</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Teacher-parent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Nurse-Patient</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Consultant-Client</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Lawyer-Client</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Professor-Student</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>133</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The category of colleagues, with 12% of occurrences falls next in the tabulation process. Similarly, in this relation the emphasis is placed on the social equal characters, indicating a very friendly relationship between workers. The category of citizen, with 8% is the fourth frequently occurring relation. Similarly, in this relation the emphasis is placed on the social equal characters, indicating a very friendly relationship between citizens. The interviewer– interviewee relation, with 8% of occurrences, same as citizen is the fifth frequently occurring relation. Apparently, this relation, compared to the previous categories, has little basis as in reality that interviews are held in order to take a job or a position, no instance of which was observed in the textbooks. Based on evidence, there is also a great deal of exercise of power in the interviews in real life situations, though it sounds strange that no instances of this behavior were found in the interviews presented in the given textbooks. The type of relation presented in these textbooks simulates common
Interviews on TV and radio news. This finding suggests that individuals are positioned to accept certain relations by the fact that they are presented as normal occurrences. In this case, the individual accepts the premise that one willingly offers frank opinions on almost any subject to anyone who asks for them; this is in fact another instance of indicating world in a distorted fashion. The category of reporter-audience, the sixth one with 5.2% of occurrences, resembles what individuals observe on TV, i.e., someone is reporting an event to the audience. The seventh and eighth categories, i.e., family members and wife–husband, with 5.2% and 4% of occurrences respectively, again are examples of interactions between social equals. The category of consumer–service provider is the ninth category with 2.2% of occurrences. This relation indicates the importance placed upon the service industry and social skills training. As with the category of friends, this relation is idealized to be free of struggles and divergences. With customer-service provider, individuals are also being positioned as playing a fruitful role in the economy.

The tenth category, consumer–seller, with 1.5% of occurrences is similar to customer-service provider, but it is fascinating to consider how less frequently these two relations occur. The eleventh category, i.e., Airline Passenger–airline clerk, with 1.5% of occurrences adds a spice of inequality to the relations in the corpus gathered, but the relations portrayed were so friendly that no instance of exercise of power by more powerful individuals could be detected in the conversations. Finally, the categories of Teacher–parent, Nurse–Patient with 1.5%, and Consultant–Client, Lawyer–Client, and Professor–Student all with 0.75% of occurrences, represent unequal encounters, though, similarly no exercise of power was observed. In other words, being friendly was portrayed as a natural process, which is of course not necessarily the same in real life situations.

Considering all categories in this dimension of meaning, it can be suggested that inequality is rarely addressed in the interactions portrayed in these ELT textbooks, and this supports the argument in regard with the tendency to conceal inequality in discourse. Fairclough’s (1989) studies of actual micro-discourses between doctors and interns, police and citizens, and so on, revealed how powerful participants exercise power through the conventions of discourse. Once relations, subjects and contents are established, there are observable constraints on such things as turn taking, who can ask questions, who can interrupt, and forms of address, among many other possibilities. However, in ELT textbooks, particularly the ones under investigation in the present study, apparently little attempt is made to make EFL learners aware of such real life issues as dialogue management strategies like turn taking or to even equip them with the verbal self-defense skills required to deal with numerous forms of infringement of their needs, hopes and wishes. What appears to be absent is an explicit teaching of such skills rather than simply exposing them to certain non-authentic forms of language use.

Positions as a whole
Table 4 shows the pattern of subject positions in all the textbooks as a whole. As it is presented in the table, occupational aspect with 64% of occurrences dominates the positions in both ELT textbooks under investigation. This position along with the third category, i.e., commercial position with 10% of occurrences in the analyzed textbooks mainly engage learners in business and economic activities.
The second position belongs to the societal position with 24% of occurrences. Throughout the textbooks, interactants were placed in a position to talk about themselves, to have a friendly chat with friends, to tell an interesting story and other similar positions. In fact, throughout the textbooks individuals were positioned in an ideal way that people take in a very idealized and friendly setting.

### Table 4: Positions as a whole

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of occurrences</th>
<th>Total percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Occupational</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Societal</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Inferential statistics

With inferential statistics, we try to reach conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone. Statistical decisions based on evidence observed in samples always involve the possibility of error. Therefore, Statisticians do not deal with decisions based on certainty. They merely estimate the probability or improbability of occurrences of events. The purpose of inferential statistics is to make inferences regarding outcomes, based on a sample. This study used inferential statistics to make decisions to reject or not reject a null hypothesis. Level of significance 0.05 was chosen in the calculations.

### Table 5: Chi-Square Test for the Frequency of subcategories of content as a whole

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>191/03</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 5, there is a statistically significant difference among the subcategories of content. Since, Chi-Square Test affected by the most frequency, therefore, the first and second categories constituted the great part of content as whole ($\chi^2=191.03$, $p=0.001$, df=4). Therefore, based on results extracted from tables 4.1 and 4.6 it is concluded that this study rejects the first null hypothesis which was mentioned earlier in chapter one, in other words, the normality of the distribution is not confirmed in the samples of this study.

### Table 6: Chi-Square Test for the Frequency of subcategories of relations as a whole

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>201/79</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 6, there is a statistically significant difference among the subcategories of relations. Since, Chi-Square Test affected by the most frequency, therefore, the first and second categories constitute the great part of relations as whole ($\chi^2=201.79$, $p=0.001$, df=15). Therefore, based on results extracted from tables 4.2 and 4.7, it is concluded that this study confirms the second and fourth null hypotheses which were mentioned earlier in chapter one, in other words, the normality of the distribution is confirmed in the samples of this study.
Table 7: Chi-Square Test for the Frequency of subcategories of positions as a whole

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>118.21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 7, there is a statistically significant difference among the subcategories of relations. Since, Chi-Square Test affected by the most frequency, therefore, the first category (occupational) constituted the great part of relations as whole ($\chi^2=118.21$, $p=0.001$, df=2). Therefore, based on results extracted from tables 4.3 and 4.8, it is concluded that this study rejects the third null hypothesis which was mentioned earlier in chapter one, in other words, the normality of the distribution is not confirmed in the samples of this study.

Discussion

As the findings of the present study showed, the mentioned internationally English textbooks are not ideologically biased as they are apparently following the ideology of neo-liberalism and free market which is an attempt to make individuals ready to engage in the world market, while having no other option to challenge the setting.

The researchers examined all analyzed relations and found out that inequality is rarely addressed in these interactions, and this signals to the point in regard with the tendency to conceal inequality in discourse. Since most of the relations in the textbooks are equal encounters, in the examined ELT textbooks apparently little attempt is made to make EFL learners aware of such issues as dialogue management strategies like turn taking or to even equip them with the verbal self-defense skills needed to deal with various forms of infringement of their wishes.

The results of data analysis suggested that occupational position with 64% of occurrences is the most frequently occurring position in the textbooks under investigation. The results of data analysis indicated that the categories of Speaker-audience and Friends relations are the most frequently occurring relation which is an equal relation between the interactants. There was not any exercise of power by any of the participants in the dialogues.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study also agreed with those of Riches (1999) who examined a selection of ELT textbooks which were marketed globally by five of the largest publishers in this field. The analysis of relations, roles and content showed that globally marketed textbooks emphasized the market and occupational aspects of these three categories. Even though actual place names, historical figures, dialects and settings were often avoided, it was still apparent that these ELT textbooks reflected the discourses of developed free market Western economies - a very specific cultural context. The analysis also revealed the strong influence of the neoclassical approach in textbook design.

The findings of the present study could be beneficial for language teachers, language learners, textbook designers, and textbook publishers because suggest that a good language teacher needs
to adopt acritical outlook towards the sociolinguistic studies. In effect, s/he may discuss related issues with the students with a critical point of view, a point that is ignored by many teachers. The findings of this study may also be of interest to policy makers since the effects of market ideology and the norms and values inculcated through textbooks should be considered in order to prevent cultural misunderstanding.

**Limitations of the study**

This research like all education researches included some limitations and delimitations. CDA is likely to remain more akin to literary criticism than a verifiable theory. The process of establishing frameworks and collecting data involves many subjective interpretations, and the conclusions drawn from such a process do not convince everyone. Categorizing the relations, subjects and contents of the ELT textbooks involves much subjective interpretation. No two people would classify the data in the same way. This is a fundamental problem in any textual analysis. It was not feasible for the researcher to apply CDA on all ELT text books; therefore, this study were delimited to advanced student’s book of Summit2B and Passage2 which are currently taught in Iranian institutions.

**REFERENCES**


THE EFFECTS OF REFERENTIAL QUESTIONS ON CLASSROOM INTERACTION OF INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS IN CONVERSATION CLASSES

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ABSTRACT
This study examined the effects of referential questions on classroom interaction of intermediate learners in conversation classes. The data was collected via self observation. Five EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers observed their own classes over five one hour-and-thirty minute session period in Pooyesh Language House Institute in Bandar Lengeh, Iran. Students were asked both display and referential questions and the number of students and responses were calculated for both question types to collect quantitative data. The analysis of quantitative data indicated that intermediate students participated more when asked a referential question. Furthermore referential questions engendered more responses compared to the responses given to display questions. The results suggested that teachers involved in teaching intermediate conversation classes should ask more referential questions to create more classroom interaction. However, display questions shouldn't be missed for checking students' comprehension and progress. It seemed that referential questions create more opportunities for language development and enable students to express their feelings and opinions, so they are believed to be efficient techniques in language classrooms.

KEYWORDS: Referential Questions, Display Questions, Classroom Interaction.

INTRODUCTION
So far teaching English has seen lots of movements starting from teaching grammar and vocabulary in schools to teaching English in a communicative way, which is the most used method in most institutes nowadays. Recently Language educators and language experts have been concerned more about interaction between teachers and students and among students themselves and how to improve it. They believe it is the most effective way in learning how to speak English especially in EFL settings, in which students have fewer opportunities to practice language. Since learners in EFL settings do not have enough ability to start an English conversation, it is believed teachers have to initiate that via asking learners questions. English language teaching has undergone many fluctuations over the years (Mirsharifi, 2007). Although the primary concern of language pedagogy until the mid-1980s was to find more effective "methods" of language teaching, this trend has now been replaced by a new movement, which focuses much more on language pedagogy that involves various aspects of teaching and learning processes and the contributions of the individual teachers to the profession (Widdowson, 1990).
“In the recent years the interactive features of classroom behavior, such as turn-taking, questioning and answering, negotiation of meaning and feedback have taken a great role in EFL programs” (Chaudron, 1988, p.10). “The background of this lies in the fact that second language learning is a highly interactive process” (Richard & Lockhart, 1994, p. 138). and the quality of this interaction is thought to have a considerable influence on learning (Ellis, 1994).“Teacher-student interaction plays an important role in learning since it provides learners with authentic input and feedback viewed influential in building inter language and producing comprehensible input” (Mirsharifi, 2007). This teacher-student interaction gains more importance in EFL settings since learners have fewer opportunities to use their foreign language to ask questions and provide feedback. (Farooq, 1998). Since then teachers' questioning has been the target of investigation for researchers working in the field of classroom second language learning (Banbrook & Skehan, 1990; Brock, 1986; Oberli, 2003).The most important factor within an effective EFL course is student participation. Students need to be stimulated. One of the most common methods and appealing activities in facilitating student participation is asking questions by teachers (Özcan, 2010).Teachers ask lots of questions with different classifications. Thompson (1997) classifies questions in terms of their form, content and purpose. The first category includes Yes/no questions and wh questions. The second category is about the information that the question seeks; whether it asks about information not directly related to the learner, which is called "outside facts" or it asks about "personal facts and opinions". The third category relates to the purpose of the question; whether it is asked to display knowledge or for communication. According to Ellis (1994), these two types are classified as display and referential questions.EFL teachers tend to ask display questions most of the time (Long & Sato, 1983; Thombury, 1996). Display questions are questions which teachers already know their answers (Thompson, 1997; Thornbury, 1996). However, some researchers believe these questions produce less communication in classrooms (Kumaravadivelu, 1993), since they have only one correct answer. On the other hand, referential questions have more than one answer. They enable students to express their opinions and share information (Elis, 1994; Thompson, 1997; Thornbury, 1996).

