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**HOW MUCH A NAME REALLY MATTERS? INVESTIGATION OF THE STEREOTYPICAL
EVALUATION OF PERSONAL NAMES IN IRAN**

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ABSTRACT

The present study investigated how people may evaluate others' personality by noticing their names in an Iranian community. Before initiating the study, the effective facets based on which names are chosen in Iran including religious belief, historical tendencies and newly fashionable names, were sought. Two hundred students in Ilam University filled out the questionnaire in which 30 names, and 30 attributes, from the three above-mentioned groups were represented. Having analyzed the data, the researchers found out that the participants' attitudes towards each category were so close to each other. They proposed approximately the same attributes to each group in general and each name in particular. Analysis of the data suggests that people in the given context often shape mental attitudes towards one's personality by considering his/her name. It was also revealed that stereotypical characters significantly affect the participants' attitude toward others names.

KEY WORDS: Personal Names, Religious Names, Historical Names, Newly Fashionable Names, Iranian Names.

INTRODUCTION

Personal names have always been important means for human being to be known and introduced, and are vehicles for establishing and maintaining communications (Ansu-Kyeremeh, 2000). Moreover, it is important in a way that each person usually lives with his/her name for a long life. Thus, choosing a name bears significant consequence for parents.

Various facets play roles in choosing names in different cultures. Among the influential facets on choosing names in Iran, one can refer to religious belief, social status, the place of residence, parents' personality, special events, historical tendencies, literal stories, poems, nationality, fashionably new fads and the like. Closer examination of Iranian names calls for special attention to be paid to the powerful role of *religion, history, and novelty*.

Iran is a religious country and the majority of its people are Muslims. Therefore, lots of Iranian names have roots in their religious belief. Ten top names in the recent decade that are registered at National Organization for Civil Registration fervently support this claim. The statistics are available at www.sabteahval.ir and show that the most frequent names in Iran, at least in the last decade, are religious names like Mohammad, Ali, Abolfazl and the like. For instance, 33084 parents chose Amir Ali, the most frequent male name, for their son, and 52049 parents chose Fatemeh, the most frequent female name, for their daughter in the Iranian calendar year, starting in March 20, 2010 to March 19, 2011. The ten top names for boys are Amir Ali, Abolfazl, Amir Hossein, Ali, Mohammad, Amir Mohammad, Mahdi, Hossein, Mohammad Mehdi and Mohammad Reza. The ten top girls' names are Fatemeh, Zahra, Setayesh, Hasti, Zeinab, Nazanin Zahra, Reihaneh, Maryam, Mobina and Narges. Iran is also a historical country carrying extensive and voluminous literature in background. Historical inclinations as well as tendencies toward historical characters affect peoples' choice of names. Kourosh, Darioush and such other personal names gotten from Iranian kings names that are very common nowadays, reveal people's tendency toward history as well. Furthermore, the influence that Persian literature has on people's belief is undeniable in Iran. Names of popular national heroes, figures of art, scholars, and literary figures (e.g. Sohrab, Ramin, Soudabeh, and Arash), are common these days. National names (e.g. Mitra and Sarah) are also among popular names today. This group of names, including all mentioned above, are called historical group henceforth.

The third group consists of newly fashionable names. This group of names includes ones that have just been used in recent decades like Atena, Elina or Arian. They are either recently revived or totally novel. The former refers to those names that root in religion or history, like Mobina and Arian respectively, but they have just recently become fad. The latter are those that have recently come into existence, like Atena, Pedram or Helia. Atena that is originally a Greek name (central intelligence agency, 2007) has recently become popular among Iranians. Helia is also another popular Greek name, that is, as is mentioned in www.sootak.ir, the daughter of the sun. The newly fashionable names may be used because they are up-to-date and in fashion and accordingly, some parents prefer choosing novel names to religious or historical ones. Parents' tendency toward one or the other option motivated the authors to investigate if personal name affect people attitudes toward ones' personality.

REVIEW OF THE RELATED STUDIES

The psychological impact of one's name on shaping personality has been a domain for previous studies. In an early study the relationship between names and mental illness was probed by Ellis and Beechley (1954). They found that kids with unusual and uncommon first names suffered illness more than kids with more usual names. They further reported that this tendency was weaker among girls and women than boys and men. The researchers concluded that others' attitudes might have affected their personality. This could be traced back to the parents since it is plausible that they behave differently and strangely with strange-name kids. Another justification might go to the society; people may have bothered them because of their unusual names.

Figlio (2007) also suggested that boys with names traditionally given to girls are more likely to misbehave than boys with masculine names. In elementary school, boys named Ashley and Shannon, for instance, behaved just like their more masculine-named classmates named Brian and other boyish names. "But, as they enter middle school...boys with names associated with girls may begin to misbehave in school at a disproportionate rate" (Figlio, 2007, p. 3). Attitudes towards personal names motivated the researchers and economists to investigate the relationship between personal names and one's earning during years. Bertrand and Mullainathan (2004) found that employers with African-American names were paid significantly lower than those with "White" names. Figlio (2005) found that "children with names associated with low socio-economic status" achieve lower scores in reading and mathematics exams comparing with their brothers or sisters with "less race or class-identifiable names" (p. 22). The researcher continued that these students are less likely to be considered as gifted and talented learners. Moreover, Arai and Thoursie (2007) investigated the impact of immigrants' surname change to "Swedish-sounding or neutrals" on their earnings. They concluded "that changing a foreign name of Slavic, Asian or African origin to a Swedish-sounding or neutral name is associated with a substantial increase in labor earnings" (p. 15). In another study, Aura and Hess (2010) reported that individual names "have a great deal of predictive power about their lifetime outcomes such as income and social status, educational, and attainment" (p. 16). In contrast to all these findings, Fryer and Levitt (2004) found that one's personal name does not affect his/her outcome.

Influential facets in choosing names, in different cultures, have also been discussed in previous qualitative studies (e.g. Jayaraman, 2005; Guma, 2001). Lyons (1977, p. 222) and Ryme (1996, p. 231) claimed that personal names are both synchronically and diachronically motivated. Katakami (1997) reported the customs of a tribe in Kenya, namely Mbeere, on choosing personal names. The researcher noted that a personal name reflect its sex, place, and generation-sets. However, the basic principle of naming a newborn is to name him or her after another, e.g. grandparents. Following these principles, one may have up to five names as he/she grows up. Agyekum (2006) investigated influential factors in choosing personal names among Akans in Ghana. The researcher found day names, family names, circumstance names, and kinship and so forth, as important facets on personal naming. This is because of adding to or dropping from original names. Mandende (2009) asserted that Vhavenḡa people choose different names for a person in different stages of life. That is, they diachronically change the child name. These naming include names given by birth, school/Christian names, initial school names, marriage names, traditional leaders' names, and Teknonymy.

Exploring the influential facets on naming newborns has been a call for studies. Finch and Mason (2000) referred to using the name of people in naming newborns as a regular custom in the UK. They believe that this usually occurs to keep the memory of lovely late people alive (pp. 145-61). Hanks and Hodges (2003) contended that lots of people in southern India have their father's names beside their personal names. They also use their village names after them (p. 30). Finch (2007) also posited that personal names can be thought of as a means to display "family-like" relationship. However, Finch (2008) maintained that this is to appreciate the value of kinship, and to develop "kin network...in a way which focuses on particular relationship" (p. 13). As mentioned before some research has been conducted to investigate the relationship between name and personality, name and earnings, strange name and mental illness, and important facets on choosing personal names. However, by the best knowledge of the researchers, no research has investigated the extent to which personal names really direct others attitudes in the Iranian context. In other words, it remained unclear whether people evaluate names stereotypically or not. Such an issue, thus, created a relatively strong motivation for research in this social aspect of life in Iran. More specifically, the major intent in conducting the present study is to explore how they affected others' attitudes.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The present study seeks answer for the following research question:

Does one's name affect attitudes toward his/her personality?

METHODOLOGY

Design

This study was conducted quantitatively through survey research. To collecting necessary information regarding the content of the questionnaire for the survey, two pilot studies were conducted. The first pilot study was conducted in order to select frequent and representative names from the three above-mentioned groups, namely religious, historical, and fashionably new ones. The aim of the second pilot was to find the appropriate and frequent attributes for the suggested names to be presented in the actual questionnaire.

Participants

The participants were students in Ilam State University. Two hundred students randomly filled in the questionnaires. They were majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, English Literature, Persian Literature, Agriculture, Marketing Management and so forth. It should be noted that the Master of Art (MA)/Master of Science (MS) as well as the Bachelor of Art (BA)/Bachelor of Science (BS) students participated in the study. The major reason for selecting university students as participants of the study was their representativeness. They were from different cities, races and tribes in Iran with different backgrounds and cultures. Furthermore, as educated people, university students are more likely to be familiar with the meanings of personal names and were expected to be more sensitive to the issue. Yet, another reason for their selection was their availability and convenience of administration.

Instrument

A questionnaire including 30 names, written in rows, and 30 attributes, written in columns, was prepared, and 200 copies of which were distributed through Ilam University. Special care was taken so as to maintaining a balance between the categories of names so far attended. Every 10 names belong to one of the three above-mentioned groups: religious, historical and newly fashionable names. The 30 attributes were selected from the most frequently suggested attributes during the pilot studies. Then the names were written in rows, b.1 to b.30, and the attributes were written in the columns, a.1 to a.30. Finally, the participants were asked to select 10 of the most probable attributes each name invoked in their minds. It must be noted that the names and attributes were randomly written in the questionnaire in order not to direct participant's answers.

Procedure

Having recognized the most important factors in choosing a name, the researchers conducted two pilot studies to find names from the three above-mentioned groups of names, and to determine attributes for them. In the first pilot study, the researchers asked the participants to write contemporary common names that they considered as religious, historical and newly fashionable in an open-ended questionnaire (see appendix 1). The most frequently suggested names were used as the representatives of the names of each group. After the first pilot study, thirty six frequently suggested names were written in an open-ended questionnaire (see appendix 2). The suggested religious names including male and female were Mohammad, Fatemeh, Ali, Hossein, Mahdi, Zahra, Zeinab, Mostafa, Reza, Abolfazl, Mahdieh, Ahmad and Rasoul. It is noted that these names are highly frequent among Iranians.

The most frequently suggested historical names, used in the questionnaire, were Kouros, Dariush, Jamshid, Ramin, Arash, Soudabeh, Sohrab, Sara, and Mitra. It is worth noting that the three first names were the names of three of the most powerful and famous Iranian kings. The fourth to the seventh names are from Persian literature, and the last two are Iranian national names. All of these names are frequent names in Iran. The last group included newly fashionable names. Sepideh, Pedram, Mobina, Elina, Atena, Matin, Arian, Shayan, Arman, Helia, and Radmehr were the suggested names by participants. In order not to direct the participants' answers, the selected names were randomly written in the questionnaire. In the second pilot study, these open-ended questionnaires were, again, passed to some students to suggest attributes for them. The researcher asked the participants to write whatever each name invoked in their minds. The most frequent proposed attributes were used in the final questionnaire. To check the reliability of the questionnaire, the researchers asked the participants to propose attributes for the suggested names two weeks later. Having ensured of the reliability of the researchers-made questionnaire, the researchers decided to distribute it among university students in Ilam, Iran.