LITERATURE REVIEW
Previous literature on the effects of referential questions on the classroom interaction of students has shown that teachers use display questions more than referential questions to check the students' comprehension and progress. However it has been revealed that referential questions increase the classroom interaction of the students. Many researchers studied the effects of referential questions on the classroom interaction of learners like Long and Sato (1983), Brock (1986), Lynch (1991), Allwright and Bailey (1991), Sulter (2001, 2002), Shomoossi (2004), Liu (2005), Gung Eng Ho (2005), McGrew (2005), Y, Lee (2006), Yang (2006), Tan (2007), Fakeye (2007), and Behnam and Pouriran (2009). To begin with Long and Sato (1983) who studied the questions teachers use in ESL classrooms and compared them with the ones native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) use outside the classroom. They found that language teachers ask significantly more display questions in the classroom. While NS and NNS ask more referential questions outside the classroom. Shomoossi (2004) studied the effects of asking referential questions on the students' interaction and the frequency of display and referential questions in EFL classrooms. The findings showed that teachers used display questions more than referential
questions. He justified the high frequency of display questions to the low language ability of the students. He explained that in reading classes teachers need to check students' comprehension. It was also found that referential questions create more interaction in the classroom than display questions do, especially in higher-level language classes. Mirsharifi (2007) introduced a study about effective and less effective teacher questioning and corrective feedback behavior in an EFL context. The results revealed that effective teachers ask significantly more questions than less effective ones and provide more corrective feedback than their less effective counterparts. Moreover the study revealed that effective teachers ask referential questions far more often than they ask display questions. Fakeye (2007) studied teacher's questioning behavior and ESL classroom interaction pattern. He used classroom interaction observation schedule which comprised a checklist on the teacher's use of questions in ESL lessons. The researcher carried out observation on teachers questioning behavior in ESL classroom. The researcher took note of teacher questions, their number, and their function. Moreover he took note of the amount and frequency of teacher-student and student-teacher interaction. Furthermore he took note of the length of students' responses to different questions types. In addition the number of referential questions and display questions were asked and their results were recorded. The study revealed that display questions are used more than referential questions in ESL classes for checking what has been taught previously. Behnam and Pouriran (2009) studied classroom discourse; analyzing teacher/ learner interaction in ESL task-based classrooms in Iran. The results illustrated that display questions are used more than referential questions; however referential questions produce more classroom interaction. Özcan (2010) studied the effect of asking referential questions on the participation and oral production of lower level language learners in reading classes. The results showed that although display questions do not have much effect on students' language development, they should not be dismissed. They are necessary to check students' comprehension and progress. On the other hand, referential questions enable students express their opinions and feelings. They are effective in promoting more student-talk and interaction in the classroom. However, although referential questions can be used for both higher and lower level language classes; they engender better results in higher level ones. Van Lier (1988) points out: "If the keys to learning are exposure to input and meaningful interaction with other speakers, we must find out what input and interaction the classroom can provide… we must study in detail the use of language in the classroom in order to see if and how learning comes about through the different ways of interaction in the classroom". He also pointed out that interaction is essential for language learning which occurs in and through participation in speech events, which is talking to others, or making conversation (Van Lier, 1988:77-78). Seliger's (1983) paper, "Does practice make perfect?: a study of Interaction patterns and L2 competence", was about a practical pedagogic issue. He studied classroom interaction and two types of learners, high-input generators (HIGs) and low input generators (LIGs). He concluded that learners, due to some cognitive factors, are divided to two types; HIGs who generate more interaction and LIGs who generate less interaction and, so, need more practice.

Krashen (1985) attributes the progress in language acquisition to comprehensible input, saying that output is possible as a result of acquired competence. In other words, when performers speak, they encourage input. In contrast, Long (1983) proposed a model in which the role of conversation (interaction) in getting comprehensible input and its primacy are emphasized.
Fillmore (Ellis, 1985:160) has investigated how classroom interaction affects the rate of SLA. He concluded that pupils will learn most successfully when they are given ample opportunities to interact in conversation. So in this sense, we can say how a lesson progresses and whether it is successful largely depend on the interaction between the students and the teacher. Seliger (1983) considered interaction as practicing what has been taught during the lesson. He considered whatever students say even a simple yes/ no as interaction on the part of student. Students' replies vary from a word to several sentences according the questions they are asked.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1- Does use of referential questions facilitates classroom interaction in intermediate classes?
2- Do referential questions engender more responses from the students?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Subjects who took part in this study were five EFL teachers from Pooys Language House and fifty three intermediate-level- learners. Three teachers were female and two were male. Two teachers had M.A in TEFL. The others had B.A in TEFL. The teachers were within different age range and with different experience. A simple random sampling as well as a convenience sampling was used in selecting the participants according to the project conditions.

Instruments
The data was collected through self-observation. This procedure required participants to observe their own internal cognitive or emotional states. The observers, who were five EFL teachers, filled in observation schedule (tally sheets), which was adopted from Seda Özcan, 2010. Two types of tally sheets were used. The first observed teachers’ use of questions; what types of questions did they use in the classroom. And how many questions of each type. The second tally sheet identified the number of students who responded to each question and the number of responses.

Procedure
This study was quantitative. The data for this study was collected via quantitative data collection instrument. The data was provided by numerical results in tally sheets to mark the number of questions were asked in each session, the number of students who participated after each question was asked and the number of responses supplied by students. Five teachers observed their own classes. It took 5 one hour-and-thirty minute sessions. The classes were video and audio taped, and the teachers filled tally sheets to state their observation. It took about twenty minutes to complete the tally sheets. They were immediately transcribed, coded and audio taped.

Data analysis
Five teachers observed what kind of question they used, referential or display. The questions were transcribed in both tally sheets. The transcription was done in a written way. Referential questions got one point; display questions got zero point. The number of referential questions and
When display questions were asked, in session 1 26.6% (4 out of 15) of the total students who participated during the 90-minute instruction took part in the question-and-answer exchanges, while this number is 73.3% (11 out of 15) for the referential questions. Likewise, 73.3% (11 out of 15) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 26.6% (4 out of 15). In session 2, when display questions were asked 29.4% (5 out of 15) of the total number of students who participated took part in the question-and-answer exchanges, while this number was 70.5% (12 out of 17) for the referential questions. Likewise, 72.2% (13 out of 18) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 27.7% (5 out of 15). In session 3, when display questions were asked 40% (8 out of 20) of the total students who participated took part in the lesson, while this number is 60% (12 out of 20) for the referential questions. Likewise, 69% (18 out of 26) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 38.4% (10 out of 26). In session 4, 29.4% (5 out of 17) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while this number is 70.5% (12 out of 17) for the referential questions. Likewise, 80% (20 out of 25) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 20% (5 out of 25). In session 5, 20% (3 out of 15) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while 80% (12 out of 15) took part in the lesson when referential questions

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**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Teacher 1**

*Table 1: Number of Questions, Students and Responses in Sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in teacher1’s class*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Display question</th>
<th>Student responding (Display)</th>
<th>Response (Display)</th>
<th>Referential question</th>
<th>Student responding (Referential)</th>
<th>Response (Referential)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Session 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
were asked. Likewise, 86.3% (19 out of 22) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 13.6% (3 out of 22). Figure 1 is a bar chart that illustrates the frequency of the students responding to each question type and the frequency of the responses supplied to each question type in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. As obvious in the figure, the students who interacted in the referential question-and-answer exchanges outnumbered those who interacted in the display question-and-answer exchanges. Furthermore the responses supplied to referential questions outnumbered the ones supplied to display questions.

The justification why there are more responses than the number of students was that some of the questions had for more than one correct response; thus, some students supplied more than one answer. In fact, the remarkable difference in partaking that each question type generates was due to the broad range of probable answers that students could produce when a referential question was inquired.

**Teacher 2**

The number of students who participated when both types of question were inquired and the number of responses given to those questions in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 are provided in Table 4.2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Display question</th>
<th>Student responding (Display)</th>
<th>Response (Display)</th>
<th>Referential question</th>
<th>Student responding (Referential)</th>
<th>Response (Referential)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Session 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When display questions were asked, in session 1 19.2% (45 out of 26) of the total students who participated during the 90-minute instruction took part in the question-and-answer exchanges, while this number is 80.7% (21 out of 26) for the referential questions. Likewise, 79.3% (23 out of 26) for the referential questions.
29) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 20.6% (6 out of 29). In session 2, when display questions were asked 23.1% (16 out of 60) of the total number of students who participated took part in the question-and-answer exchanges, while this number was 76.8% (53 out of 69) for the referential questions. Likewise, 75.7% (53 out of 70) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 24.2% (17 out of 70). In session 3, when display questions were asked 10.7% (3 out of 28) of the total students who participated took part in the lesson, while this number is 89.2% (25 out of 28) for the referential questions. Likewise, 89.6% (26 out of 29) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 10.3% (3 out of 29). In session 4, 14.8% (4 out of 27) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while this number is 85.1% (23 out of 27) for the referential questions. Likewise, 85.1% (23 out of 27) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 14.8% (4 out of 27). In session 5, 17.2% (5 out of 29) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while 82.7% (24 out of 29) took part in the lesson when referential questions were asked. Likewise, 83.8% (26 out of 31) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 16.1% (5 out of 31). Figure 2 illustrates the frequency of the students responding to each question type and the frequency of the responses supplied to each question type in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. As obvious in the figure, the students who interacted in the referential question-and-answer exchanges outnumbered those who interacted in the display question-and-answer exchanges. Furthermore, the responses supplied to referential questions outnumbered the ones supplied to display questions.

Figure 2: Frequency of students responding and the responses in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in teacher 2's class
Table 3: Number of Questions, Students and Responses in Sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in teacher 3’s class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Display question</th>
<th>Student responding (Display)</th>
<th>Response (Display)</th>
<th>Referential question</th>
<th>Student responding (Referential)</th>
<th>Response (Referential)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Session 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In session 1 when display questions were asked, 12.1% (4 out of 33) of the total students participated in the question-and-answer exchanges, nevertheless this number is 87.8% (29 out of 33) for the referential questions. In the same way, 91.1% (41 out of 45) of the total responses were given to referential questions, yet the percentage of responses supplied to display questions was only 8.8% (4 out of 45). In session 2, when display questions were asked 14.2% (4 out of 28) of the total number of students who participated took part in the question-and-answer exchanges, while this number was 85.7% (24 out of 28) for the referential questions. Likewise, 87% (27 out of 31) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 12.9% (4 out of 31). In session 3, when display questions were asked 12.5% (3 out of 24) of the total students who participated took part in the lesson, while this number is 87.5% (21 out of 24) for the referential questions. Likewise, 88.4% (23 out of 26) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 11.5% (3 out of 26). In session 4, 25% (3 out of 12) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while this number is 75% (9 out of 12) for the referential questions. Likewise, 75% (9 out of 12) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 25% (3 out of 12). In session 5, 15.7% (3 out of 19) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while 84.2% (16 out of 19) took part in the lesson when referential questions were asked. Likewise, 84.2% (16 out of 19) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 15.7% (3 out of 19). Figure 3 illustrates the frequency of the students responding to each question type and the frequency of the responses supplied to each question type in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. As obvious in the figure, the students who interacted in the referential question-and-answer exchanges outnumbered those who interacted in the display question-and-answer exchanges. Furthermore the responses supplied to referential questions outnumbered the ones supplied to display questions.
26.6% (8 out of 30) of the total students participated in the question-and-answer exchanges when display questions were asked, on the other hand, this number is 73.3% (22 out of 30) for the referential questions. Correspondingly, 75.7% (26 out of 33) of the total responses were provided for referential questions, however the percentage of responses supplied to display questions was just 24.2% (8 out of 33). In session 2, when display questions were asked 18.1 % (4 out of 22) of the total number of students who participated took part in the question-and-answer exchanges, while this number was 81.8% (18 out of 22) for the referential questions. Likewise, 78.5% (22 out of 28) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 21.4% (6 out of 28). In session 3, when display questions were asked 18.1% (6 out of 33) of the total students who participated took part in the lesson, while this number is 81.8% (27 out of 33) for the referential questions. Likewise, 80.5% (29 out of 36) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 19.4% (7 out of 36). In session 4, 42.4% (14 out of 33) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while this number is 57.5% (19 out of 33) for the referential questions. Likewise, 57.8% (22 out of 38) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 42.1% (16 out of 38). In session 5, 25% (7 out of 28) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while 75% (21 out of 28) took part in the lesson when referential questions were asked. Likewise, 85.1% (40 out of 47) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of
responses were given to display questions was only 14.8% (7 out of 47). The illustration of the frequency of the students responding to each question type and the frequency of the responses supplied to each question type in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 is shown in Figure 4. As the figure depicts, the number of students who interacted in the referential question-and-answer conversations was larger than those who took part in the display question-and-answer exchanges.