Two hundred copies of the final questionnaire, in which 30 names were written in columns and 30 attributes in rows, were distributed among students in Ilam University. The researchers asked the participants to check the probable attributes that each name invoked in their minds. Having the data collected, the researchers transferred them into

Microsoft Office Excel sheet to record the frequency of attributes for each name. The most frequently suggested attributes for each name were considered of as the attributes of the name.

RESULTS

Table.1 reveals the number of times each attribute has been marked for names. The number of times each attribute was marked for each name is written in the related rows and under the related column. For instance, number 18 in a.1, b.1 shows that 18 participants marked Mohammad (name b.1) as trustee (a.1). It should be added that only highly frequent attributes that were considered as representatives were presented in Table 1. Furthermore, the number of times each attribute has been marked for names is presented in the last row of the table. The analysis of the data is presented in the following sections.

Table 1: The number of times each name was marked by the participants

	a. 1. Trustee	a.2. Powerful	a.3. Sissy	a.4. Kind	a.5. Magnanimous	a.6. Spoiled	a.7. Traditional	Calm a.8	a.9. Pretty / Beautiful	a.10. Strong	a.11. Trustful	a.12. Naughty	a.13. Attractive	a.14. Noble	a.15. Faithful
b.1. Mohammad	18			18				8			9				3
b.2. Koroush		15			25		14			14					
b.3. Pedram			12			13									
b.4. Ali		7		14											
b.5. Jamshid		26		5						18					
b.6. Mobina				8		14						14			
b.7. Fatemeh				12										17	
b.8. Matin			3			6		16							
b.9. Darioush		21					14			9			6		
b.10. Arian				2		14			8						
b.11. Soudabeh				14										8	
b.12. Zahra				15				9							9
b.13. Shayan						9						7			
b.14. Hossein				7				5			6			5	10
b.15. Ramin			8			11									
b.16. Radmehr			12	3		16						14			
b.17. Mahdi				9							7				8
b.18. Sara				12			8	5							
b.19. Arman												7			
b.20. Zeinab														9	
b.21. Mitra			4	12		5			14						
b.22. Sepideh						13			12						
b.23. Mostafa	13			4				7							13
b.24. Sohrab		13								9					
b.25. Elina			10	4		23			8						
b.26. Reza				8											
b.27. Atena						6									
b.28. Arash															
b.29. Abolfazl	5	14								12					8
b.30. Helia			5	6		14		6	7						
Total	36	96	63	156	25	144	36	56	49	62	22	50	14	31	51

Table 1 continued...

	a.16. Prestigious	a.17. Warrior	a.18. Innocent	a.19. Lovely	a.20. Courageous	a.21. Good-tempered	a.22. Chick	a.23. Religious	a.24. Serene	a.25. Poetic	a.26. Proud	a.27. Submissive	a.28. Elegant	a.29. Patient	a.30. Fair
b.1. Mohammad								2	6						
b.2. Koroush															
b.3. Pedram	11					5							6		
b.4. Ali					19	5		3	9						12
b.5. Jamshid															
b.6. Mobina				12											
b.7. Fatemeh			8						16			11		5	
b.8. Matin									32						
b.9. Darioush						12									
b.10. Arian	6			8											
b.11. Soudabeh															
b.12. Zahra			9					4	21						
b.13. Shayan													4		
b.14. Hossein												17		12	
b.15. Ramin											7				
b.16. Radmehr	3														
b.17. Mahdi								14							
b.18. Sara	15						5				7				
b.19. Arman															
b.20. Zeinab												14		18	
b.21. Mitra											7				
b.22. Sepideh											11				
b.23. Mostafa						5			11						
b.24. Sohrab										16					
b.25. Elina	12						10						8		
b.26. Reza						5		8			4			5	
b.27. Atena	4										8		8		
b.28. Arash		17			8		4								
b.29. Abolfazl					12			13							
b.30. Helia							11						15		
Total	51	17	17	12	39	32	35	44	95	16	44	42	41	40	12

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The ultimate goal of the present study was to see to what extent one's name affects others' attitudes toward him/her. Very wonderful results were found from data analysis. It was revealed that some attributes were used to describe only one or two groups and not the others. In the following paragraphs these group-specific attitudes are discussed thoroughly. Moreover, the respondents' suggested attributes for each one of the selected names is presented.

Seven attributes, i.e. *trustee*, *trustful*, *faithful*, *innocent*, *religious*, *submissive*, and *patient* have been selected by participants only for religious names. Put it another way, neither historical nor fashionably new names were thought of as possessors of these attributes, from the participants perspective. *Trustee*, column a.1, was chosen 36 times to introduce religious names; Mohammad, row b.1, was selected by 18, Mostafa, row b.23, by 13, and Abolfazl, row b.29, by 5 participants as the possessors of this attribute. *Trustful*, column a.11, is another attribute that was suggested solely for religious names. Mohammad, Mahdi, and Hossein, rows b.1, b.17, and b.14, are three religious male names that were thought of as being *trustful*. They were chosen by 9, 7, and 6 participants respectively. The attribute in column a.14, *noble*, was marked 17 times for Fatemeh, row b.7, 9 times for Zeinab, row b.20, and 5 times for Hossein, written in the row b.14.

Faithful, column a.15, was another religious-specific attribute merely suggested for religious names. Thirteen participants considered Mostafa, 10 Hossein, 9 Zahra, 8 Mahdi, 8 Abolfazl, and 3 Mohammad as *faithful* people. Column a.18 asked for the attribute *innocent*. Nine participants marked this column for Zahra and 8 for Fatemeh. These two names are religious female names. The next attribute suggested, just, for religious names was *religious*. The number of attributes for each name is as follows: 13 for Abolfazl, 14 for Mahdi, 8 for Reza, 4 for Zahra, 3 for Ali, and 2 for Mohammad. Column a.27 asked participants to mark the names that they considered *submissive*. Hossein, Zeinab, and Fatemeh are the names who were thought of as the possessors of this attribute. They were marked 17, 14, and 11 times respectively. Fatemeh, Hossein, Zeinab, and Reza, four male and female religious names, were the names that were considered *patient*, column a.27.

Traditional and *attractive* were two attributes that had been chosen, just, for historical names. *Traditional* was marked, by 14 participants, for Kourosh, row b.2, by 14 for Darioush, row b.9, and by 4 for Sara, row b.18. The first two names are historical male names, and the last one is a national female name. Therefore, participants think of this attribute as a historical one. Besides, neither religious nor new names are anticipated to carry traditional ideas. Only 8 participants expected Soudabeh, row b.11, and 6 expected Darioush as *attractive*, column a.13. This is an attribute that the least of participants marked for names.

The third group of names includes newly fashionable names. Four attributes, *spoiled*, *naughty*, *lovely*, and *elegant* were attributed only to these names. One interpretation that can be offered is that the majority of people with these names are kids and probably no more than 20 years old. Therefore hearing such names reflect a baby in the mind, who might be *spoiled*, *naughty*, *lovely*, and *elegant*. *Spoiled*, column a.6 was selected 141 times, merely, for newly fashionable names. Almost all the fashionable names in the questionnaire had been marked in this column. Column a.12 asked for the attribute of *naughty*. Fourteen participants considered Mobina, row b.6, 14 Radmehr, row b.16, 8 Arman, row b.19, and 7 Shayan, row b.13, as *naughty*. All of these names are fashionable male names. Another attribute that was only selected for fashionable names was *lovely*, column a.19. Mobina was selected by 12, and Arian by 8 participants as a lovely person. These two names are fashionable for female and male individuals respectively. Column a.28 asked for the attribute of *elegant*. The expressed ideas for this attribute are as follows: Helia, row b.30, was selected by 15 participants, Atena, row b.27, by 8, Elina, row b.25, by 8, Pedram, row b.3, by 6, Shayan, row b.13, by 4 respondents. All of these names are newly fashionable ones. These names are minorities compared to the religious and historical names and are to some extent universal and less respected by the majority.

Three attributes, *kind*, *calm*, and *proud*, were selected for all the names in all three groups. *Kind* was selected 156 times, *calm* 56 times and *proud* 44 times by participants. *Kind*, column a.4, has been marked the most among all columns. Mostafa, Mohammad, Ali, Fatemeh, Zahra, Hossein, Mahdi, Reza, Jamshid, Soudabeh, Sara, Mitra, Mobina, Arian, Radmehr, Elina, and Helia were the names that were considered as *kind*. The first eight names are religious, the ninth to the twelfth names are historical and the others are new names. Column a.8 asked for *calmness*. Mohammad, Zahra, Hossein, Mostafa, Matin, Helia and Sara are expected to be calm. The first four names are religious names. The fifth and the sixth names are fashionable, and the last one is a historical female name. Religious names are considered as *calm* more than the other two groups. *Proud*, column a.26 was suggested for Ramin, Sara, Sepideh, Mostafa, Reza, and Atena. It indicates that these attributes are generally used and would not differentiate between names in different groups. In other words people with different names could be thought of as *proud*, *calm*, and *kind*.

Three attributes of *courageous*, *strong*, and *powerful*, were selected for two groups. *Courageous*, column a.20, for example, is used to describe two religious names, Ali, row b.4, and Abolfazl, row b.29, and one historical name, Arash, row b.28. The former names are the names of two religious characters in Islam who are known for their courage among Muslims. Ali was chosen by 19 and Abolfazl by 12 participants. Furthermore, there is one character in Iranian folklores, called Arash, who is famous for his courage among Iranians. This name was selected by 8 participants. These three characters directed the participants to mark the attribute *courage* on the related rows. It reveals that neither female names nor newly fashionable names were attributed as courageous people.

Two other attributes, *strong*, column a.10, and *powerful*, column a.2, were also common among these two groups to wit religious and historical names. *Powerful* was chosen by 96 participants, 14 times for Abolfazl, a religious name, and 82 times for historical male names. Historical male characters are known for their power in ancient Iran; moreover, a person called Abolfazl is known as a *powerful* person among Shia, Muslims. This is also true about the attribute of *strong*. It was chosen 62 times, 12 of which went to Abolfazl, and 50 times to four historical names, Kourosh, Jamshid, Darioush, and Sohrab. It reveals that these attributes are used to describe historical male names. However, there is also a religious character that is known as a *powerful* and *strong* person.

The only attribute which was common between religious and fashionable names was *serene* which is the meaning of the name Matin (Hamira (2001, p.416). It has been selected 96 times, 32 times for Matin and the rest for other religious names: 21 participants marked Zahra, 16 for Fatemeh, 11 for Mostafa, and 9 for Ali, and 9 for Mohammad. All these names, except Matin, are religious names. Thus, it can be interpreted as a religious attribute. Perhaps the literal meaning of the name "Matin" accounts for why 32 participants marked this column for the same name.

Sissy, *prestigious* and *chick* were three attributes that were common between historical and fashionable names. Seven names were attributed as *sissies*, column a.3, six of them are fashionable and only one, Mitra, is a historical female name. It was marked, by 12 participants as an attribute to describe a person called Pedram. The number of times the same attribute was marked by participants for other names is as follows: 12 times for Radmahe, 10 for Elina, 5 for Helia, 3 for Matin 8 for Ramin, and 4 times for Mitra. The first six names are newly fashionable, but the last two are historical. Thus, participants, mostly, considered people with new names as *sissy*. Perhaps the reason for selecting the last two names is that they are totally common among newborns. Four of these names are male and three of them are female names, thus there is no difference between boys and girls in this attribute.

Prestigious, column a.16 was selected for 6 names, 4 of them are new and only 2 are historical names. Eleven participants considered Pedram as a prestigious person; 15 considered Sara, 12 Elina, 6 Arian, 4 Atena, and 3 Radmehr, as prestigious people. Except Sara, all these names are fashionable names. No religious name was regarded as *prestigious*. Fashionable male names were not thought to be *prestigious*, either. The last common attribute between these two groups was *chick*, column a.22. It was determined for two fashionable names, Helia 11 times, and Elina 10 times, and two historical names, Sara 5 times and Arash 4 times. No name from the religious group was checked for the attribute *chick*.

A very eye-catching finding is that each one of the 4 of the attributes of *magnanimous*, *warrior*, *poetic*, and *justice* were selected only for one particular name. *Magnanimous* was attributed, 25 times, only to a historical male name, Kourosh. This name, row b.2, is gotten from the name of "the Cyrus the Great" who was the first person who presented human rights cylinder. It should be noted that this name is the name of well-known kings in ancient Iran (Rastgar Fassai (2000, p. 801); Mo'in (1992, p. 1622). *Warrior*, column a.17, has been selected for Arash, row b.28. This name is taken from the name of an Iranian national hero, "Arash the Archer" also known as "Arash the warrior" (Dehkhoda (1993, p. 67); Rastgar Fassai (2000, p. 9); Hamida (2001, p.27)). It is highly plausible that this character directed the participants' thought. Moreover, *poetic*, column a.25, was selected just for Sohrab, row b.24. Sohrab is the name of a famous contemporary poet. It is likely that participants considered Sohrab as a *poetic* person because of him. Ali, row b.4, was attributed 12 times as being *justice*. It is noted that Imam Ali is known for his fairness among Shia; perhaps the same character led the participants' ideas in marking this attribute for Ali.

Furthermore, 8 attributes have only been chosen for either male or female names. Three attributes i.e. *courageous*, *strong* and *good tempered* have been selected just for male names. It shows that these attributes represented male characteristics, in participants' perspective. On the other hand, 5 attributes of *kind*, *beautifulandpretty*, *attractive* as well as *innocent* have been thought to represent female attributes only. Put it another way, these attributes reflected a female in the participants' minds.

Generally speaking, it can be concluded from the findings that to Iranians, names are more than a common means of identification. They account for a whole variety of family, social, religious, political and ideological values at work

in the society. Iranians are aware of and pay particular attention to these values the names invoke. The findings also revealed that Iranian names are thought to mirror and reflect social and cultural attitudes and this is why parents are so concerned about choosing a name for their newborn child.

Furthermore, the present investigation verified that people have pre-determined opinions and evaluation about each of the above-mentioned group of names which confirms Hagström (2012) claim that “based on our preconceived notions about other people’s names we draw conclusions about their gender, age, ethnicity, nationality, social positions, and maybe even religious beliefs.” (p. 83).

Although exploring the reasons behind such stereotype is not the major purpose of this paper, some plausible reasons are presented below. An explanation for such stereotyping may refer to the impact of the media including press, TV, radio, Islamic books, Islamic belief and so on. Religious names are used with positive attributes on television or radio. Newspapers and magazines’ headlines and titles address the prophet and Imams’ names using attributes like *trustee*, *courageous*, *serene*, and *kind*. For instance, Mohammad, the holy prophet of Islam, is introduced as a *trustful* and *trustee* person; Zeinab as a *patient* person, and Imam Hossein, the third Imam in Shia, as *submissive* in media. Lots of movie actors and actresses with religious names are shown as good and respectful characters. Historical and literary books try to show historical characters as *powerful*, *strong*, and *great*, having *traditional* ideas. Exploring the probable reasons of stereotypical attitudes can be a rich ground for new studies. Findings of the study thus suggest parents to devote particular attention to choosing name for a newborn hence this is a means by which people are evaluated.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Relevant to the purpose started earlier, the evaluation of participants’ answers was investigated in this research and the probable reason or reasons behind their evaluation were beyond the scope of the current study. They can, thus, be investigated in new research works. People’s tendency toward each one of these names or the reason of this kind of evaluation can be a call for further studies. Furthermore, factors that affect people’s attitudes and tendency can be studied in the future. Moreover, investigating how much social planning can direct or restrict one’s tendency can be topics of further research. Still, as noted earlier, study of the factors which are at work in parents decision on choosing one name or another is an additional avenue open to further research.

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APPENDIX 2

The open-ended questionnaire asked the participants to suggest attributes for the suggested names.

What personalities do you think people with following names might have? Write one or two attributes for each.		
Mohammad	13. Sepideh.....	25. Abolfazl.....
Kourosch	14. Elina.....	26. Asma.....
Sepehr.....	15. Zeinab.....	27. Arman.....
Fatemeh.....	16. Jamshid.....	28. Helia.....
Pedram.....	17. Atena.....	29. Mahdiah.....
Ali.....	18. Matin.....	30. Radmehr.....
Mobina.....	19. Mostafa.....	31. Sohrab.....
Ramin.....	20. Mitra.....	32. Ahmad.....
Hossein.....	21. Arash.....	33. Darioush.....
Mehdi.....	22. Arian.....	34. Rasoul.....
Sarah.....	23. Reza.....	35. Soudabeh.....
Zahra.....	24. Shayan.....	36. Negar.....

LEXICAL ANALYSIS OF GENERAL ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS IN IRANIAN UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT

Currently, immediate and academic needs of the learners have gained much importance in the evaluation of learning materials. In so doing, this study aimed at comparing a number of General English (GE) reading textbooks used in universities in Iran in terms of their vocabulary size, vocabulary levels and text coverage. Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List (AWL) containing 570 word families, the BNC 14,000 high-frequency English word lists, and the 2000 English words required by Iran's Ministry of Education were chosen as the base word lists. The results showed that a General English textbook can contribute to learning 47–407 interdisciplinary academic words. Beyond the 2,000-word level, a GE textbook can supply students with 158–2001 new word families. Syllabus designers and materials producers can take advantage of the findings of the study through needs analysis for the specification and sequencing of the lexical items in general English textbooks.

KEY WORDS: General English Textbooks, Vocabulary Level

INTRODUCTION

English education in Iran starts officially in the first year of guidance school, though some private schools may begin English programs as early as in the first grade. During primary and secondary education (Grades 1–12), English courses aim to familiarize learners with basic English sentence structures and the most commonly used words. The content of English texts is broadly humanities-based and teaching is geared towards the general interest of students rather than to specific purposes.

The 2,000 basic English word list published by West's (1953) General Service List (GSL) of English has served as a curricular standard for the English course design for elementary and high schools. By and large, the 2,000 lexical items are presumed to be the minimum vocabulary of EFL high school graduates entering university.

At the university level, English is a required language subject. English courses for general purposes are offered to non-English majors two to three hours per week in the freshman and sophomore years respectively. The curriculum design of General English is expected to broaden students' horizon so that they can meaningfully relate their academic study to other realms of understanding. Crucial to this goal is providing students with versatile academic content covering topics such as culture, nature, business, medicine, science and technology to achieve an all-encompassing development of knowledge.

In Iran, English is not an official language. After taking required English courses in the first two years of college, one may learn new English words at a decreasing rate and may even almost stop learning. As far as non-English majors are concerned, GE courses may be regarded as a transition between senior high school and college English proficiency benchmarks. As students continue to take English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses in the third or fourth years, then GE courses may also be viewed as a launch pad for further English programs. GE textbooks and materials used in the freshman and sophomore years may therefore play an important role in enhancing English abilities.

In light of the potential role of English for General Purposes courses in the current EFL context, vocabulary goals should be considered first in choosing and preparing teaching materials. Breadth of vocabulary has been identified as one of the most important indicators of reading proficiency and language abilities (Hu & Nation, 2000; Qian, 2002), since a rich vocabulary makes the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing easier to perform. The limited vocabulary of EFL learners is a major source of difficulty in reading an English text.

West (1926) considered "one unknown word in every fifty words" to be the minimum threshold necessary for the adequate comprehension of a text (cited in Chujo, 2004, p. 231). Some other researchers (Read, 2000; Schmitt &

McCarthy, 1997) believe that if more than one word is unknown in every twenty words (95%), learners would need to look up new words on and off, which means as the density of unknown words increases, reading comprehension drops. So, it can be inferred that, learners depend on vocabulary as their first resource and if 95–98% coverage of a text is needed for unassisted comprehension, vocabulary size may be one of the predictors of test scores and this assumption should be applied to English language testing, since learners cannot resort to dictionaries or consult teachers while doing a test. As such, what is the optimum vocabulary needed for a graduating college EFL student?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The majority of research carried out in L2 vocabulary studies has focused on developing measures to assess proficiency or the size of a learner's vocabulary. For example, Laufer and Nation (1995) analyzed students' written texts by comparing them to three frequency lists: one containing the 1000 most frequent word families in the English language, one containing the 2000 most frequent word families in the English language, and a third list containing 500 academic words used at university. Word family within the authors' study is represented by a "head word" and all "derived forms" as in the example: push: pushed, pushes, pushing. The authors argued that their results indicate that the use of frequently occurring words reflects a smaller vocabulary while the use of low-frequency words is an indicator of vocabulary richness. This measure does not identify whether a learner can produce a certain word when prompted to do so, but rather how much lexical variety he uses in his writing (Laufer, 2005).

Past studies have shown that the minimal vocabulary size needed for reading authentic texts starts at a low of 5,000 words and ranges up to 10,000 words for reading university textbooks (Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Laufer, 1989, 1997).

According to Nation (2001), words in non-fiction texts can be divided into four categories:

1. High-frequency or general service vocabulary: those basic general service English words which constitute the majority of all the running words in all types of writing. The most well-known general service vocabulary is West's (1953) General Service List of English Words (GSL).
2. Academic vocabulary (also called sub-technical or semi-technical vocabulary): vocabulary with medium-frequency of occurrence across texts of various disciplines that have some rhetorical functions and communicative purposes. Acquiring these words seems to be essential when learners are preparing for EAP or ESP.
3. Technical vocabulary: are the ones used in a specialized field and are considerably different from subject to subject. In an academic setting, ESP students do not see technical terms as a problem because these terms are usually the focus of discussion in class or in the specialist textbooks.
4. Low-frequency vocabulary: words that are rarely used.

Coxhead (2000) compiled a corpus of around 3.5 million running words from university textbooks and materials from four different academic areas (law, arts, commerce as well as science), and identified 570 academic word families, which were claimed to cover almost 10% of the total words in a general academic text. Her research suggested that for learners with academic goals, the academic word list contains the next set of vocabulary to learn after the top 2,000-word level. To put it concretely, after the top 2,000 word families on a frequency list, greater text coverage is gained by moving on to the 570 academic words (10% coverage) than by continuing to learn the next 1,000 words ("3–5%" coverage for the 3rd 1,000; Nation, 2006, p. 79).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study was undertaken to examine the vocabulary of General English textbooks used in universities in Iran. How can the goal of increasing vocabulary size to a particular target level be achieved in the classroom under real class conditions? What interdisciplinary academic vocabulary can freshman and sophomore English courses for general purposes provide through diverse and versatile content? What additional vocabulary is required for students under the assumption that 95% text comprehension is the threshold for passing an English proficiency

test? If college GE textbooks fall short of the targets above, English instructors must then provide supplementary materials to bridge the gap. By lexically comparing textbooks, this research sought to answer the following questions:

R.Q.1. What percentage of the words in a General English reading textbook does Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List cover? How many interdisciplinary academic words may one learn from a GE textbook?