Figure 4: Frequency of students responding and the responses in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in teacher 4's class

Teacher 5

Table 5: Number of Questions, Students and Responses in Sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in teacher 5's class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Display question</th>
<th>Student responding (Display)</th>
<th>Response (Display)</th>
<th>Referential question</th>
<th>Student responding (Referential)</th>
<th>Response (Referential)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Session 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 5</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>96</strong></td>
<td><strong>96</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In session 113% (3 out of 23) of the total students took part in the question-and-answer exchanges when display questions were asked, in contrast, this number is 86.9% (20 out of 23) for the referential questions. Also, 86.9% (20 out of 23) of the total responses were supplied for referential questions, still the percentage of responses provided to display questions was only 13% (3 out of 23). In session 2, when display questions were asked 14.2% (4 out of 28) of the total number of students who participated took part in the question-and-answer exchanges, while this number was 85.7% (24 out of 28) for the referential questions. Likewise, 85.7% (24 out of 28) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 14.2% (4 out of 28). In session 3, when display questions were asked 13% (3 out of 23) of the total students who participated took part in the lesson, while this number is 86.9% (20 out of 23) for the referential questions. Likewise, 86.9% (20 out of 23) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 13% (3 out of 23). In session 5, 25% (5 out of 20) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while this number is 75% (15 out of 20) for the referential questions. Likewise, 75% (15 out of 20) of the total responses...
supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 25% (5 out of 20). In session 5, 22.7% (5 out of 22) of the total number of students participated when display questions were asked, while 77.2% (17 out of 22) took part in the lesson when referential questions were asked. Likewise, 77.2% (17 out of 22) of the total responses supplied to referential questions, however the percentage of responses were given to display questions was only 22.7% (5 out of 22). Figure 5 is a bar chart that displays the frequency of the students responding to each question type and the frequency of the responses supplied to each question type in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The figure illustrates that the students who took part in the referential question-and-answer exchanges outnumbered those who interacted in the display question-and-answer conversations.

**Figure 5: Frequency of students responding and the responses in sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in teacher 5's class**

**Discussion**

The results of the study showed that referential questions produced more classroom interaction in intermediate classes than display questions did. When students were asked about their opinions/experiences, all of them participated, explaining what they think/what happened to them. Some students mentioned more than one experience. Most of the students justified their beliefs and their opinions. They also interrupted each other, expressing their agreement/disagreement. In fact the students were free to say whatever they want/believe. The communication between students and teacher was much natural and look like the one that may occur outside the classroom. A noticeable point in here was the amount of teacher talk, which was reduced. Therefore it was evidenced during the observation that referential questions engendered more responses from students. It seemed that referential questions create more opportunity for language development and enable the students to express their feelings and opinions. Moreover referential questions seemed to create more realistic situations in language classrooms.

Since referential questions increase the amount of learner output which leads to more language development, then they are believed to be efficient techniques in language classrooms, especially in those contexts where the classroom provides the only opportunity to produce the target language i.e. EFL contexts.

On the other hand, when teachers wanted to check students' comprehension, they asked display questions. Most of the time one or two students could participate, giving the correct answer. In fact the two students were giving the same answer, say, in different words. Sometimes one of the students gave the correct answer; the other supplied an example for what his/her peer said. Usually a silence followed supplying the correct answer in the case of display questions. However, display questions were good opportunities for less proficient students to participate.
Furthermore, it was noticed that in the case of display questions the amount of teacher talk increased; teachers usually extended on the given information. So it was inferred from the obtained data that display questions, require short answers, which contain small pieces of information e.g. antonyms and synonyms, word pronunciation and meaning, comprehension checks, etc. Thus it is believed that this kind of questions do not produce much classroom interaction. However, it seems that the use of display questions can encourage language learners especially the poor ones to get interested. It may also help teachers provide comprehensible input for learners. While, referential questions usually require long answers which contain interpretation, elaboration, giving opinions, etc. When students were asked about the meaning/the synonym/ the antonym of a word, just one or two students could participate, even the other student could add nothing, just repeating what his classmate said in different words. However, it would be dangerous to generalize that referential questions are more useful for language learning, or display ones are useless. Each context requires an appropriate strategy for itself. Allwright and Bailey (1990) maintain that it is a wrong belief on the part of teachers to aim at just increasing the amount of interaction in the class. Rather they have to adjust their teaching style to learners' strategies (pp. 144-5).

CONCLUSION
The findings of this study allowed the author to draw some conclusions. Firstly, it seems that referential questions produce more classroom interaction. In fact, students tended to participate more and express their feelings and opinions when they asked a referential question. This finding is in line with Özcan (2010) and Shomossi's (1997) findings who concluded that referential questions enhance students' participation in the classroom. Moreover, the findings confirmed that referential questions engender more responses from students. In fact, this kind of questions gets the students to become more interested to participate (e.g. the students did like to participate and supply more than one answer when they were asked about their experiences and opinions.). This finding is, also, in line with Özcan (2010) and Shomossi's (1997) findings and other researchers' findings (e.g. Behnam and Pouriran (2009), and Qashoa (2013),) who found the students in their studies tend to participate more when asked about their opinions. On the other hand, the findings suggested that teachers use display questions to check students' understanding. (e.g. meaning, antonyms and synonyms, word pronunciation ,and comprehension checks.). This finding is also in line with Özcan (2010) and Shomossi's (1997) findings and other researchers' findings (e.g. Mirsharifi, 2007; Xiao-yan, 2006).

Furthermore, the findings evidenced that display questions produce less classroom interaction. The reason for that is that display questions have limited answers. When a student gets the correct answer, others have nothing to add. This finding is in line with Özcan (2010), Shomossi (1997), and Temiz's (2012) findings. Finally, the results showed that although display questions do not have much effect on students' language development, they should not be dismissed, since they are needed to check students' progress, understanding and comprehension. In addition, display questions are effective tools that enable teachers to elicit language and concepts. On the other hand, referential questions create realistic situations in the classroom enabling students to
express ideas, opinions and feelings. They are effective in generating more responses and promoting more student-talk and interaction in the classroom. However the study was concerned about the effects of referential questions, not the effects of display questions. Moreover it investigated the effects of referential questions on intermediate students' participation, not on other levels' participation. Furthermore the number of intermediate learners who participated in the study was limited which affected the generalizability of the study results.

REFERENCES


THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL TEACHER'S SELF-EFFICACY WITH THEIR STUDENT'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SPEAKING ANXIETY

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ABSTRACT
The present study tried to investigate the relationship between Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers’ self-efficacy with their students’ Emotional intelligence and speaking anxiety. The participants of present research consisted of 2 groups. The first group consisted of 100 EFL students (male and female) who were selected from among the senior learners of the Islamic Azad Universities of Rodehen and south branch of Tehran. The second group of participants consisted of 30 Iranian EFL teachers. To this end, three questionnaires were used: The first questionnaire was students’ speaking anxiety, a self-reporting questionnaire with a five Likert-type scale mainly on the basis of FLCAS developed by Horwitz, et al (1986). The second questionnaire was students’ EI inventory developed by Bar-On (1997), and the third questionnaire was teacher’s self-efficacy scale. Then, two statistical procedures were used to examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables of the study. Through the use of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and Multiple Regression all the null hypotheses were tested. The result of the Pearson correlation showed that there was a significant negative relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ speaking anxiety. It also proved that there was a significant positive relationship between Iranian EFL teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ emotional intelligence. The result of Multiple Regressions indicated that students’ gender had no effect on their speaking anxiety and emotional intelligence.

KEYWORDS: Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Quotient, Intelligence Quotient, Anxiety, Foreign Language Anxiety, Self-Efficacy, Teachers’ Self-Efficacy

INTRODUCTION
Anyone who has ever taken a foreign language course in school or university can testify to the fact that it is not always an easy task. One interesting question in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is why some learners successfully learn or speak a second language while other learners do not (Tallon, 2004). Several reasons have been posited for this, including individual factors such as cognitive abilities, personality characteristics, aptitude, and affective factors. This study will focus on one of the most important affective variables, namely anxiety.
There is no doubt that this construct has been a matter of discussion in the last three decades and this is due to its pervasive effects on foreign language learning (FLL) (Idri, 2012). According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), foreign language anxiety is “a distinct complex of self perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 31). The major aim of any academic institution is to focus on education and excellence of its students. The access to this reality depends on how to recognize individual’s emotions and cognition of psychological factors such as anxiety which might act as a barrier and inhibits foreign language learning (Mohammadi & Mosalou, 2012; Behjat, 2012). This research is an attempt to deal with the issues and problems such as anxiety, which might hinder the process via which one can learn English language efficiently. Teachers play significant role in reducing anxiety. Thus, they should care about speaking anxiety in the class. In order to decrease anxiety, teachers with high self-efficacy belief can help their student control oral speech anxiety. Thus, they have to provide relaxed and any easy setting for language learners to control anxiety. There is a general feeling that the role of emotions has not been well studied yet in SLA and, as a consequence, there is a growing interest to include the role of emotions as a new source to measure the students’ Individual Differences (ID) in the research agenda (Rodriguez, as cited in Mohammadi & Mosalou, 2012). Recently many studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between EI and success in learning English as a foreign language academic (Elias & Arnold, 2006; Fahim & Pishgadam, 2007; Motallebzadeh, 2009). Therefore, EI should be considered as an important factor in the field of language education so that language learners can improve their language knowledge and performance through application of their EI skills (Karaman, 2012). Since, among foreign language learning skills, speaking is the most problematic and anxiety provoking area for language learners, the aim of this research is to investigate the ways to overcome foreign language learners’ speech anxiety. Many students feel unpleasant and uneasy when asked them to speak in English in front of others and try to avoid speaking. Most of the time, they feel anxious when they give an oral presentation or speaking in English in classroom activities (Mohammadi & Mosalou, 2012). Moreover, students’ feelings of discomfort and anxiety in English class can’t be over looked. So, teacher’s efficacy is an important factor in confronting this problem. According to Bandura (1997), teachers who believe they will be successful set higher goals for themselves and their students try harder to achieve those goals, and persist through obstacles. Teachers should pay attention to students’ speaking anxiety as a barrier in foreign language learning and to EI as an important factor that affects the language learning process and give learners an opportunity to improve the capacity for English learning design effective teaching methods that can help to reduce language anxiety and to create less stressful learning atmosphere.

The study has significance for universities and language institutions that support students and train them in the area of EQ and language anxiety. The findings from this research also can be used to help students find suitable strategies to overcome their anxiety problem.
LITERATURE REVIEW

The study is based on research about the relationship between teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), learners’ emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), and speaking anxiety.

A Brief History and Definition of Emotional Intelligence

Goleman (1995), as a science journalist, formulated emotional intelligence (EI) in terms of a theory of performance through his book Emotional Intelligence. He adds that an emotional intelligence theory of performance has direct applicability to the domain of work and organizational effectiveness, particularly in predicting and developing excellence in every kind of job and at every level, from sales to leadership. He defined emotional intelligence “as an ability being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping; the ability to think; to empathize and to hope” (p. 34).

Another leading researcher of the emotional intelligence is Reuven Bar-on, the originator of the term emotional quotient (EQ). While Goleman’s name is exactly corresponded with the popularization of EI, equally has been influenced on the work of Bar-On (1997, 2000), who has developed the first operational index for the assessment of emotional intelligence. Notably, Bar-On’s definition of EI is not that far removed from Goleman’s in that he seems to use personality traits (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). Salovey and Mayer (1990) had published the seminal article emotional intelligence, the most influential statement of EI theory in its current form. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and regulate emotion to promote intellectual growth. Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive, understand and use the knowledge originated from our emotions to reduce impulses and enhance relationship among people (Motallebzadeh, 2009).

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Since its emergence in 1990’s, the concept of Emotional Intelligence was introduced in popular media and scientific field, leading to several definitions and two competing models of EQ (Motallebzadeh, 2009). Roohani (2009) mentioned that emotional intelligence can be investigated in two ways: ability models and mixed models. Ability model refers to emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and also as a pure intelligence. On the other hand, the proponents of mixed model expanded the meaning of EQ by combining cognitive ability with personality traits.

Mayer and Salovey (1990) proposed an ability model with a two part form, speaking first of the general processing of emotional information, and secondly specifying the skills involved in such processing (Motallebzadeh, 2009).

Two mixed models of EI were introduced by Goleman and Bar-on. They defined emotional intelligence in different term. Goleman (1998) described a mixed model in terms of performance, individual abilities and competencies, integrating personality trait and employing their similar effects on performance in the work place. While Bar-on’s model provided personality basis,
emphasizing the co-dependence of the ability aspects of emotional intelligence with personality traits and their application to personal wellbeing (Nassimi, 2009).

**Self-efficacy**

Bandura (1977) introduced the theory of self-efficacy beliefs as an assessment of individual’s abilities to attain a desired level of performance in a given endeavor.

What is self-efficacy? Linguistics and educators provide us with different definitions of self-efficacy as followed:

Okorodudu (2012) stated that self-efficacy is the belief in one’s ability to perform a given task. Self-efficacy is about “learning how to persevere when one does not succeed” (Pajares, 2005, p. 345). Self-efficacy is the beliefs about one’s capabilities to manage and complete a future action required to produce given attainments (Bandura, 1997). It refers to “students' sense of ability to perform an activity influences their success, which in turn contributes to increased effort and persistence” (Aliegro, 2006, p.18). As it can be drawn from the definitions of the concept 'self-efficacy', all of the definitions share a common core: individuals' beliefs have a significant role in their life learning journey. Individuals' self-efficacy beliefs have an important effect on how they think, feel, motivate themselves and take actions. These beliefs can heighten or decrease their success in every field of their lives. In other words, individuals design their own future by their sense of self-efficacy (Tilfarlioglu & Ciftci, 2011). The task of creating learning environments conductive to the development of cognitive competencies focuses on teachers’ talents and self-efficacy beliefs. Some evidence demonstrates that teacher’s beliefs in their instructional capabilities determine how they organize academic tasks in their class and form student’s evaluations of their intellectual abilities. Teachers who have a high self-efficacy belief make sustained effort and use proper techniques on the belief that stubborn students are teachable and flexible. In contrast, teachers with low sense of efficacy spend more time on nonacademic activities, make little effort and there is nothing to do in the classroom for motivating and supporting students (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1997, 1977), teacher self-efficacy is a cluster of personal efficacy beliefs that refer to the specific domain of the teacher’s professional behavior. Teacher efficacy is about a teacher’s expectation that he or she bring about student learning. Teacher efficacy is of interest to school improvement researchers because teacher efficacy consistently predicts willingness to try out new teaching ideas. Teacher efficacy contributes to achievement because high efficacy teachers try harder, use management strategies that stimulate student autonomy, attend more closely to low ability student needs, and modify students’ ability perceptions. Teachers’ self-efficacy has been shown to predict student motivation and achievement (Ross, 1992; 1998). In addition, teachers’ efficacy beliefs also relate to their behavior in the classroom. Efficacy affects the effort they invest in teaching, the goals they set, and their level of aspiration. Teachers with a strong sense of efficacy tend to exhibit greater levels of planning and organization (Allinder, 1994).

**Structure of Self-efficacy Scales**

Bandura (1997) stated that efficacy belief differ in level, generality, and strength as following:
Level: when tasks are ordered in level of difficulty, the efficacy expectations of different individuals may be limited to the simple activities, extend to moderately difficult ones, or include the most taxing performance demands within a certain range of functioning.

Generality: Efficacy expectations also differ in generality. Individuals may judge themselves efficacious across a wide range of tasks or only in particular domain of functioning. Generality vary on different aspects, including the degree of similarity of tasks, the qualities in which abilities are expressed (behavioral, cognitive and affective) traits of situations, and people characteristics toward which the behavior is directed.

Some experiences create limited mastery expectations. Others have a more generalized efficacy belief that ranges well beyond the specified treatment situation.

Strength: expectancies vary in strength. Weak expectations are easily extinguishable by disconfirming experiences, whereas individuals who have a strong efficacy belief in their abilities will persevere in their making efforts disconfirming experiences and problems. The stronger personal efficacy belief, however, the more perseverance and the higher success will be achieved.

**Language Anxiety**

Language anxiety is complex and multidimensional issue. Different researchers define notion of anxiety with various perspectives. As Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) have noted that foreign language anxiety should not be considered as “fear transferred to foreign language anxiety rather ,we need to conceive foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behavior related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128). Horwitz et al. (1986) have also concluded that foreign language anxiety should be identified as a conceptuality distinct variable, well characterized by uniqueness of dynamic traits of language learning in the classroom.

According to Ferdous (2012), anxiety is a kind of troubled state of mind and as an important factor in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. Anxiety represents physically and emotionally uncomfortable experience for many students in the EFL classroom. So, it has become one of the current challenges in foreign language teaching to provide students with a low-anxiety classroom environment.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
To be able to investigate the postulations set forth in the current study, the following research questions were formulated:
1. Is there any significant relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ speaking anxiety across gender?
2. Is there any significant relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ Emotional intelligence across gender?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The population of this study involved two groups. The first group consisted of junior students of Islamic Azad Universities of Rodehen and South Branch of Tehran, majoring in English translation and literature. Simple sampling was used to select 100 EFL learners of two universities. The subjects were made up of 60 females and 40 males. Their ages ranged from 23 years to 26 years, the second group of participants consisted of 30 Iranian EFL teachers with 10 to 15 years of experience teaching English. Their ages ranged from 30 years to 52 years. The teachers were both 20 male and 10 female. 26 hold a Master's degree in TEFL.

Instrument
For the purpose of the study three sets of questionnaire were used: 1) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), 2) teacher self-efficacy questionnaire, and 3) students emotional intelligence questionnaire.
1- Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cop (1986), assessed students’ anxiety about target language learning. This questionnaire contains 33 items Likert-type scale with five possible responses ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The possible range is 33 to 165; the higher the number, the higher the level of foreign language anxiety.
2- Teacher self-efficacy questionnaire, developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). This questionnaire includes 24 items which examined the teacher’s idea about his/her effective control over Instructional Strategies, Classroom management, and Student Engagement. It used a 5-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 (Nothing) to 5 (A great deal), to rank the teachers’ level of self-efficacy.
3- In order to measure the students' emotional intelligence, Bar-On's EQ-i was administered. Due to the fact that some questions were found irrelevant to Iranian context, Samouei (2003) developed a modified and translated version of the questionnaire which encompassed only 90 questions.

Procedure
To pave the way for this study, four steps were successively taken:
In the first step, 30 Iranian EFL teachers teaching in Islamic Azad university of Rodehen and South Tehran Branch were selected in this present study. In the second step, 100 Iranian EFL learners were selected at two Islamic Azad university of Rodehen and south Tehran branch, majoring in English translation and literature. In the third step, questionnaires were administered 2
weeks after starting new semester. In the fourth step, the questionnaires were collected for data analysis.

Statistical Data Analysis
In order to test the null hypotheses, the collected data were put in tables and analyzed with the aid of SPSS 19. The statistical procedures were used: Pearson product correlation and the Multiple Regressions. Multiple Regressions was used to find out the combined and relative contributions of the independent variable (self-efficacy) to the prediction of speaking anxiety and EQ. To ensure the normality of the distribution, inferential descriptive statistics were employed. Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to understand any positive, negative or zero relationship between the speech anxiety, EI and teacher’s self-efficacy.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In this section, first the findings for each of the two research questions of the study will be presented and then a brief discussion of the gained upshots will follow.

Findings Obtained for Research Question One
Q1: Is there any significant relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ speaking anxiety across gender?

The report on the analysis of research question 1 is divided into three sections:
Firstly, in section A, independent variable and dependent variable are normally distributed.
Secondly, in section B, the correlations between teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ speaking anxiety are presented. Finally, the correlations between teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ speaking anxiety across gender are presented.
A. Teachers’ self-efficacy (independent variable) and Learners’ speaking anxiety (dependent variable) are normally distributed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Parameters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results in Table 1 from the Kolmogorov – Smirnov we can conclude that teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ speaking anxiety have the most significant level (P> 0.05).

B. The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their students’ speaking anxiety A Pearson Correlation was computed to assess the relationship between self-efficacy and speaking
anxiety. Table 2 shows that there is a significant relationship between the two variables ($p < 0.05$). This relationship is at the confidence level of 0.95 and the degree of relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ speaking anxiety is 47% and reverse. It is seen that ($r$) between two variables, is ($r = -0.462$) with the level of significant ($p = 0.10$). As $p < 0.05$, so there exists a negative correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and students’ speaking anxiety. This indicates that speaking anxiety and self-efficacy are related to each other. So, the results show that the higher teachers’ self-efficacy, the fewer students were anxious in speaking. The negative correlation between self-efficacy and anxiety reject the null hypotheses which stated that: There is no significant relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ speaking anxiety across gender.

Table 2: The Relationship between Teachers’ Self-efficacy and Learners’ Speaking Anxiety

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Anxiety</th>
<th>Self efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.462*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

C. The relationship between Teachers' self-efficacy and Learners’ speaking anxiety across gender

Table 3: Multiple Regressions of Speaking Anxiety

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enter</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 3 the index of R Square is 0.23 which means that 23 percent of learners’ speaking anxiety is under influence of teachers’ self-efficacy (independent variable) and learners’ gender (moderating variable). As Table 3 the ANOVA table, shows this prediction is meaningful at the 0.027 level of significance.

In order to determine the effect of gender on speaking anxiety, Standardized and non-standardized coefficients table has been drawn.

Table 4: Regression coefficients, Standardized and Unstandardized prediction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>5.342</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self- efficacy</td>
<td>-0.275</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>-0.455</td>
<td>-2.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>0.205</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>0.859</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Anxiety
As shown in Table 4 the direct effect of teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ gender on speaking anxiety is statistically significant. The absolute value of the standardized Beta coefficients shows the relative importance of each independent variable on the dependent variable. According to Table 4 teachers' self-efficacy (β = .455, p < .05) is significant predictor of learners’ speaking anxiety. Accordingly, Teacher’s self-efficacy accounts for 45% of the variation in the learners’ speaking anxiety. This finding demonstrates that teacher’s self-efficacy is observed to predict significantly learners’ speaking anxiety. Nevertheless, teachers’ self-efficacy has a direct effect on the degree of learners’ speaking anxiety. Thus, we can conclude, gender doesn’t act as an important determiner of learners’ speaking anxiety.