R.Q.2. how many new words may a university student learn from a GE textbook?

R.Q.3. What is the vocabulary level of a GE textbook?

METHODOLOGY

Textbook selection criteria

The criteria for the selection of the GE reading textbooks widely used in universities in Iran were based on the popularity of GE textbooks frequency of use in 10 Azad universities in Iran. In total, six textbooks were chosen, two low-intermediate, two intermediate, and two upper intermediate. Excluding exercises the main articles in each book chosen were scanned into six separate computer files. As proper nouns are not in the list of the most frequent 2,000 words and various types of text may contain different percentages of proper nouns, they were separated from the counting of normal words. After removing proper nouns, the resulting corpus contained in total 74,912 tokens (running words), as Table 1 shows.

Table 1: The corpus of General English Reading textbooks

GE Textbook 2	Book Level	Number of Texts	Tokens
Reading Challenge	Low-intermediate	20	6,709
Access Reading 3	Low-intermediate	20	8,541
Active Skills for Reading 3	intermediate	32	18,798
Concepts & Comments-reading 4	high-intermediate	20	15,383
Select Readings-intermediate	intermediate	14	10,204
Select Readings upper-intermediate	high-intermediate	12	15,277
			74,912

Instrumentation

Developed by Paul Nation for research purposes, the Range software can be used to compare a text against certain base word lists to see what words in the text are and are not in the lists, how many words from a word list are in a text, create word lists based on frequency and range, and discover shared and unique vocabulary in different pieces of writing. In particular, it can also be used to compare the vocabulary of many text files at a time to see how much of the same vocabulary they use (i.e. range) and the frequency of occurrence of the words in total and in each file.

To compare GE textbooks, the following three categories of word lists were used:

1. The BNC 14,000 high-frequency English word lists.
2. Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List (AWL) containing 570 word families.
3. The 2,000 basic English words announced by the Ministry of Education.

The 14,000 high-frequency word families were divided into fourteen base word lists, each containing exactly 1,000 word families. Apart from the BNC 1st-14th 1,000 word lists, some proper nouns and Roman numerals as well as spoken interjections and exclamations were also incorporated in the RANGE program, however, they were beyond the research focus and were hence not factored in.

Coxhead's (2000) 570 academic word-family list has also been included in the RANGE program. This list was adopted for the present study to measure how frequently the academic words across disciplinary domains occur in

a GE textbook and to compare the extent to which a GE textbook can prepare a learner for reading professional texts.

Word families are regarded as an important counting unit because comprehending regularly inflected or derived members of a word family does not require much effort, if learners know the base word and basic word building processes (Bauer & Nation, 1993). The notion is useful when we are concerned with vocabulary size in a reading textbook. The 2,000 most frequent words on the BNC HFWL include 2,000 base forms, their inflected forms and derivatives, thereby making a total of 11,941 different words (types). Finally, to assess the vocabulary levels of the six GE textbooks, the RANGE computing program was run each time against one of the following three base word lists, using the same counting units, word types and word families: (1) AWL 570, (2) BNC HFWL 1st-14th 1000, and (3) the basic words by the Ministry of Education.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to Coxhead (2000), the 570 academic word families account for approximately 10% of the tokens in academic texts. The middle column in Table 2, which shows the AWL occurrence in tokens and in percentage, addresses the first research question, “What percentage of the words in a General English reading textbook does Coxhead’s (2000) Academic Word List cover?”

The top textbooks of higher AWL coverage were Active Skills for Reading 3 (5.32% in tokens; 12.47 % in types), and Select Readings high-intermediate (4.63% in tokens; 12.29% in types). These two books were labeled by the publishers as suitable for high-intermediate and advanced EFL learners. Access Reading 3 for low-intermediate learners had the lowest AWL coverage, with 2.32% coverage counted in tokens and 4.82% in types. It was observed that the higher AWL coverage and the higher-level GE textbooks bore some relationship to each other, which can be justified as advanced textbooks are meant to teach advanced vocabulary and to expand students’ vocabulary breadth. Similarly, it is not disappointing to find that basic GE textbook contained little academic vocabulary since lower-level books serve other purposes in language learning.

Table 2: The AWL coverage of GE textbooks

General English Textbooks	Number of words	AWL occurrence in tokens/ %	AWL occurrence in types/ %	AWL occurrence in families
Active Skills for Reading 3	18,798	1000/ 5.32%	444/ 12.47%	270
Select Reading high intermediate	15,277	472/4.63%	280/ 12.29%	266
Select Readings-intermediate	10,204	609/ 3.99%	371/ 11.00%	211
Concepts & Comments- reading 4	15,383	607/ 3.95%	303/ 10.85%	202
Reading Challenge 2	8,541	298/ 3.69%	118/ 7.20%	91
Access Reading 3	6,209	237/ 2.32%	102/ 4.82%	69

Given the assumption that the 570 interdisciplinary academic words are all new to college freshmen, Table 3 demonstrates that the academic lexical items that can be learnt by using one of the six GE textbooks range from as little as 49 to as much as 415 word families. This result produces an overall picture of the amount of academic vocabulary a student will be equipped with after taking a GE course for one year.

Coxhead (2000) suggested that the Academic Word List containing 570 word families could be used to set vocabulary learning goals for GE courses as a launch pad for further English for academic purposes programs. For instance, if 50% of the headwords in the AWL are expected to be taught within an academic year, then a GE

textbook should ideally include at least 285 predominantly academic words. If properly selected or managed, a GE textbook can contribute to the goal of academic vocabulary learning.

To answer Research Question 2 it was decided that the 2000 word list can serve as the computing basis for analysis, since it represents the average level of a college freshman’s vocabulary capacity in accordance to the requirement of Iran’s Ministry of Education.

Table 3: Text coverage by the 2000 word list

Level	GE Textbooks	2000 word list %coverage (in tokens)
high intermediate	Active Skills for Reading 3	85.70 %
high intermediate	Select Readings-high intermediate	85.54 %
intermediate	Select Readings-intermediate	89.10 %
intermediate	Concepts & Comments 4	90.18 %
low-intermediate	Reading Challenge 2	88.67 %
low-intermediate	Access Reading 3	91.21 %

The table shows that how much of the vocabulary in a GE textbook will be familiar to the learner and how many words the learner may not know.

Table 4: Text coverage by TBEWL 2000 across GE textbooks

GE Textbook	2000 word list		Not in the 2000 word list		Total	
	tokens/ %	types/ %	tokens/ %	types/ %	tokens	types
Active Skills for Reading 3	16110/ 85.70	1999/ 56.15	2688/ 14.30	1561/ 43.85	18798	3560
Select Readings high intermediate	13068/ 85.54	1848/ 54.77	2209/ 14.46	1526/ 45.23	15277	3374
Concepts & Comments4	13059/ 84.89	1671/ 59.83	2324/ 15.11	1122/ 40.17	15383	2793
Select Readings intermediate	9092/ 89.10	1487/ 65.28	1112/ 10.90	791/ 34.72	10204	2278
Access Reading 3	7790/ 91.21	1172/ 78.34	751/ 8.97	324/ 21.66	8541	1496
Reading Challenge 2	5949/ 88.67	1226/ 74.85	760/ 11.33	412/ 25.15	6709	1638

For example, 7,790 of the running words in Access Reading 3 were in the 2000 word list, while 751 tokens were not. These 751 occurrences involving 324 different words (types) could possibly be college freshmen’s new words. By and large, if a college student reads all the texts of a GE course book within an academic year, he/she would come across 324–4,003 new words beyond the 2,000-word level, appearing in different types. This implies that the vocabulary learning goals subject to the selection of a GE textbook are quite wide-ranging. By learning vocabulary at the rate of 162 new headwords (and hence their family members) per academic year over the college course of four years, it does not seem likely that students can achieve the 5,000-word threshold level as proposed by Laufer (1997).

If Nation’s (2001) estimate that native speakers read about 10-12 books per year to acquire 1,000 words is correct, then setting the vocabulary goal 2001 new words for one GE textbook, to be learnt within one year, would be akin to ‘building castles in the air’. In view of this, the vocabulary size of a textbook cannot be ignored and should be taken into account from the start, at the onset of syllabus design.

The vocabulary level of a GE textbook

Vocabulary levels were defined as the number of words counted from the top of BNC HFWL accounting for 95% of the running words in that textbook if we accept the assumption of 95% text coverage as the minimum for successfully guessing meanings from context and gaining reasonable comprehension. As mentioned previously, there are fourteen 1,000-word bands created from the British National Corpus in the RANGE program. Thus, the

BNC HFWL was used to identify the division among the diverse vocabulary levels contained within the GE textbooks. The text coverage of each 1,000-word band in the target textbook was calculated by counting the number of 1,000-word bands needed until the total coverage reached 95%.

Table 5: Vocabulary levels of the GE Textbooks measured by the BNC HFWL 1st-14th 1000 at the accumulated text coverage reaching 95%

GE Textbook	Book Level	Vocabulary Level
Active Skills for Reading 3	high-intermediate	3,000-3,500
Select Readings high intermediate	high-intermediate	4,000-4,500
Select Readings-intermediate	Intermediate	2,500-3,000
Concepts & Comments 4	Intermediate	4,000
Reading Challenge 2	low-intermediate	3,000-3,500
Access Reading 3	low-intermediate	2,500-3,000

There are two apparent exceptions in Table 5 with regard to the book level claimed by the publishers and the vocabulary level measured by the BNC HFWL 1st-14th 1,000. The intermediate GE textbook, Select Readings-intermediate, had a vocabulary level of 2500-3000 words which is counter to the general expectations on the range of the number of words in intermediate books and so low. This book at the intermediate level actually had more middle- and low-frequency English words. By contrast, the advanced Active Skills for Reading 3 had a denser distribution of words, 3,000-3,500. This shows that it is possible to select an advanced-level GE textbook with a lower vocabulary level. The discrepancies in vocabulary levels among GE textbooks imply that textbook authors may not apply the same standard in their selection of words while writing their teaching materials for the publishers. It can also be ascribed to the fact that articles in textbooks for different reading purposes may involve different levels of difficulty. Some low-frequency words appear more frequently in a certain genre or subject matter and can function as technical words in certain fields. This echoes Nation's (2001) remark that "one person's technical vocabulary is another person's low-frequency word" (p. 20). By the same token, some vocabulary presumed difficult by some authors may be considered easy by others.