**Findings Obtained for Research Question Two**

Q2: Is there any significant relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ emotional intelligence across gender?

To see whether a significant relationship existed between the teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ emotional intelligence across gender Pearson Correlation Coefficient had to be run. Prior to this, of course, the assumptions for running this parametric test had to be checked in three sections: Firstly, in section A, independent variable and dependent variable are normally distributed. Secondly, the correlations between teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ emotional intelligence are presented in section B. Finally, the correlations between teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ emotional intelligence across gender are presented.

A. Teachers’ self-efficacy (independent variable) and learners’ emotional intelligence (dependent variable) are normally distributed.

To inspect normality, the researcher used Kolmogrov – Smirnov Test to know to what extent independent and dependent variables are normally distributed. According to the results in Table 5 from the Kolmogrov – Smirnov, we can conclude that teachers’ self-efficacy and learners’ emotional intelligence have the most significant level (P > 0.05). So each of the variables was normally distributed. Therefore, they involve the condition of correlation and regression analysis in the assumption.

**Table 5: Sample Kolmogrov-Smirnov Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test</th>
<th>EQ</th>
<th>Self-efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normal Parameters</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>7.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>1.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and learners’ emotional intelligence

As demonstrated by Table 6, it is seen that (r) between two variables, is (r= 0.531) with the level of significant (p= 0.003). As p<0.05, there exists a positive correlation between teachers' self-
efficacy and students’ emotional intelligence. This indicates that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy are related to each other. So, the results show that the higher teachers’ self-efficacy, the fewer students were anxious in speaking. The purpose of the running correlation procedure was to check to what extent teacher’s self-efficacy had predictability for EFL learner’s emotional intelligence. The result proved that for all subjects of this study, self-efficacy had significant predictability for EQ (p<0.01). The positive correlation between self-efficacy and EQ rejects the null hypothesis which stated that: There is no significant relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ emotional intelligence across gender.

### Table 6: The relationship between Teachers’ Self-efficacy and Learners’ Emotional Intelligence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>EQ</th>
<th>Self efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EQ</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

C. The relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and learners’ emotional intelligence across gender

Multiple regressions analysis was carried out to evaluate the effect of gender on learners’ emotional intelligence. As shown in, Table 7, the index of R Square is 0.28 which means that 28 percent of learners’ emotional intelligence is under influence of teachers’ self-efficacy (independent variable) and learners’ gender (moderating variable). As Table 7, the ANOVA table shows this prediction is meaningful at the 0.028 level of significance. ANOVA (F= 5.32, p = 0.011 < 0.05) table of regression shows the suitability of fit and predictive significance level is less than 0.05, The results indicate that gender has no effect on EFL students’ emotional intelligence.

### Table 7: Multiple Regression of Emotional Intelligence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>5.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As demonstrated in Table 7 above, there is a significant relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and their students’ EI (P < 0.05). Thus, the second null hypothesis is rejected and it is confirmed that there is a significant positive relationship between teachers’ self-efficacy and students’ emotional intelligence.

Table 8 demonstrates the standardized Beta coefficient which reveals that the direct effect of teachers' self-efficacy and learners’ gender on emotional intelligence is statistically significant. According to table 4.8 teachers’ self-efficacy (β =.543 p < .05) is significant predictor of learners’ emotional intelligence. Accordingly, teacher’s self-efficacy accounts for %54 the variation in the learners’ emotional intelligence. Moreover, teachers’ self-efficacy has a direct effect on the degree of learners’ emotional intelligence. This means that the higher self-efficacy teachers are,
the more emotionally intelligent learners are in the process of learning a language. Thus, the
gender doesn’t act as an important determiner of learners’ emotional intelligence.

Table 8: Regression Coefficients, Standardized and Unstandardized Prediction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model (Constant)</td>
<td>-1.024</td>
<td>1.440</td>
<td>-.711</td>
<td>.483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self_efficacy</td>
<td>1.357</td>
<td>.438</td>
<td>.543</td>
<td>3.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>-.041</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>-.034</td>
<td>-.191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: EQ

CONCLUSION
A relaxed atmosphere is significant in alleviating anxiety. Students need a setting free from
intimation and tension. So a low-stress learning environment is related to the quality of teachers
and instructional methods. To this end, teachers with a sympathetic attitude towards the problems
and fear of the students can create a positive setting within the classroom learning. According to
the findings in this research, teachers with a higher level of self-efficacy try to change the
students’ attitude toward learning English and consider English as a favorite subject to students.
Thus, we can hypothesize that teacher self-efficacy can influence students’ emotional intelligence
and speaking anxiety in different settings.

Pedagogical Implications
The present study may have some implications for EFL teachers and learners. As the results of
the study suggest, there is a statistically significant correlation between teachers’ self-efficacy,
learners’ speaking anxiety and emotional intelligence. These correlations indicate that it is
teachers’ duties to reduce anxiety and increase emotional intelligence in their class setting. It’s
hoped that these findings will help English teachers to be aware of anxious EFL learners and
create a friendly and affective atmosphere so that learners would learn to communicate rather
than fear the English language. It is important for EFL learners to know that speaking anxiety is a
common problem in English class that every one may feel the same apprehension and discomfort.
So they should devote themselves in the English setting to focus on language learning rather than
being distracted by tension or worries.

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University of South Branch Tehran.
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ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH SUBJECT PRONOUNS BY ARABIC-PERSIAN BILINGUALS AND PERSIAN MONOLINGUALS

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ABSTRACT
This research intends to incorporate some insights to the new field of third language acquisition. So, it investigated the acquisition of subject pronoun of noun clauses in English by L2 and L3 learners within UG framework. To fulfill the purpose of the study, 82 elementary learners who included 45 monolinguals (25 females and 20 males) and 37 bilinguals (20 females and 17 males) were chosen after taking the Nelson Proficiency test. The instrument used in this study was a grammaticality judgment test administered to measure the subjects' performance on English subject pronouns of noun clauses. The participants' performance on this test was analyzed using one way parametric independent T-test and the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U Test. In spite of the fact that the structure of biclauses sentences was similar in Arabic and English, but different in Persian, the results showed no significant difference between the performance of monolinguals and bilinguals. Also, there wasn't a significant difference between the male and female learners. The finding, interpreted in terms of points of two current generative models of L2 A, namely, Full Access Full Transfer and the Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis revealed no dominant role for L2 setting in L3 inter-language grammar as the bilinguals did not significantly outperform their mono-lingual counterparts. Therefore, the findings of the research with respect to language transfer in third language acquisition give rise to the conclusion that the source of cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition is probably more of the learners' second language than their first language.

KEYWORDS: bilingual, monolingual, subject pronouns, UG

INTRODUCTION
The study of crosslinguistic influence or language transfer has generated much interest in the field of Second Language Acquisition (L2A) for a few decades (see Gass & Selinker, 1992; Odlin, 2003, amongst others). But the last couple of years have seen the line of inquiry branching out into the field of third language acquisition (L3A). Researchers working on L3A attempt to find out the source of transfer in cases of additional non-native or multilingual language acquisition by investigating different potential factors, such as second language (L2)/third language (L3) proficiency (Dewaele, 2001; Hammarberg, 2001), the privileged status of the first language (De Angelis & Selinker, 2001), age effects (Cenoz, 2001), typological proximity between languages (Cenoz, 2001; De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Hammarberg, 2001), psychotypology (Bouvy, 2000).
Considering the large number of bilinguals in the world such as Iran, the importance of bilingualism in educational and professional opportunities of the bilinguals, the lack of consistency in studies result concerning the issues, the researcher aimed at investigating whether there is any difference between Persian-Arab bilinguals and Persian monolinguals in learning subject pronouns in noun clauses in English as a foreign language.

In this study, the effect of the language background acquired by Arabic-Persian bilingual learners of English will be explored through Full Access/Full Transfer (FAFT) and the Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis (FFFH). So, the performance of the Arabic-Persian bilinguals will be contrasted with that of Persian mono-lingual learners within this framework. This comparative study may help to show whether L3 acquisition is different from L2 acquisition or it is another case of L2 acquisition.

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Theoretical Framework

Different theories of second language learning make different predictions with respect to both the role of transfer and the ultimate attainment (that is, whether or not the learning of the L2 syntactic properties, i.e., the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses, is possible for L2 learners). The transfer, is concerned with the question of to what extent the properties of the L1 grammar influence L2 acquisition (White, 2003). Two theories which posit L1 transfer are Full Transfer/Full Access theory (FT/FA) (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1996) and the Representational Deficit Hypothesis (RDH), known as the Failed Functional Feature Hypothesis (FFFH) (Hawkins & Chan, 1997). Both theories consider the L1 grammar to be the starting point for the acquisition of L2. But, Direct Access theory (Epstein, Flynn, & Martohardjono, 1996) considers the Universal Grammar (UG) to be the starting point for the acquisition of L2.

Null subject Parameters

UG is “the system of principles and rules that are properties of all human languages” (Chomsky, 1976, p. 29). So, Chomsky (1981) differentiates these universals as composing of principles and parameters. Radford (1997) believes the language is composed of a group of „principles of universal grammar (UG)‟. Therefore, grammatical learning is not going to engage in learning those aspects of grammar which are established by universal grammatical principles. However, grammatical learning will be constrained to those parameters of grammar which are subject to language special variation. To express that in another way, grammatical learning will be limited to parameterized features of grammar. The useful way to distinguish just what features of the grammar of their first language children have to learn is to scrutinize the group of parametric variation appeared in the grammars of different languages.

The null subject parameter is one parameter of variation among languages— thus, in null subject or prodrop languages (on the other hand, [+null subject] languages), pronouns may be null, having the form of an empty category, pro. Some examples are Romance languages like Spanish and Italian, as well as Asian languages like Chinese, Korean and Persian. However, it doesn't mean that null subject languages require all pronouns to be null. both expressed and unexpressed
subject pronouns are possible. However, in Persian like Romance languages, when the subject of the main clause and the subject pronoun of the embedded clause are the same, so the subject pronoun in embedded clause may be unexpressed. The Persian example in (1c) shows this point.

c. Jan goft ke ?ou - ra dide-ast  
John said that him obj-marker saw  
John said that (he) saw him.

As shown in this example, rich verbal agreement (formalized in terms of phi-features in Agr) lets unexpressed subjects to be identified in Persian like Romance languages such as Italian and Spanish.

While in Arabic and English the pronoun in embedded clauses should be expressed, that is pronouns are overt. In Arabic a clitic pronoun can be used in a noun clause, as in (1d).

d. Jan qala beanna- hu ra'a- hu.  
John said that – he saw-him.  
John said that he saw him.

Therefore, the account of using subject pronouns in noun clauses in English, Persian and Arabic highlights differences and similarities among the three languages. As for English and Persian, the latter is a [+null subject] language, but English is [-null subject] language. On the other hand, Arabic turns to be like English in that the subjects must be expressed, with a few exceptions.

The Role of the L1 and UG in L2 Acquisition

UG-based L2 study has focused on the L2 initial state since the mid-1990s and in this case the most important question is whether L2 learners use all or parts of the 1st language grammar as their initial theory of the target language. Five hypotheses on the L2 initial state vary from each other regarding the influence they assign to L1 transfer and UG. Each of these hypotheses will be reviewed here.