CONCLUSION

General English textbooks are supposed to play roles in vocabulary learning in a number of ways. The present corpus-based study is a try to discuss the roles in question. To sum up, Coxhead's (2000) 570 academic word families account for 1.3% – 6.54% of the total words in a General English textbook, and up to 407 interdisciplinary academic words can be learnt from a GE reading textbook. GE textbook containing more readings for academic purposes are suggested in cases that academic vocabulary learning is the goal.. The other very important factor to consider, when choosing college GE textbooks, is the appropriateness of book levels. If a learner's vocabulary is small, s/he may not enjoy reading due to the enormous vocabulary load. The opposite case is also true, in that, if a learner has large vocabulary knowledge, as learning gains may be small due to the few number of new words available in the text, the task of reading would become so boring to them. As a consequence, more thought should be given to the selection of a GE textbook. Not knowing students' vocabulary capacity in advance, a college professor may choose GE textbooks based on their intuition or publishers' claims, which might lead to the above mentioned problems. So, it seems necessary that the students be placed in the proper class level by an appropriate proficiency placement test so that it would become possible for the teachers to select an English textbook for general purposes with an appropriate level of reading difficulty. In relation to the topics and articles they contain, GE textbooks offer texts of varying vocabulary levels. In the present research, the book levels claimed by the publishers did not seem to coincide with their vocabulary levels in a few instances. This finding may be helpful in raising teachers' awareness of the importance of considering the vocabulary level when choosing an English textbook. They should treat the book level claimed by the publishers with caution. Apart from this awareness, it is also crucial to set vocabulary goals at a reasonable size and level for the course of study.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although this research focused on the vocabulary component of the General English textbooks, by no means does it imply that vocabulary size, levels and lexical coverage are exclusive factors in selecting a GE book for class use and vocabulary is not the only component of an English course. Other parameters such as syntax and content area knowledge may be worth investigating but were beyond the focus of the current study. For the purpose of data triangulation, further research might achieve further findings through a qualitative analysis of students' perception toward language textbooks in relation to vocabulary load and reading difficulty. It would also be interesting to examine how a textbook can be used and how books within one series may provide a pathway for language development.

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**ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS AND CULTURAL ATTITUDES OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS:
INVESTIGATING A RELATIONSHIP**

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at examining the relationship between English Textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL (English as a foreign language) learners whose English proficiency was intermediate and above. To this end, Top Notch and Interchange series were selected as two of the widely used English textbooks in Iran as an EFL context. The afore- mentioned textbooks were analyzed to extract all the possible cultural issues embedded within the units. The questionnaire which was employed in this study was a test of cultural attitudes by Ashraf, Motallebzadeh and Kafi (2013) which checked the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners. This test was validated by two experts in the field, also its reliability, using Cronbach's Alpha, was estimated to be (.870). The questionnaire was administered to 210 EFL learners of English. Afterwards the relation between these learners' English proficiency and the extent to which their cultural attitudes had changed was also investigated. For measuring the probable relation, Chi Square test as well as cross tabulation were run for analysis of the obtained data. The results exhibited a significant relation between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners.

KEY WORDS: Textbooks, Cultural Attitudes, EFL Learners

INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, there seems to be a widespread attention and research done regarding textbooks including their contents and effects. Generally Speaking, nearly all students seem to refer to and use the ideas they come across in their course books within their daily lives. Actually, it sounds that learners are under the influence of the textbooks they study during each school year and as a matter of fact they learn many issues e.g. social, religious, and cultural as well as linguistic ones. Therefore, it is asserted that the totality of language learning comprises three integrated components: linguistic, cultural, and attitudinal (Wilkes, 1983).

There have also been interesting ideas and beliefs regarding the relevance of culture and cognitive ability by some scientists including Tylor (1874). He has made an assumption that has won general acceptance and that is the fact that there is an intimate connection between socio-cultural progress and mental progress.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Role of Culture in Intercultural Competence

This section discusses some of the arguments posited in support of developing second language learners' intercultural competence. This is in line with globalization where second language learners are increasingly exposed to the global community in which English plays a role as an international bridge.

Puente (1997) asserts that "language reflects and affects culture" forming a "dynamic relation" or intrinsic link. In relation to this, Iranian English language learners need to learn about the target language culture together with

Persian culture in order to communicate effectively, achieving communicative competence. Communicative competence is not possibly achieved without cultural understanding, as it is the core of language acquisition. A learner then avoids all the pitfalls of cultural misunderstanding or ignorance which leads to the breakdown of communication. In addition to communication, learners who are said to have acquired a language are those who are able to align themselves with the culture of the target language. They can also think in the target language thus enabling them to identify with the language by capturing the essence of the language (Tang, 1999).

Culture and ELT

As Prodromou (1992; as cited in Sardi, 2002) states, the learner's attitude toward the target culture has an impact upon the acquisition of the language. A positive attitude toward the target language culture, i.e. respecting other people and their way of life, is a factor in language learning that leads to cross cultural understanding. Before students can learn about culture they must be receptive to the concept of learning about cultures other than their own. According to Karimpour (2000), negative attitude, i.e. viewing everything through the eyes of our own culture and its values, usually emerges either through false stereotyping or undue ethnocentrism. English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' negative attitudes toward second language (L2) culture may lead to decreased motivation and interaction, and because of decreased L2 input and interaction it may lead to unsuccessful attainment of L2 proficiency.

Lado (1988) has divided unhealthy attitudes into two groups: 1) "pedantic cultural attitude" 2) "quaint nativism attitude" (Tsai Yu-Hsin, 2001, p.7). He believes that these two phenomena are commonly found among students encountering a foreign culture. According to this author, those who have pedantic culture attitudes consider the second or foreign language as the only correct or prestigious way to view the world and differences between this culture (L2 culture), and another language and culture are indicators that the other is incorrect or inferior. On the other hand, those who have adopted a "quaint nativism attitude" consider everything in native culture as more beautiful, interesting, desirable and correct than in second or foreign culture. Both of these attitudes are neither proper nor healthy and can result in cultural misunderstanding (Tsai Yu-Hsin, 2001).

Consequently, what seems to be of great importance is the fact that the study of different cultures aids students in getting to know different people. This knowledge is necessary for understanding and respecting other nations and their ways of life. Kincheloe and Staley (1985) highlight the significance of cultural awareness: first, cultural awareness makes students less fearful and prepares them to deal with different people and places. Second, it allows for the possibility of increased tolerance. Third, as students see themselves and their own cultures more objectively, feelings of ethnocentrism and self-righteousness are decreased or avoided.

Opposing Views on the Cultural Content of EFL Courses

There are indications that some ELT course books focusing on the target culture have an alienating effect on students who do not want to be culturally assimilated and, as a consequence, give up learning the language (Gray, 2000). On the other hand, it is not uncommon for many students to become alienated from their own social and cultural settings as they become adjusted to the value system of the Anglo-American world. Many educators in Asian and African countries have expressed their concern for the status of their native culture and language in relation to the cultural content of ELT materials developed for global use (ibid.).

These problems with the cultural influence of English on other societies have led to the suggestion that an ideologically, politically and culturally neutral form of English should be promoted in ELT. It is argued that English, as an international language utilized for communication purposes would make it possible for nonnative speakers to retain their own cultural characteristics as much as possible (Jenkins, 2000). Another suggestion is that, instead of focusing entirely on the culture of the target language, it is more beneficial to take a cross-cultural approach to EFL teaching. According to Prodromou (1992), for example, the development of students' cross-cultural awareness is of vital importance because in this way they will become more sensitive to the world's many cultural systems and will care more about the world they live in.

Textbooks and Culture

A discussion on textbooks is inevitable in light of the arguments advocating the infusion of culture in EFL education. The significance of textbooks is seen in the many roles textbooks play in facilitating the second language teaching and learning process in the classroom. Textbooks across the world are of different cultural orientations; whether they are based on source cultures, target culture or international target cultures. Source cultures refer to learners' own culture, target culture is the culture in which the target language is used as a first language while international target

cultures refer to various cultures in English, or non-English-speaking countries which use English as an international language. (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; as cited in Norhana & Sanda, 2011).

Related Studies

There have been similar studies carried out with regard to both or one of the variables. For example, Ashraf, Motallebzadeh, & Kafi (2013), investigated the EFL learners' attitudes through the analysis of Interchange and American file series. They also checked these EFL learners' attitudes towards using localized textbooks instead of the original ones. The results indicated that EFL learners prefer using original English textbooks instead of the localized ones. Moreover, all these learners' cultural attitudes have been affected by the mentioned textbooks. Rajabi and Ketabi (2012) investigated the aspects of cultural elements in prominent English textbooks for EFL setting. The results indicated that the pragmatic (sociolinguistic) occurrences are quite predominant probably because the forms and functions of language such as, to offer, to clarify and to request are included in almost all the chapters.

Abdollahzadeh and Baniasad (2010) also conducted a research on ideologies in the imported English textbooks: EFL learners and teachers' awareness and attitude. Studying the results and from the total frequencies, it can be concluded that *Spectrum VI* (total frequency: 58) has the most ideologies. Comparing frequencies, one can observe that the higher the level of a textbook, the more frequent the ideologies. Further consumerism and sexism were found to be the most common ideological prompts across all these imported textbook series.

Making a comparison between the students' native culture and foreign language culture is a new issue in the field of language teaching. Some writers (Kramersch, 1993; Baker, 2003; Valdes, 1986) consider both cultures to be closely related to each other. They state that mother language culture plays a role that promotes better understanding of the foreign culture. For instance, Kramersch (1993) argues that in a foreign culture, we construe events by contrast and analogy with our own culture, as well as by contrast and analogy with the foreign culture. She reveals that: "by constructing both their own and the foreign values, by organizing and extending the range of convenience of these constructs, students can find bridges to other culture, anticipate foreign events and discover alternatives to their own cultural patterns" (p.437). She also suggests that before we make L2 students understand the attitudes and values of a foreign culture, we have to make them aware of their own attitudes and values in interpreting a foreign event.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It seems that textbooks are at the heart of crucial innovations occurring within the educational systems, therefore, they need to be studied thoroughly in order to inform any further changes the stakeholders may deem useful and needed. Besides, their impact in the EFL context should be investigated through more researches because for the EFL learners, the textbook becomes the major source of contact they have with the language apart from the input provided by the teacher.

Consequently, it has repeatedly been emphasized by many researchers and scientists including Hutchinson and Torres (1994) that textbooks are universal elements of English language teaching and that it seems no teaching learning situation is complete unless the relevant textbook is provided. Moreover, it seems that there is an opposing view regarding the cultural content of EFL courses (Widdowson, 1990; as cited in Sardi, 2002). He stated that English teaching should be carried out independently of its cultural context. Instead, familiar contexts seem more suitable to be inserted within the textbooks. It is obvious that every language has a setting in which people who speak it belongs to a race or races and "language doesn't exist apart from culture" (Sapir, 1970).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To address the above mentioned problem, the researchers tried to answer the following questions:

- Q1. Is there any significant relationship between studying English textbooks and probable changes in cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners?
- Q2. Is there any significant relationship between English Proficiency and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

To avoid subjectivity the researchers propose the following null hypothesis:

HO1. There is not any significant relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners.

HO2. There is not any significant relationship between English proficiency and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

An important point motivating a work in this area is the status of English textbooks in Iran and particularly among English teachers and the vast community of students. In other words, so many budgets are allocated to buying and providing the useful English commercial textbooks in the market. Therefore, getting to know about the attitude and the outlook these teachers and students might have towards the English textbooks which are widely used in Iran, would be of great benefit for teachers in finding the appropriate teaching materials as well as textbook writers and curriculum developers.

Many teachers and school authorities believe that there are different factors involved in the Iranian students' achievement in English language (Azizifar, Koosha & Lotfi, 2010). One of these factors may refer to the culture which is directly mentioned or implied in the various exercises included in the textbooks which results in the probable change in the EFL learners' attitudes towards a foreign language. Moreover, if we look meaningfully at what culture means, we would come up with the fact that culture is an inseparable part of societal life that cannot be ignored easily (Alptekin, 1993; as cited in Sardi, 2002).

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In order to collect the required data, a sample of 210 intermediate and above intermediate male (89) and female (121) EFL students who had recently finished studying these levels at language schools in Iran participated in this study. The majority of the participants (106) had an age range of 21 to 30 years old and the rest were under 20 and half of the participants (50%) had B.A. degree. The majority of the participants had studied Interchange series or Top Notch series as the main required textbook at the institute. In order to control the probable effects of other factors on the learners' cultural attitudes, two control questions were included to the end of the first section of the questionnaire, to which 15 learners had answered positively and as a result they were excluded from the study at first place. All these intermediate learners had spent a minimum amount of two years studying English.

Instrumentation

The elicited instrument used in this study was a researcher made questionnaire i.e. an Acculturation test by Ashraf, Motallebzadeh and Kafi (2013).

Acculturation Test

The questionnaire which was employed in this study was a test of cultural attitudes by Ashraf, Motallebzadeh and Kafi (2013) which checked the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards the cultural elements embedded within the English textbooks. In order to design the questionnaire, the researchers had analyzed some prominent English textbooks with regard to the cultural issues. The result was the exclusion of 65 cultural elements from the mentioned textbooks. In order to validate the questionnaire, two experts in the field were asked to check and give comments on the items included in the questionnaire, and as a result 15 items were excluded from the total amount of questions. As for the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha was run through SPSS and the estimated reliability turned out to be 0.870. The questionnaire consisted of 44 items and was a five-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) "strongly agree" to (5) "no idea". The time allotted for answering the questionnaire was estimated to be 15 minutes. The questionnaire included items, which measured the cultural attitudes such as; I like western music more than Iranian ones, I enjoy it if some information about western celebrities be included in textbooks or In my free time, I prefer to do other kinds of entertainments including music, rather than reading books. The questionnaire is included in the appendix.

Procedure

In this study, the researchers investigated the probable relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners. To this end, the date and time were arranged with the institutes in order to be able to administer the questionnaire to intermediate or above intermediate EFL learners. Prior to administering the questionnaire in intermediate classes, the researchers made sure about the English background of participants and

their level of proficiency by checking the placement test they had taken when entering the institute. This placement test was a validated test designed and used by the institute in order to specify the learners' level of proficiency. The institute requires all the learners to take this test prior to registration and beginning the language course. Finally, an interview was run in order to check the EFL learners' attitudes towards studying English and its probable effects on their cultural attitudes.

Data collection started in March 2013 and finished in May 2013. When data collection was over, the results were analyzed using SPSS, Correlation, Cross tabulation and Chi square test, and then they were discussed in the teaching and learning context e.g. what is the probable effect of English textbooks and what could be its probable implications in the EFL context.

DATA ANALYSIS

Considering the first research question i.e. is there any significant relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of Iranian EFL learners, Cross tabulation, and Chi square test were employed to check whether learners' cultural attitudes have changed or not. The results of the analysis are shown in table 1.

Table 1: Books * Sum Ranks Cross tabulation

			Sum Ranks				Total
			Strongly Affected	Affected	Lees Affected	Not Affected	
books	Interchange	Count	24	79	20	0	123
		% within books	19.5%	64.2%	16.3%	.0%	100.0%
		% within Sum Ranks	60.0%	61.2%	50.0%	.0%	58.6%
		% of Total	11.4%	37.6%	9.5%	.0%	58.6%
	Top Notch	Count	16	50	20	1	87
		% within books	18.4%	57.5%	23.0%	1.1%	100.0%
		% within Sum	40.0%	38.8%	50.0%	100.0%	41.4%
		Ranks					
		% of Total	7.6%	23.8%	9.5%	.5%	41.4%
	Total	Count	40	129	40	1	210
% within books		19.0%	61.4%	19.0%	.5%	100.0%	
% within Sum		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Ranks							
	% of Total	19.0%	61.4%	19.0%	.5%	100.0%	

The way data is explained according to the Cross tabulation table, is based on the differences in the scores participants have gained on the questionnaire, which put them under four different categories which moved from "Strongly Affected to Not Affected".

Table 1 exhibits that 123 (58.6 percent) of the total participants of this research had studied Interchange series in their process of language learning, out of which 24 (19.5%) were 'strongly affected' by Interchange books, 79 (64.2%) were 'affected', 20 (16.3%) were 'less affected' and there were no results found in the last group. This indicates that all and all, Interchange series 'affect' the EFL learners' cultural attitudes.

The second part of the table focuses on the results obtained from those participants (87 = 41.4 %) who had studied Top Notch series as their major English textbook. Out of the mentioned participants 16 (18.4%) were 'strongly affected' by Top Notch books, 50 (57.5%) were 'affected', 20 (23%) were 'less affected' and there was only one person who was not affected by the American File series (1.1%). Once again the results show that English textbooks affect learners' cultural attitudes. And it is also revealed that Interchange series had greater popularity as well as influence on the learners' cultural attitudes.

To check whether the results were significant or not Chi Square test was run and the results are exhibited in table 2.

Table 2: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.037 ^a	3	.386
Likelihood Ratio	3.371	3	.338
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.306	1	.253
N of Valid Cases	210		

According to Chi-Square table, the Pearson Chi-Square value is 3.037. Its Asymp. Sig (two-sided) is .386 which is smaller than 0.05. Thus, there is a significant relationship between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners.

To sum up, as the analysis of the result exhibited, the null hypothesis i.e. there is not any significant relation between English textbooks and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners was rejected. And it was found that both these books have had a significant impact on EFL learners' cultural attitudes. In a similar study carried out by Csilla Sárdi (2002), the researcher came up with the idea that learners have got a positive view point towards learning English and also the fact that the cultural issues of English as foreign language is conveyed into its textbooks (Interchange series) were also previously proved by another study by Zarei and Khalessi (2011). To answer the second research question, i.e. whether there is a significant relation between English proficiency and the cultural attitudes of EFL learners, Chi square test as well as cross-tabulation were used. The results are shown in table 3.

Table 3: English Proficiency * Sum Ranks Cross tabulation

		Sum Ranks					Total
		Strongly Affected	Affected	Lees Affected	Not Affected		
English Proficiency	excellent	Count	9	13	1	1	24
		% within English Proficiency	37.5%	54.2%	4.2%	4.2%	100.0%
		% within Sum Ranks	22.5%	10.1%	2.5%	100.0%	11.4%
		% of Total	4.3%	6.2%	.5%	.5%	11.4%
	very good	Count	15	32	8	0	55
		% within English Proficiency	27.3%	58.2%	14.5%	.0%	100.0%
		% within Sum Ranks	37.5%	24.8%	20.0%	.0%	26.2%
		% of Total	7.1%	15.2%	3.8%	.0%	26.2%
	good	Count	15	47	17	0	79
		% within English Proficiency	19.0%	59.5%	21.5%	.0%	100.0%
		% within Sum Ranks	37.5%	36.4%	42.5%	.0%	37.6%
		% of Total	7.1%	22.4%	8.1%	.0%	37.6%
average	Count	0	33	11	0	44	
	% within English Proficiency	.0%	75.0%	25.0%	.0%	100.0%	
	% within Sum Ranks	.0%	25.6%	27.5%	.0%	21.0%	
	% of Total	.0%	15.7%	5.2%	.0%	21.0%	
weak	Count	1	4	2	0	7	
	% within English Proficiency	14.3%	57.1%	28.6%	.0%	100.0%	
	% within Sum Ranks	2.5%	3.1%	5.0%	.0%	3.3%	
	% of Total	.5%	1.9%	1.0%	.0%	3.3%	
too weak	Count	0	0	1	0	1	
	% within English Proficiency	.0%	.0%	100.0%	.0%	100.0%	
	% within Sum Ranks	.0%	.0%	2.5%	.0%	.5%	
	% of Total	.0%	.0%	.5%	.0%	5%	
Total	Count	40	129	40	1	210	
	% within English Proficiency	19.0%	61.4%	19.0%	.5%	100.0%	
	% within Sum Ranks	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	19.0%	61.4%	19.0%	.5%	100.0%	

As the cross tabulation table exhibits, the EFL learners' English proficiency was categorized based on six groups ranging from "excellent to too weak". The researchers discussed three groups which contained the most number of participants. Based on table 6, 24 (11.4%) of the participants had an 'excellent' English proficiency out of which 13 (54.2%) were placed in the second group i.e. 'affected' by the afore-mentioned textbooks. Those whose English proficiency was 'very good' were about 55 (26.2%) out of which 32 participants (58.2%) were 'affected' by the cultural attitudes embedded in the textbooks. Finally, the group which included the most number of participants was the third 'good' which numbered around 79 (37.6%). Among these learners, 47 (59.5%) were 'affected' by the English textbooks. Finally, In order to check the significance of the results, Chi Square test was run and the results are depicted in table 4.

Table 4: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.173 ^a	15	.004
Likelihood Ratio	37.185	15	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	13.948	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	210		

As the results in table 4 depicts, the Chi Square value was 33.173 Which was bigger than the P. value (.004) , so there was a meaningful and significant relation between English proficiency and the change in cultural attitudes. To sum up, as the analysis of the results indicate, the second null hypothesis i.e. there is not any significant relation between English textbooks and the English proficiency of EFL learners is rejected. Finally we can assume that English textbooks bring about the change in the cultural attitudes of EFL learners in general and those who possess a good English proficiency in particular.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Based on what the researchers could shed light on during the data analysis phase of the study, it was proved that English textbooks, Interchange and Top Notch series, have had a significant impact on learners' cultural attitudes. Besides, it was also stated that EFL learners were more in favor of Interchange series rather than American File series.

Moreover, those who had a good English proficiency were more affected than those whose English proficiency was about average, weak or even too weak. This is an indicating factor that those EFL learners who have a good mastery over English and can go beyond the linguistic features of a foreign language i.e. the cultural elements, possessed a more significant change in attitudes compared to those who did not. Fairclough (1989; as cited in Zarei & Khalessi, 2011) believes that "language is not an independent construct but a social institution that creates and is created by certain forces and structures forming our functions in the society. Thus, learning a foreign language is a particular way of assimilating into a complex system of categorized experiences, thoughts, behaviors, and modes of interaction of certain people".

Above all, through the analysis of the Interchange and Top Notch series in this study, overall, the results indicate that textbooks are artifacts, which are strongly grounded in cultural assumptions and biases. This is partly because English language has gained a world-wide lingua franca status, whose non-native speakers already outnumber native speakers. Following this line of thought, McKay (2004) and Kachru (1986; as cited in Zarei & Khalessi, 2011) suggest that English as an International Language needs to describe one's own culture and concerns to others rather than being linked to the culture of those who speak it.

To sum up, exposing students to aspects of any foreign language is not as harmful as what Iranians believe in. The researchers came up with some cases in which the learners' cultural attitudes have changed for the better not for the worse. Moreover, this cultural awareness helps learners decide and grow a thorough outlook towards people in other communities and afterwards decide upon the best cultural features of each. All and all, the results of this study could

be of great benefit for ministry of education as well as all those who have a role in providing the foundation and basis for learning English as a foreign language. They can think of developing textbooks in which a mixture of both native and target culture are depicted so that a balance between the two are maintained. Moreover, textbook writers, practitioners as well as curriculum developers should bear in mind the crucial role textbooks play in an EFL teaching learning context. Careful attention and awareness is also deemed necessary on the part of those EFL teachers as the ones who have the responsibility of carrying over the linguistic as well as non-linguistic features of a textbook (in this context the cultural elements).