Full Transfer/Full Access

According to this hypothesis, the L1 and L2 acquisition vary at their initial state but appear to be quite comparable with reference to the access of UG. In this hypothesis the beginning point is different because L1 learners do not know anything about another language by birth and can hardly even communicate. By contrast, L2 learners have a different point of origin and all features are transferred, considered to be significant and the UG is completely accessible to the learner. Moreover, the learner is not considered "to be stuck with L1 parameter setting; instead, parameter resetting to the L2 value is possible, on the basis of input from the L2 interacting with a still active UG". In this approach, the role of the first language Universal Grammar are important. Finally, the learner stage of acquisition looks to come close to a native-like proficiency, with the help of UG.

According to White (1988), both L1 learners and L2 learners have access to UG. During SLA, L2 learners start out with parameters set to their L1 values. This shows that full transfer takes place from the L1 to the L2. However, these transferred L1 parameter values merely constitute the
initial state of SLA, and are by no means the sum of the aspects of UG to which the L2 learners have access. On White's view, L2 learners have full access to UG.

But where the L1 and the L2 varies, parameter resetting needs to happen during SLA. This resetting will happen if the input to which the L2 learner is faced contains the relevant positive evidence, i.e. evidence that the target L2 instantiates a parameter value that varies from the value instantiated in the learner's L1. Where positive evidence is not enough to bring about the needed change from the L1 parameter value to the correct L2 parameter value, this change has to be brought about through facing with negative evidence, exposure to direct evidence in the form of corrective feedback or explicit instruction (ibid.).

**Full Transfer/No Access**

In full transfer/no access hypothesis, the L1 last state is the preliminary state of L2 acquisition. It means that there is access to Universal Grammar by the use of the L1, therefore if the UG is not accessible in the L1, it is not accessible in second language acquisition too. Bley-Vroman (1990) expressed that UG itself is not available during SLA, but it is available through the L2 learner's knowledge of his/her L1. The L2 learner constructs this surrogate UG from his/her L1 knowledge (Bley-Vroman, 1989). This indirect knowledge is not complete and provides the explanation for the success that adult L2 learners show in SLA.

In Bley-Vroman's view (1996, p. 718), *Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* "allows UG-like effects by the L1". On the other hands, the L2 learner does not have access to UG, but observes some aspects of UG instantiated in his/her L1 (aspects such as structure dependency). The L2 learner expects certain things from the L2 because of his/her L1 knowledge; these expected things contain a syntax, a lexicon, a phonological system with syllables, feet and phonological phrases, as well as the potential for a large number of sentences to be produced in the L2 (Bley-Vroman, 1989). The L2 learner makes use of these "expectations", as well as different general cognitive mechanisms (not specifically linguistic, according to Bley-Vroman (1996, p. 718) in the composition of the L2.

**Partial Transfer/Full Access**

According to this concept, Universal Grammar is completely accessible while only a few parts of L1 are transferred. Following this theory, L2 learners learn in a similar way as L1 learners. The different point is that they already know another language before starting to learn a second one. Second language learners continuously design functional categories in reply to the L2 input. L1 learners usually perform in the same way. They use parts of L1 with a complete UG to learn their target language. Therefore, it looks as if the learner could reach a complete achievement.

The partial transfer/full access theory was originally proposed by Vainikka and Young-Scholten (1996). In this theory, it is claimed that only lexical features are found in the initial L2 grammar. Functional categories are not transferred from L1 to L2 so that the initial state of L2 learners' grammar contains NP and VP (with L1 headedness). DP, TP and CP will generate at the next stage with interaction of the L2, in principle, L2 learners should converge on the L2 grammar. In this respect, the L2 learner's initial state is just like the initial state proposed by Radford (1990)
for children acquiring their L1. Also, according to Vainikka and Young-Scholten’s (1994, pp. 267-268) Minimal Trees Hypothesis, L2 learners have direct, but initially limited, access to UG in SLA. What is meant by "initially limited access" is that L2 learners begin with only lexical categories (hence "Minimal Trees"), transferred from the L1, and then acquire functional categories gradually on the basis of the L2 input and with the help of UG. Like White, Vainikka and Young-Scholten (ibid.) claim that L2 learners begin with L1 parameters and then reset the parameters during SLA where necessary.

Partial Transfer/Partial Access
This concept could be explained as a combination of the essential factors of the role of UG, L1 and other acquisition faculties mentioned before. The role of UG is very important in L1 and L2 acquisition. In SLA it is likely to have a partial transfer of L1 features and partial access of UG. Moreover, according to this concept L2 learners use general learning strategies as well. White (1998) believes that Universal Grammar is only one component in the theory of language acquisition and interacts with a variety of others. Unsuccessful acquisition is the result of the other areas and not implicitly to non-operation of UG. In addition, Ellis terms this argument "dual access" and provides the explanation that adult L2 learners can only reach the ultimate attainment if they rely on UG. Since Universal Grammar is somewhat partially accessible for L2 learners, it looks like they will not be able to achieve a native-like competence. Only parts of the L1 grammar are available. Ultimate attainment of an L2 is not possible.

No Transfer/Full Access
This is the only model where there isn't transfer from L1 to L2. But, there is a full access to the UG. It is believed that the L2 grammar is learned via UG rules and strictures. The L2 initial state does not contain the L1 final state or any developmental phase. UG is assumed to constitute the initial state for L2 acquisition. So, it is fully available for L2 acquisition, including new parameter setting, functional categories and feature values. Therefore, L2 acquisition proceeds just like L1 acquisition.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Research Questions
This research intends to answer the following questions:
1. Is there any difference between Persian- Arab bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian monolinguals (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English?
2. Is there any significant difference between male and female learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English?

Null hypotheses
1. There is no difference between Persian- Arab bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian monolinguals (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English?
2. There is no significant difference between male and female learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English.
**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The participants of this study were the junior students studying English as a foreign language at the language institute and public high schools of Bandar-e-Lengeh in Iran. In total, 82 participants took part in this study. The first group consisted of 45 Persian monolinguals (L1 Persian). They started learning English as an L2 after puberty (about 13 years old). The second group of participants consisted of 37 Arab Persian bilinguals (L1 Arabic - L2 Persian). (see Table 1. for details).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sex</th>
<th>Mono-linguals</th>
<th>Mono-linguals</th>
<th>bilinguals</th>
<th>bilinguals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of participants</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age range</td>
<td>14-18 (mean=16)</td>
<td>14-18 (mean=16)</td>
<td>14-18 (mean=16)</td>
<td>14-18 (mean=16)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was essential to target a primary population from which the participants in this study were selected. This primary population was required to include bilingual and mono-lingual English learners. The bilingual learners use the Arabic dialect of Bandar Lengeh as their native language. Moreover, their first and most dominant language is Arabic.

Bilingual and mono-lingual learners were at elementary level. They all had studied English as a foreign language for 3 to 4 years. Most of the participants were in their second or third year of high school so that they had learned subject pronouns in noun clauses such as reported speech in English. In order to maintain the same level of English language proficiency for all the participants, the Nelson Test administered to the participants. Also, the researcher of this study used both male and female in the study and the age of the participants ranged from 14 to 18 years.

**Instruments**

The following instrumentations were utilized in this study:

First, to ascertain homogeneity of the participants of the study in terms of language proficiency, a standard Nelson test was used. The Nelson Placement Test was administered to 120 participants. Therefore those students whose Nelson score fell within one standard deviation, 7.05, below and above the mean of 31.38 were selected as homogeneous participants for this study. Thus 82 students whose score were between 24 and 38 were chosen. Also, a background questionnaire was used to elicit some personal information about participants' background.

The grammatically judgment and correction task was used in this study in order to examine how the participants use subject pronouns in noun clauses in English (See Appendix). The participants were presented with biclausal sentences with referential main-clause subjects and overt or null embedded pronoun subjects; they were asked to judge whether a given sentence was grammatical or ungrammatical in English. The correction task required subjects to correct those sentences which were judged to be ungrammatical in English. The grammatically judgment (GJT) had
around 32 items to be judged. 16 of these 32 items were ungrammatical and the other 16 items were grammatical. There were 8 fillers items among 32 items. Therefore, in total the test consisted of 40 items.

**Procedure**
The participants were selected randomly from among all the population studying English as a foreign language in public high school and an institute in Bandar-e-Lenge. Thus 82 students were chosen. Then a grammaticality judgment and correction task was presented. In this task, the participants judged a sentence as correct or incorrect with GJT (grammatically judgment task); however, with the GCT (grammatically correction task), they wrote the correct form of incorrect items. This kind of task was consisted of 32 two choice items, which 16 out of 32 items were grammaticality and the other 16 items were in ungrammaticality, as shown in examples 1 and 2.

1. *She thinks that is fat.*
   True False
   ………………………

2. He said that he bought a book two weeks ago.
   True False

Also, for doing this test the participants were told to observe the time limit and in order to increase the credibility of the responses, the researcher reminded the students that they should be sincere in their answers and they should not spend too much time on any of the items. Finally, the questionnaire was collected and the responses were entered into the computer for data analysis.

**Data Analysis**
After the data were collected, the researcher analyzed and compared the participants’ performance on judging sentence structure based on UG principles and generative perspectives. In this study, the students' correct judgment of the items received one point, and in the case of incorrect judgment or not answering the items, they got no points.

The performance of the two groups of participants was compared by using quantitative, descriptive and inferential statistics. In order to determine the similarity or difference between the performances of the both mono-lingual and bilingual groups the parametric independent T-test was applied.

**Design**
This is a descriptive study based on a survey research conducted for the purpose of making descriptive information about some population.

In this study, quantitative data were collected. They were collected through a grammaticality judgment task (GJT) along with a correction task to examine the participants' syntactic knowledge. Therefore the quantitative data based on precise measurements using structured and validated data-collection instruments. The data displays comparisons means and statistical significance of findings.
In the current study as mentioned before the purpose was to investigate differences and similarities between the bilinguals and mono-linguals in acquisition of subject pronouns in noun clauses. So, the subject pronouns were dependent variable and the bilinguals and mono-linguals were independent variable.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

*Homogeneity Process*

The Nelson Proficiency Test was administered to 120 participants to assure the homogeneity of the participants. Table 2. below provides us with the descriptive statistics of the participant’s scores on Nelson Test. So, the mean, median and mode of the Nelson scores are 31.37, 31, and 30 and these central parameters are not very different from each other signifying normal distribution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>31.37</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.059</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of normality test results indicated that $p$ value, .77 is more than .05. So they are normally distributed.

Therefore those students whose Nelson score fell within one standard deviation, 7.05, below and above the mean of 31.38 were selected as homogeneous advanced participants for this study. Thus 82 students whose score were between 24 and 38 were chosen.

*Investigating the First Research Question*

The first research question of this study asked whether there is any difference between Persian-Arab bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian monolinguals (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English. In order to analyze the data to answer this question, Independent Sample Test was utilized. To do so, first the monolinguals and bilinguals’ performances on GJT were calculated, and the related results are presented in Table 3. According to the table, the average mean score in bilingual group was 22.08 with the standard deviation of 3.61, and the mean score in monolingual group was 20.82 with the standard deviation of 3.58. The mean score of the two groups are not far from each other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bilinguals</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>22.08</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>3.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monolinguals</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>20.82</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>3.588</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The graphical representation of the results is displayed in Figure 1. As obvious in the figure, the two groups have not acted far from each other.

![Figure 1: Bilingual and monolingual groups' subject pronoun means](image)

The normality distribution of the subject pronouns scores was checked in order to decide whether to use parametric or nonparametric data analysis. So we used One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. The results of this normality test in Table 4. revealed $p$ values of .24 and .96 for bilingual and monolingual groups respectively. They have normal distribution since the $p$ values for both of them were larger than selected significance level, .05. Therefore, we used parametric Independent Samples Test to compare the mean score of two groups obtained on GJT since we had two independent groups, and the scores of the two groups were normally distributed; otherwise the nonparametric Mann Whitney U Test would be used.