Other studies are also suggested to investigate the role of English teachers in an EFL context along with the textbooks. Besides, in this study, those who watched original English movies more than six hours per week and also the ones who chatted with a native speaker were excluded from the available data, thus another research can be done to compare the effects of media on cultural attitudes with the effect of textbooks.

(DE)LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Like any other researches, some inevitable (De)limitations, which may raise new questions for further researches in the same field in the future, will be imposed on. First of all, variables such as age and personal variables are not taken into account. However, the most important restriction in this study is the fact that nearly all words, pictures and sentences that seemed to be against the cultural values of Iran were censored at first place. Consequently, we would doubt about the extent English textbooks may influence the cultural attitudes of Iranian learners in the absence of all those illustrations and wordings which seem to be related to western cultural issues.

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THE ANALYSIS OF THE DISCOURSE LAYERS: THE CASE OF THE ROTTEN FENCE

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ABSTRACT

This paper aimed to scrutinize discourse layers in a written narrative. The narrative selected for the sake of discourse layers analysis was *The Rotten Fence* by PL, which was randomly selected from the database in Hatch and Hawkins (1991). Having been selected, the narrative was analyzed through the use of the proposed methods for classification of discourse layers including Mann and Thompson's (1989) rhetorical structure theory, Schank and Abelson's (1977) script theory, Labov's (1972) evaluation components, Tannen's (1985) and Chafe's (1982) involvement features, Schegloff and Sack's (1973) conversational analysis, Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesive devices, Goffman's (1976) universal system components as well as Labov and Waletzky's (1967) narrative structure components. In this analysis, the discourse was investigated by the application of such categories as linguistic and cognitive processes, social, linguistic, and cognitive processes, and linguistic and cognitive templates, respectively. The findings of the study revealed that in this discourse as well as many other discourses there are multilayers of discourse features superficially not evident. The findings also proved that some elements are absent in some discourses while some are clear and more colorful. Looking at the narrative analyzed, it would undoubtedly be apparent that language is a structured social, cognitive, and linguistic enterprise by the application of layered analysis.

KEYWORDS: Discourse Layers, Narrative, Ideational Functions, Interpersonal Functions, Textual Functions.

INTRODUCTION

Generally speaking, Cameron (2001) defines discourse analysis as the study of language looked at communicatively and/or of communication looked at linguistically, involving reference to concepts of language in use, language above or beyond the sentence level, language as meaning in interaction, and finally language in situational and cultural context.

He argued that when one analyzes the layers of a given narrative, one particularly contributes to this activity consciously, systematically, deliberately, and, to some extent, objectively so as to generate descriptions, interpretations, and explanations of what his/her analysis has unraveled.

As far as discourse analysis is concerned, because of its diverse use in many disciplines and the work of different scholars, it can be assumed to be a multidisciplinary field with a wide range of interests. The reason why discourse analysis has such a vital role in applied linguistics and also the reason why the bulk of the work recently done on the development of theory and practice of discourse analysis may be traced back to this fact that the study of language in use is considered to be a goal and means of education and an instrument of social control and change, which, in turn, is the principal concern of applied linguists. In addition to applied linguists, some scholars of other fields such as sociology, psychology, and psychotherapy, have contributed to do research on this issue.

To scratch beneath the surface of discourse layers in any written or spoken narrative, linguists deploy three categories of methods which are, in turn, subdivided into smaller categories. These three main groups embrace: (a) The category which is demonstrative of structure as evolving from socially and cooperatively built communication, (b) The category that is a testimony to text structure to be the result of speakers' or writers' intents or goals, and finally (c) The category that clarifies the structure as properties of the text. The analysis of layers of discourse intends to make clear the connections between discourse practices and social practices and structures, connections abstruse to greenhorns. Some practitioners consider language in use as concurrently functioning ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions. While the first refers to the background knowledge of the speakers or writers about the surroundings and the phenomena happening there, the second epitomizes the speakers or writers' own attitudes and evaluations about the phenomena under investigation and, thus, creates a relationship between speakers and listeners or writers and readers. Textual function of language, influential to the two earlier functions, enables

speakers or writers to articulate spoken or written texts assimilable by listeners and readers. It empowers people to connect discourse to the co-text (linguistic text) and context (physical and social environment) in which it occurs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a considerable bulk of literature on system in discourse by which different aspects of discourse were triangulated by the application of various methods. Following one of the methods, adopting the units and processes illuminated by that method, would inevitably lead to one specific picture of what discourse is as well as what layers reside the discourse under investigation. Applying various methods would certainly call forth differing pictures since the units and processes had been changed in accordance with the implemented method, each of which adds a new layer to the total picture of discourse in such a way that language users may look at the methods by the eye of doing the same thing although from different perspectives. Neither the intended methods coincide exactly on the other methods, nor does the one seem to be more or less correct than the others. Each of the methods has their own purposes, merits, qualities, and limitations and focuses on different aspects of the discourse under investigation. Some focus on the writer's or speaker's goal of producing such discourse, others on more abstract notions of how discourse and language might be modeled or mapped as a cognitive system, and even others on template or component forms.

To illustrate that the case is true for any given discourse, the various methods were divided into three subcategories encompassing: (a) The first subcategory that would embrace such analyses as Mann and Thompson's (1989) rhetorical structure theory and Schank's (1975) and Schank and Abelson's (1977) script theory. These analyses would depict structures in which they are looked at as something arising out of what writers and speakers select when they write or utter a piece of discourse to meet their intended objectives, (b) The second subcategory would include methods such as Schegloff's (1968, 1979), Labov's (1972) evaluation components, Tannen's (1985) involvement features, Schegloff and Sack's (1973) conversational analysis. In this subcategory, the produced discourse is believed to be what is cooperatively built among and between participants of the interaction, and (c) In the third subcategory, the structures are seen as properties of the text itself. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesive devices, Goffman's (1976) universal system components as well as Labov and Waletzky's (1967) narrative structure components would all fall into this last category. The following might best illustrate this three-way classification:

- A. Linguistic and cognitive processes (In which text structure results from selection/activation based on speakers and writers' goals and intents.)
 - 1. Mann and Thompson's (1989) rhetorical structure analysis
 - 2. Pragmatics of speech acts
 - 3. Celce-Murcia's (1980) contextual analysis
 - 4. Participant cohesion
 - 5. Schank and Abelson's (1977) script analysis
- B. Social, linguistic, and cognitive processes (In which text structure evolves from socially built communication.)
 - 1. Labov's (1972) evaluation components
 - 2. Schegloff and Sack's (1973) conversational analysis
 - 3. Goffman's (1981) ritual constraints; the playing of 'self'
 - 4. Speech event analysis
 - 5. Tannen's (1985) and Chafe's (1982) involvement features
- C. Linguistic and cognitive templates (text characteristics)
 - 1. Labov and Waletzky's (1967) narrative structure components versus Mandlner's (1978) and Rumelhart's (1975) narrative structure components
 - 2. Analysis of differences in features across modes
 - 3. Goffman's (1976) universal system components
 - 4. Levinson's (1983) deictic expressions and Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesive ties
 - 5. Speech act analysis

METHODOLOGY

Material

To do a layered discourse analysis, a written narrative had been randomly selected from the database in

Hatch and Hawkin's (1991), a study of 64 spoken and written narratives, which is by chance the one offered as a practice in the book *Discourse and Language Education* written by Hatch (1992). This story is directly taken from the written stories that are the final, edited versions appearing in a book of short stories produced by the children's Writing Laboratory. The only change to the story was assigning sentence number to the sentences orderly from the first (1) to the last (21). Each sentence starts with a capital letter and ends in a period, exclamation mark, or question mark. It should be reminded that the letter 'e' was added to the word 'bite' to correct the grammatical or typographic mistake (See Appendix A).

Procedure

Through any analysis of discourse layers, each type of analyses has its own goals and can be used for reaching various intents. Throughout this study, different theoretical frameworks had been applied to analyze the narrative under investigation while considering the implications for teaching, cross-cultural understanding, and research. Although, all the theoretical frameworks had not been applied in sequence to the narrative, in this analysis, you might think of what alternative methods of analysis is applicable.

In this study, the researchers used various methods to do the analysis of the written narrative with respect to its layers. In some cases, three PhD candidates expert in discourse analysis were recruited to review and scrutinize the selected narrative. The experts individually analyzed and decided what is/are the function(s) of every specific intended word or stretch of words. Then, cases on which the three experts reached a consensus were considered to be the correct function for the word or stretch of words. While, cases in which the function(s) of every specific intended word or stretch of words could not attract a unanimous agreement were discarded or ignored. But in other cases, the 'word count' facility of Microsoft Office word processor software was used to count exactly how many times one specific word with the intended meaning and/or function occurred.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The following analyses are not complete but simply brief lists of findings relevant to the points raised by each method of discourse analysis. Since the data is from a monologue, some of the analyses will be less revealing than others and each gives valuable information about the data. Let us begin with analyses that fit into the first category – those that describe linguistic and cognitive processes (text structure results from selection/activation based on speakers and writers' goals and intents):

Linguistic and Cognitive Processes

In this group of analysis, text structure results from selection and/or activation of forms based on the speakers or writers' goals and intents.

Rhetorical Structure Analysis

Rhetorical structure analysis as a primarily cognitive processing model, attempts to show what the speaker may reasonably be expected to have had in mind in relating spans of the text. Doing a partial analysis, just looking at this story using Mann and Thompson's (1989) rhetorical structure theory analysis, offers some interesting results. Let us look at how sentences numbered 8 to 10 and their relation to sentence number 7, which briefly discussed the reason why the fence on which the storyteller and his brother sat collapsed. In the first part of the sentence number 7 and second part of the sentence number 17, the reason why *dogs started barking* was stated. There is a relationship between sentence number 11 and 13, the latter is the cause of what happened in the former. Finally the cause of what stated in the sentence number 20 was traced back in sentences number 11 and 12.

Process Cohesion – Participant Tracking

Here, such cohesive ties as pronouns will be looked at in a slightly different way. To answer the question, "*Who is this story about?*", the reference will be traced back. To do this, the ways the storyteller places focus on the major and minor protagonists necessarily should be scrutinized. One way is in the series of temporally ordered clauses. The major protagonist (hero) of the story is usually conceived of as a person who carries out the actions in the foreground; also supposed to have *high agency*. By a brief look at the clauses that occur in the foreground, you will easily find those that have highest transitivity (Hopper & Thompson, 1980), belong to the storyteller (*I*, in this story). In this story, the first person singular (italic in the text) is the storyteller and also the story is about the person. *I* want to tell this story; *I* felt when something scary happened to *me*; *I* was five years old; *I* was very scared; then something happened that changed *my* fear to happiness; *I* was mad at him because he left *me* sitting there crying and wouldn't

help *me*; *I* got scared because the dogs were coming across the fence toward *me*; They had their mouths open as if they were going to bite *me*; *I* was really scared now; *I* relaxed and became happy; The dogs didn't want to bit *me*; *I* felt good because *I* knew everything would be all right and that *I* had two new friends; *my* brother came outside and started laughing at *me*; *I* hit him because *I* was still mad at him for not helping *me*; *I* was mad, scared, and happy.