### Table 4: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality for Subject Pronoun Scores in Bilingual and Monolingual Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bilinguals</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>22.08</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monolinguals</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>20.82</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td>.960</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of Independent Sample Test to compare the bilingual and monolingual learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English are laid out in Table 5.

Table 5. indicates that the hypothesis of equal of variances is proved because $p$ value of Levene's Test, .74 is more than .05 ($p > .05$).
T-test results in Table 5. indicates that there was not any statistically significant difference between bilingual and monolingual learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English with ($t = 1.575$, $p = .11$, $p > .05$), in which the $t$ value, 1.57 was greater than the $t$ critical, 2.02, and also the $p$ value, .11 was larger than the selected significance level, .05. That means the two groups are not far from each other regarding the knowledge of subject pronouns. Therefore, the first null hypothesis as there is no statistically significant difference between bilingual and monolingual learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English is retained, and it can be claimed that there is no statistically significant difference between bilingual and monolingual learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English.

**Investigating the Second Research Question**

The second research question of the current study inquired whether there is any significant difference between male and female learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English. Independent Sample Test was used to answer this question. To do so, the monolinguals and bilinguals’ performances on GJT were calculated, and the related results are provided in Table 6. The table shows that the average mean score in male group was 21.46 with the standard deviation of 3.54, and the mean score in female group was 21.33 with the standard deviation of 3.74. The mean score and standard deviation of the two groups are not dramatically different.

**Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of Male and Female Groups’ Subject Pronoun Scores**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21.46</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>3.548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21.33</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21.00</td>
<td>3.742</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. below is a box plot illustrating the results as presented in Table 6. As can be seen clearly, the two male and female groups have not scored considerably different.
One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was employed to test the normality distribution of the subject pronouns scores. The results of this normality test in Table 7. showed that $p$ values of .29 and .57 for male and female groups respectively. Since the $p$ value for both of them was larger than selected significance level, .05, they were normally distributed. Accordingly, we utilized parametric Independent Samples Test to compare the mean score of two groups obtained on GJT since there were had two independent groups, and the scores of the two groups had normal distribution; or else the nonparametric Mann Whitney U Test could be applied.

Table 7: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality for Subject Pronoun Scores in Male and Female Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>21.46</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td>.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>21.33</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td>.575</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. clarifies the results of Independent Sample Test for comparing male and female groups’ subject pronoun scores.

It shows that the hypothesis of equal of variances is met since $p$ value of Levene's Test, .88 was well above .05 ($p > .05$).

Table 8: Independent Samples Test to Compare Male and Female Groups’ Subject Pronoun Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levene's Test for Variances</th>
<th>T-test for Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal variance assumed</td>
<td>.021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
T-test (see Table 8.) failed to find any statistically significant difference between male and female learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English with \( t = .155, p = .87, p > .05 \), in which the \( t \) value was lower than the \( t \) critical, 2.02, and the \( p \) value, .87 was larger than the selected significance level, .05. That means the two groups have almost similar knowledge of subject pronouns. Therefore, the second null hypothesis as there is no statistically significant difference between male and female learners in the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English is retained, and it can be claimed that gender does not affect the acquisition of subject pronouns of noun clauses in English.

Discussion

The results of this study showed that mono-lingual participants’ mean score turned out to be 20.82, and the bilingual participants’ mean score was 22.08 on total judgment test. Furthermore the standard deviation of mono-lingual and bilingual groups reached 3.58 and 3.61 respectively, which are very close to each other signifying equal variance of scores around the mean. Their mean values were not far from each other suggesting that there is no significant difference between Persian-Arab bilinguals (L1 Arabic, L2 Persian) and Persian mono-linguals (L1 Persian) in the acquisition of subject pronoun of noun clauses in English.

The results of this research coincide with Schwartz and Sprouse’s (1994; 1996) opinion that acquiring will fail if L1 and L2 parameter settings differ, i.e. parameter resetting in the L2 is not possible after the critical period for instantiation of these parametric values has ceased to operate. Consequently, the inter-language (IL) syntactic representations in post–childhood L2 acquisition would vary from the target grammar regardless of obvious native-like performance.

This research supports Leung’s (2005, 2006) several studies on language transfer in the acquisition of L3 French by Cantonese (L1)–English (L2) learners. The findings of these researches revealed evidence of L2 interlanguage transfer in word order (i.e. adjective and adverb placement), verb morphology and articles (e.g. specific vs. non-specific and agreement with Determiner Phrase (DP)). Also, Leung’s (2006) study on the acquisition of L2 vs. L3 Spanish past tense verb morphology showed that L2 interlanguage is the important source for language transfer in L3 acquisition. Leung (2006) reported that there was not difference between the English (L1)–Spanish (L2) and the Chinese (L1)–English (L2)–Spanish (L3) learners regarding the accuracy in providing the appropriate past tense marking in writing. In addition, the findings of the follow-up experiment on the L3 learners’ English show that the Chinese (L1)–English (L2)–Spanish (L3) participants mark past tense in a similar pattern to native speakers, which suggests that L2 plays an important role in L3 acquisition. Moreover, the results of this study are in line with Sikogukira’s (1993) findings about French- English cognates. The results of his study showed that the level of proficiency is a very important factor influencing the performance of the learners and the transfer in the language acquisition.

CONCLUSION

Considering to the effect of language background in L3 acquisition, the results of this research showed that bilingualism has no significant advantage in 3rd language acquisition. In other
words, Arab-Persian bilinguals could also benefit from the availability of the [-null subject) feature in their first language to increase their L3 inter-language grammar with regard to the overt pronoun feature of English language. However, the findings of the study made it clear that the L3 learners did not perform significantly higher than the mono-lingual learners in spite of the fact that their first language Arabic shared [-null subject] with English.

Also the finding of the study showed that there was no significant difference between the male and female participants’ performance in the acquisition of using subject pronoun of noun clauses in English.

**Limitations of the study**

One of the limitations of this study is the learners' proficiency level. All of them are beginner EFL learners, because it is difficult to find a reasonable number of Arabic-Persian learners of L3 English at higher proficiency level. Secondly, this research only investigates the effects of bilingualism on subject pronouns in noun clauses. So, this study is restrictive only to investigating some statements and just subject pronouns. Finally, because of some educational constraints and problems it was not possible to involve a sample larger than 82 participants.

**Implication**

The findings of this research can benefit multi-lingualism and in particular, the L3A. In terms of cross-linguistic transfer, it was appeared that more of L2 was reflected in L3 inter-language grammar than their L1 as the finding of the study made it clear that the L3 and L2 learners' performance on English interrogative constructions were consistent. Moreover, third language learners constitute a big number of adult language learners around the world. The findings of this study showed that the theories of second language acquisition cannot be applied to these learners.

**REFERENCES**


APPENDIX. GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TEST (GJT)
Please read the sentences and circle "True" if you think these are possible sentences in English, otherwise circle "False". Please provide corrections in the given spaces for the randomly selected sentences if you think they are "False".

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>True</th>
<th>False</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>She thinks that is fat.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>They said that saw a cat in the garden.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>He said he bought a book two weeks ago.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Your brother thinks that he is a good pilot.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I don't have no money.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>She said that didn't go to the museum.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>He said he would help me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Alex told me that he would come to the meeting.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>He said that wasn't especially interested in green sea turtles.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The girl who drank the milk entered a room.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I replied that was drawing a picture.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Reza said that didn't understand the lesson.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>You said that you should work harder.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Maryam said that bought a new grammar book.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The woman instructed the lawyer which the policeman called.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>She said she expected us to be in class every day.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Mona said that was watching TV.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>My friend said that didn't practice her lessons.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Amin believes that he is not smart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>She doesn't need any help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>She thinks she is an excellent nurse.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I explained that I was doing a research paper on sea turtles.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Who says that is going to stay home tomorrow?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I believe I will stay here for a long time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I know the man who bicycle was stolen.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Maria has said that she reads the newspaper every morning.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>My parents believe that are good parents.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Sam informed me that was late yesterday.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Why does she think she is beautiful?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Mahsa will can help you tomorrow.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Ahmad says doesn’t want to go with his family.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>She will say that she travels.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Why does he say that he is the best in the company?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>He says that likes his new car.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>I go to the park once in a week.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Mina informed me that was going to move to Tehran.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>I have said that I want a sandwich for lunch.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>He said he saw him.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>When does he say that needs some money?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>She goes to school in Monday.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>True   False</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT
The present study aimed at pursuing three objectives: first, to investigate the relationship between Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ gender and their vocabulary attrition rate; second, to examine the relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ language proficiency level and their vocabulary attrition rate; and lastly, to see if certain types of vocabulary are more susceptible to attrition. Using the Quick Placement Test (QPT), from among 100 EFL learners in Nahid Art and Cultural Institute in Shahreza, Isfahan, Iran, 60 male and female candidates were chosen as the participants of this study. In fact, the sample included 15 male high proficient learners, 15 male low proficient learners, 15 female high proficient learners, and 15 female low proficient learners. This classification was done according to the rubrics for scoring QPT, and the participants’ gender. The participants aged between 18 and 25, and they were all native Iranian speakers of Persian. A vocabulary size test called the Vocabulary Levels Test which was originally developed by Nation (1990, 2004) was used to measure the size of the test-taker's vocabulary prior to and after the experiment. A series on one-way ANCOVA was used to find answers to the research questions of the study. The findings of the study revealed that gender did not affect the vocabulary attrition of Iranian EFL learners, but language proficiency did affect the process of vocabulary attrition. Moreover, it was found that some certain types of vocabulary like abstract words, polysyllabic words, and false cognates seemed to be more susceptible to attrition by Iranian EFL learners than other ones. The results of this study could come to ELT teachers’ assistance since by knowing the barriers of learning, the teachers can organize their activities in class so as to lead to better understanding of the lesson. It should also be mentioned that the findings of this study could enrich the literature in the area of second language acquisition development, especially Iranian EFL learners’ vocabulary learning competence.

KEYWORDS: Vocabulary attrition, Break in instruction, Gender, Proficiency level
INTRODUCTION

Even though vocabulary is the sub-skill of a language, it plays a very important role in language learning and teaching. Vocabulary teaching and learning is considered one of the major challenges that face ESL/EFL teachers and learners. Most EFL learners have difficulties in communicating in English language because of their limited amount of vocabulary. In order to overcome these challenges, they should use effective strategies which enhance vocabulary achievement and retention (Al-Zahrani, 2011).

With regard to the importance of vocabulary learning, it has been claimed that “Without grammar, very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins 1972, p. 111). This is consistent with Ellis (1994) who affirms that lexical errors tend to obstruct comprehension more than grammatical errors. Besides, Harmer (1991) asserts that choosing words carefully in certain situations is more important than choosing grammatical structures because language learners cannot use structures correctly if they do not have enough vocabulary knowledge.

Vocabulary is one of the important parts of language learning which has been neglected for several decades (Meara, 1980). Coady and Huckin (1997) claimed that after a long period of neglect "second language vocabulary acquisition has recently become an increasingly topic of discussion for researchers, teachers, curriculum designers, theorists, and others involved in second/ foreign language learning" (p. 1). Vocabulary learning has been changed to one of the important parts of language which shifted to the first stages of language learning, as a result of the increasing demands to increasing vocabulary knowledge. Generally speaking, vocabulary plays an undeniable role in the development of all language skills. Schmitt (2008) claims that “one thing that students, teachers, materials writers, and researchers can all agree upon is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language” (p. 329). Hayati and Shahriari (2010) state “Vocabulary learning by far plays an important role in learning language, be it a first language, second language or a foreign language. It is, therefore, conceivable that the words are the building blocks upon which the second language learning is built” (p. 27). Due to the important of vocabulary knowledge, it is suggested learning a second or foreign language involves the acquisition of thousands of words (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

There are several problems facing learning English vocabulary. These include forgetting new vocabularies because learners do not use them in their daily life since they are not surrounded by English speakers (Lin, 2002, cited in Al-Zahrani 2011). This requires looking for effective methods and strategies in order to improve achievement level to acquire vocabulary and motivate learning. Richards and Renandya (2002) emphasize that vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen, read and write. Vocabulary is an important factor in all language teaching (Allen & Valette, 1977).

Factors affecting language abilities have recently been observed and studied for some years. Some of these factors have led to attrition of some language abilities (Oxford, 1982). The term “attrition” means gradual reduction of something. In relation to language learning, it is used when some factors such as duration of the period of disuse, e.g., the summer vacation or the
interruption in instruction between two educational terms, attitude, motivation and the like lead to
the gradual reduction of some language abilities (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Oxford, 1982).
Language attrition refers to a constant overall regression of language ability with decreased or
cased language use. In fact, it is the inverse process of language ability acquisition so that
language acquisition research is not complete without studying language attrition (Groot, 2000).
Schmid (2002, p.5) defines language attrition as “gradual loss of a language by an individual”.
According to Hansen, language attrition is “the gradual forgetting of a language by individual
attracters, who are experiencing attrition” (Hansen, 2001, p. 61).

Break in instruction seems an influential factor on second language learning. By a break in
instruction, it is meant the interval during which EFL students stop learning English and have no
exposure to this language (Ghasemi Bagherabadi, 2005). In Iran, this break lasts for three months
for both school and university students when the schools and universities are closed. Of course,
this is a formal break known as “summer vacation” however there will be shorter break in
instruction for both school and university students such as the holiday of two weeks known as
“New Year’s Holiday” or a short stop in instruction between two educational terms in
universities or English Teaching Centers within which the students have no exposure to language
input.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Vocabulary or lexicon is often considered the basis of the language. Many difficulties in both
receptive and productive use of the target language (TL) arise from learners’ inadequate
vocabulary knowledge (Laufer, 1986; Meara, 1980; Nation, 1990). Wilkins (1972) states that
“…without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”
(p. 110). Hatch (1983) points out that “… when our first goal is communication…it is the lexicon
that is crucial to make basic communication possible” (p. 74). According to recent research, the
average size of English vocabulary that native English speaking university students know and use
is more than 50,000 words (Aitchison, 1996). Vocabulary can be classified as potential
vocabulary, which are new words to the learners, but can be understood upon first encountering
them (Palmberg, 1987). Or, it can be active vocabulary that the learners have learned and can
understand or use. Nation (1990) developed a list of the various types of vocabulary knowledge:
(a) the spoken form of a word, (b) the written form of a word, (c) the grammatical behavior of the
word, (d) the collocational behavior of the word, (e) the stylistic register constraints of a word, (f)
the conceptual meaning of a word, (g) the associations a word has with other related words, and
(h) how frequent the word is. When learners master all these types of knowledge, they are able to
use a word in a fluent manner Consequently, the main purpose of this section is to study and
review the importance of vocabulary in language learning so as to look at what we know about
English vocabulary as well as to reflect on how this has been applied in language teaching and
learning. Words are the tools learners use to think, to express ideas and feelings, as well as to
explore and analyze the world around them. A limited vocabulary keeps them from expressing
their thoughts and feelings. On the other hand, a large, rich vocabulary gives them the right
words to use at the right time. Kitajima (2001) affirms that without words that label objects,
actions, and concepts, one cannot express intended meanings. “The more words one is able to use

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Language attrition is defined by Lambert and Freed (1982) in very broad terms as the following: “Language attrition may refer to the loss of any language or any portion of a language by an individual or a speech community. It may refer to the declining use of mother tongue skills by those in bilingual situations or among ethnic minorities in (some) language contact situations where one language, for political or social reasons comes to replace another.” (p.1) “Language attrition” is the most common term used for any “Loss of language skills” that occurs after some years of non-exposure (Moorcraft & Gardner, 1987, p. 327). “Attrition refers to the non-pathological loss of a language in bilinguals; generally speaking, changes in the linguistic environment and termination of an instructional program may lead to attrition” (Kopke & Schmid, 2004, cited in Marefat & Rohshad, 2007).

“Language attrition (language loss) is a multi-dimensional phenomenon which has been studied from a variety of perspectives e.g. psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics, and sociolinguistics” (Gurel, 2004, p.53).

A small study by Cohen (1975) investigated L2 (Spanish) attrition among three immersion school children over a summer vacation. The children had little contact with the target language (Spanish) outside of the school environment. The results showed some support for the regression hypothesis in that certain vocabulary items that were last learned were the first to be forgotten “when learners are removed from the second language contact for a period of time”. Obler (1993: 189) argues, however, that “it is because these late-learned items had been used less, rather than they were learned late, that they appeared to have been forgotten first”.

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Cohen (1989) also looked at loss of vocabulary (Portuguese) among two children (ages 10 and 14) who had spent one year in a Portuguese-speaking environment (Brazil). They were tested after 1, 3 and 9 months of non-use. A storytelling task was *Retention and attrition of Irish as a second language* used to elicit productive data. Cohen found evidence for loss in the productive lexicon, especially nouns.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ gender and their vocabulary attrition rate after a break in instruction for one month?
2. Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ language proficiency level and their vocabulary attrition rate after a disuse period of one month?
3. Are certain types of vocabulary learned by Iranian EFL learners more susceptible to attrition?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

Using the Quick Placement Test (QPT), from among 100 EFL learners, 60 male and female candidates were chosen as the sample participants of this study. In fact, the sample included 15 male high proficient learners, 15 male low proficient learners, 15 female high proficient learners, and 15 female low proficient learners. This classification was done according to the rubrics for scoring QPT. The participants were English language students studying English at Nahid Art and Cultural Institute in Shahreza, Isfahan, Iran. Their age range was between 18 and 25 and they were all native Iranian speakers of Persian. Since gender was one variable in this study, the number of male and female students were chosen equal so as to have reliable data.

**Instruments**

The following instruments were used to gather data in this research:

*The QPT*

To identify the proficiency level of the participants, Quick Placement Test (QPT) was used. This test consists of two parts; part one has 40 questions including multiple choice situations (5 questions), cloze passages– testing prepositions, grammar, pronouns, and vocabulary– (15 questions), and completion questions (20 questions). The second part contains 20 questions; 10 questions on cloze passages and 10 questions of completion type questions. All questions are multiple-choice items.

*Vocabulary Pretest and Posttest*

A vocabulary size test called the Vocabulary Levels Test which was originally developed by Nation (1990, 2004) and Laufer and Nation (1995) was used to measure the size of the participants’ vocabulary knowledge both prior to and after the treatment. This test was used because it has been commonly used by other studies and it is easy to administer and score. The test has been accepted in terms of reliability and validity by a number of L2 researchers as an
appropriate measure of vocabulary size (Laufer, 1992, 1996; Yu, 1996). Likewise, in the current study, the KR-21 reliability indexes of the pretest and posttest were found to be .76 and .81 respectively.

**Procedure**

A total number of 60 EFL students studying at Nahid Art and Cultural Institute in Shahreza, Isfahan, Iran were chosen as the participants of the present study. First Quick Placement Test (QPT) was administered to the students in order to determine their language proficiency level. Based on their QPT scores, they were divided into two groups of low and high proficient students. Then, the vocabulary size test (Nation, 1983, complete test; Appendix B) was administered to the students two times. It was once administered, as a pre-test to determine their vocabulary knowledge at the outset of the study, i.e., when the students were in contact with language instruction and the other time as a post-test to determine the attrition rate of students’ vocabulary after a break in instruction. The duration of break in instruction in this study was 30 days.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The present study, as such, employed a quasi-experimental design to investigate the effect of a study break on vocabulary attrition of the EFL learners, and to uncover the role of gender as well as proficiency level in this regard. From among EFL learners at a Nahid Art and Cultural Institute in Shahreza, Isfahan, Iran, a sample of 60 participants out of 100 available EFL learners was chosen in the light of the administration of a Quick Placement Test (QPT). Based on the QPT scoring rubric and the learners’ gender, they were categorized into four groups of equal size: Low Proficiency Male Group (LPMG), High Proficiency Male Group (HPMG), Low proficiency Female Group (LPFG), and High Proficiency Female Group (HPFG). Each group consisted of 15 EFL learners. The vocabulary pretest was given to the four groups of learners at the time of their study, and then the study break, which lasted for a month, began. After this lapse of time, the learners in the four groups sat for the vocabulary posttest, the results of which provided the answers to the research questions of the study.

**Results of the first research question**

For reasons of convenience, the first research question is rewritten here: is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ gender and their vocabulary attrition rate after a break in instruction for one month? To answer this research question, the researcher had to compare the LPMG with those of LPFG. However, to control for any possible differences between the LPMG and LPFG prior to the break, one-way ANCOVA was conducted. This way the researcher could control for any possible differences between the two groups on the pretest and then compare their posttest scores. Moreover, the researcher needed to compare the HPMG and HPFG posttest scores as part of the answer to this research question; thus another one-way ANCOVA was run. The results of the ANCOVA tests are presented below.
It could be concluded from Tables 1 and 2 that the high proficiency male and female learners, not unlike their low proficiency counterparts, were afflicted with vocabulary attrition and there was no difference between male and female learners in this respect.

Results of the second research question

The second research question of the current study was “Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ language proficiency level and their vocabulary attrition rate after a disuse period of one month?” To find an answer to this research question, the low proficiency and high proficiency learners’ posttest scores had to be compared. However, these two groups of learners might have had pre-existing differences before the study break commenced (i.e. their pretest scores might have differed). That is why, like what was done for the first research question, one-way ANCOVA was conducted to help find an answer to this research question.

Now it could be inferred that proficiency level significantly affected the vocabulary loss of the learners, to the effect that high proficiency learners were less susceptible to vocabulary attrition
than did the low proficiency learners (since the adjusted posttest mean score of the HPG turned out to be 65.91, while the adjusted vocabulary posttest score.

Results of the third research question

The last research question of the present study intended to find out whether certain types of vocabulary learned by Iranian EFL learners were more susceptible to attrition. To provide an answer to this research question, the researcher merely pinpointed the wrong answers of all the participants, classified them, and measured the proportion of each type to present them in the following pie chart. These vocabulary items, which were problematic for the learners, were classified into the categories of: abstract words, polysyllabic words, false cognates, and other words.

![Figure 1: Percentages of Different Types of Forgotten Words](image)

As it could be seen in Figure 1, polysyllabic words (55%) were more susceptible to vocabulary attrition than any other type of word. Then second most susceptible type of word was abstract words (36%), followed by false cognates (5%), and other words (4%).

CONCLUSION

Research on vocabulary attrition has been neglected for a long time however researchers have recently paid attention to this aspect of vocabulary knowledge. So this study was in fact an attempt to examine vocabulary attrition among Iranian EFL learners after a break in instruction. Furthermore An attempt was made to realize if there is any relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ gender and language proficiency and their vocabulary attrition rate or not. The findings of the study revealed that gender does not affect the vocabulary attrition of Iranian EFL learners but language proficiency does affect the process of vocabulary attrition. Moreover, it was found that some certain types of vocabulary like abstract words, polysyllabic words, and false cognates seem to be more susceptible to attrition by Iranian EFL learners than others.
This study, like any other study, has a number of limitations, some of which could influence the findings and restrict the generalizability of the results. Here are some of the limitations of the research in hand: first, lack of a rich literature in dealing with the subject under investigation was one of the major shortcomings in this field. In other words, there was a lack of comprehensive helpful studies in relation to the effects of the vocabulary attrition on vocabulary learning competence of Iranian EFL learners. The second limitation of this research seems to be the sample size. As it was pointed out earlier, the participants of this study included sixty EFL learners from Nahid Art and Cultural Institute in Shahreza, Isfahan. Due to this fact, a word of caution should be taken in to account while generalizing the results of the study.

REFERENCES