A quick glance at the first and second sentences would inevitably unravel the fact that the hero here, *I*, has the high agency. Also the fact that the storyteller started the story about himself by first mentioning that *I want to tell this story because this is how I felt when something scary happened to me when I was five years old*. And nowhere in the story, Julian's actions were emphasized. Another way of establishing agency is to count the number of times the major and minor protagonists are mentioned and whether they have agent or patient status (i.e., whether they are the more powerful actors in subject slots or whether they are relatively weak receivers of actions in object slots). In this story, *I* was mentioned as an agent 12 times and as patient 8 times; and *Julian* appeared 2 times as agent along with the pronoun *I* and *He* came 2 times as agent and *him* appeared 3 times in the second half of the story, the appearance of *He* in the second half of the story shows some degree of low agency. Finally it should be mentioned that the pronoun *we* occurred 5 times in the story.

Look at the starting sentences of the story in which the storyteller focused on his role and stated that the story is about his feeling and what happened to him as he was 5 years old and what happened and how his feelings had changed putting himself in the subject slot and Julian in the object slot in the remaining parts of the story.

Script Analysis

The communication that arises from speaker goals and intents was to be modeled by the script analysis. The script form can be clarified by the text that results as the speaker develops plans to meet goals. What scripts would be needed for understanding the storyteller's story, here, *I*? What scripts would we need to program if we wanted a computer to be able to display understanding of the story? At least five scripts would be needed: the home script, the store script, the brotherhood script, neighbor script, dogs' attack script. Some of the components for each are outlined very roughly as follows:

Home script: home has qualities and parts (neighbors, wall, fence, buildings, door, etc.) and also has living things inside (brother, dogs, etc.).

Store script: store sell goods, people buy needed things from the stores, etc.

Brotherhood script: has an emotional relationship, brothers should be loyal to each other, brother should not leave his brother alone in emergency, etc.

Neighbor script: neighbor home has an owner, neighbor has 2 dogs, neighbor's home has a fence, fence should be firm to impede interference to the other side of the fence, etc.

Dogs' attack script: dogs attack to bite or injure people, dogs never lick ice cream, dogs attacked and Julian left the scene, etc.

The cohesive and deictic devices that appear in the text can best be accounted for by the application of these scripts. The ties are seen as arising from the speaker's goals and intents as the storyteller, here *I*, tells the story, rather than as characteristics of the text itself. For example, once the storyteller, *I*, activates and uses the five scripts, his choice of definite and indefinite articles comes from the script. We are not surprised to see definite articles used, for example, 16 times in sentences number 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 13, and 17. Since some neighbors have dogs, their home has fences and yard, and houses also have doors, a definite article can be used before such words as *fence* in sentences number 5 to 9 and also in sentence number 13; *yard* twice in sentence number 5 once with the possessive adjective *our*; *dogs* in sentences number 7, 13, 17; and *house* and *door* once in sentence number 11. The script of neighbors were also such familiar to the listeners that the storyteller used the noun phrases such as the next door neighbor's yard, the neighbors' side of the fence, the dogs, the house, the fence, and the door. Although everyone expects the attacking dogs to bite or injure people, the dogs did not hurt the storyteller and they did something unusual, licking the ice creams that the storyteller and Julian had bought.

In this script analysis, the storyteller's reason or goal for selecting and telling the story is somewhat apparent. The first goal, maybe, was to complete a task set by the teacher and to show himself as a competent storyteller. A more important goal is for the storyteller to establish himself within his social group by telling a story that involves him in the role of a miserable and the lucky person who first fell into the trap of two dogs attacking him and then finding the two dogs as new friends. *The fence fell down* in line 9 presupposes that the fence was heavy, decayed, and badly-located in the ground. In the sentence number 11, *locked the door*, it was presupposed that the door had lock and key to lock and unlock it.

Social, Linguistic, and Cognitive Processes

In this group of analysis, text structure is described as evolving from socially built communication.

Conversational Analysis

In addition to selecting a personal topic, the storyteller used the intonation and the power of the dogs' attack scene rather than evaluation to involve his listeners. The text is amazingly free of repetition, sound effects, direct quotations, stress, and direct evaluation comments. Why the storyteller did not use such devices to entertain and involve his audience is not clear at this point. Given their volubility in responses to many of the other stories, the audience seemed a bit stunned.

In this story, neither general characteristics such as turn-taking or sequence structure nor specific qualities such as asking questions or delivering and receiving news, assessments, or complaints was present. This case of conversational analysis is the institutional encounter where the participants accomplish their institutional tasks through their interaction. This story includes openings and closings of conversations and the general ways in which sequences of action are built, but does not include such features as agreement, disagreement, assessments, storytelling, complaints, questioning and answering practices in cross-examinations, news interviews and press conferences, diagnosis and advice in medical and pedagogical settings, turn-taking, repair (i.e., the ways of dealing with problems of hearing, speaking, or understanding), and the ways in which the participants of interaction manage their relation to the utterances through gaze and body posture. There is not any example of adjacency pairs such as question-answer, greeting-greeting, request-grant/refusal, and invitation-acceptance/declination.

Ritual Constraints and Self

In communication analysis, researchers examine the ways in which the system is manipulated to smooth social interaction and the ways in which deference and demeanor are handled. In narratives, the storyteller's major theme is that of portraying or establishing self in Goffman's (1981, p.573) definition of that term, that is, "not an entity half concealed behind events, but a changeable formula for managing oneself during them". Storytelling may be one of our favorite universal activities, because it allows us to pretend that there is a half-concealed self behind events that we narrate while it also allows us to display self as we manage ourselves in the telling of our thoughts and actions.

Goffman's (1981) ritual constraints as far as they relate to deference and demeanor were discussed. It might be concluded that the storyteller wants to show two half-concealed entities, successively characterizing himself as the helpless person who caught in trouble with the attacking dogs in the opposite side of the rotten and fallen fence and as a lucky person who found two friends when his brother left him in such a bad situation. The storyteller depicted the picture of himself as what narrated in the story. Simultaneously, the storyteller, tried to illustrate that every cloud has a silver lining and some good may come out of any gloomy situation. In the analysis of the storyteller's portrayal of himself as a half-hidden entity, we can see that there are many different storytellers, *I*'s, that the storyteller wish to show:

The storyteller as a hapless boy
The storyteller as a lucky person
The storyteller as a an angry boy

When you read this story for the first time, it seemed that fitting at least one of these portraits was the storyteller's goal or intent in telling this story. However, given our analysis to this point, none of these seem right. In terms of the storyteller, he chose a story, caught in trouble, which seems to be an unlikely source of entertainment for the audience.

Speech Event Analysis

To determine its speech act function, if you concentrate on each utterance in the narrative, you will undoubtedly conclude that it primarily consists of representative speech acts. That is, each gives information that has truth value in the world the storyteller is telling you about. There were a few expressions that give *emotional values* information

(e.g., *I was mad at him because he left me sitting there crying and wouldn't help me* in sentence number 12, *Then I felt good because I knew everything would be all right and that I had two new friends* in sentence number 18, and *I hit him because I was still mad at him for not helping me* in sentence number 20). There are not any directives (commands) in the narrative. And pragmatics of many of speech acts is clear.

It is difficult to determine a speech event structure within the story. If we believe that the storyteller's goal is to complain, or gripe, or share his troubles and joys, it is difficult to see how his story fits the structure that usually results from such events. Complaints are addressed to the trouble source, to persons responsible for the trouble, and a remedy is negotiated. Gripes are brief complaints addressed to persons not responsible for the trouble and sympathetic to the complainer's point of view. The listener is expected to offer sympathy and encouragement or perhaps to reciprocate with similar stories of trouble. At this point, there is little in our analysis of the story that allows us to make a successful match with these three types of *complaint speech events*.

A second possibility is that this is a *dog's attack* speech event. We could look for similarities with *peoples' attack* on each other such as in sports, war, or animals' fight in wild life. The storyteller does indeed use metaphors from fight scripts, and he does show surprising indifferent behavior of his brother Julian. In fact, as the one involved in the trouble of attacking dogs, his intent to play the reporter role seems in doubt.

Linguistic and Cognitive Templates

In the third and last group of analysis, the main concern is clarifying the structure as a template that belongs to, or is the characteristic of the text.

Goffman's (1976) Universal System Components

Goffman's (1976) universal system component analysis encompasses the signals of each of the components which he thinks of them to be universal in the communication, forming the overall template of the communication in total.

Opening and/or Closing Signals

The two following sentences are the opening and closing signaling sentences respectively. "I want to tell this story because this is how I felt when something scary happened to me when I was five years old.", "So in one afternoon, I was mad, scared, and happy." Because in the former sentence, the storyteller signals what he would be going to do and in the latter sentence he concludes his story by using the word "so".

Backchannel, Preempt, and Turn-taking Signals

There is not any case of backchannel, preempt, and turn-taking signals in the narrative cited above because in this story only one person narrated the story and the other participant of the story (Julian) was absent and anyone had interrupted the flow of the story.

Acoustically Adequate and Intelligible Messages

The storyteller did not any repair work to make his message clearer. Also, any clarification questions were not asked by the teacher or students listening to the narrative. So, it can be concluded that the message was clear and assimilable enough for all.

Grice's Conversational (1975) Maxims

The four Grice's (1975) conversational maxims were cleverly met through the flow of the story, from relevancy of the details narrated to quality, quantity, and manner. Since to the best of researchers' knowledge, the storyteller only mentioned details so as to convince listeners.

Cohesion Analysis – Deixis and Cohesive Ties

In linguistics, deixis refers to the phenomenon wherein understanding the meaning of certain words and phrases in an utterance requires contextual information. In this analysis, to clarify how deictic terms and cohesive ties promote coherence, the written narrative by PL would be scrutinized. Deixis is closely related to anaphora, which refers back, and sometimes to cataphora, which refers forward. Although this article deals primarily with deixis in written language, the concept can apply to spoken language, gestures, and communication media as well. While this article

draws examples primarily from English, deixis is believed to be a feature of all natural languages (in a varying range). Possibly the most common categories of contextual information referred to by deixis are those of person, place, and time.

Personal Deixis

Person deixis concerns itself with the grammatical persons involved in an utterance: (a) those directly involved (e.g., the speaker, the addressee), (b) those not directly involved (e.g., over-hearers—those who hear the utterance but who are not being directly addressed), and (c) those mentioned in the utterance. In every written or spoken narration, words, phrases, or pronouns are always used to refer back (anaphoric phrases or words) and forward (cataphoric words). In this narrative story, pronouns as cohesive ties refer back and forward to the characters (I, this, me in sentence number 1; I and my in sentence number 2; my, Julian, and I in sentence number 3; we in sentence number 4; we and our in sentence number 5; two mean looking bulldogs no personal deixis in sentence number 6; we, the dogs, and us in sentence number 7; no personal deixis in sentence number 8; we and it in sentence number 9; Julian and I in sentence number 10; he in sentence number 11; I, him, he, and me in sentence number 12; I, the dogs, and me in sentence number 13; they, their, and me in sentence number 14; I in sentence number 15; I in sentence number 16; the dogs, me, they, and my in sentence number 17; I in sentence number 18; it, my, and me in sentence number 19; I, him, and me in sentence number 20; and finally I in sentence number 21). Throughout the narration there is no case of misunderstanding or reference problem because all the reference words had been used properly to refer their referent.

Temporal Deixis

Time, or temporal, deixis concerns itself with the various times involved in and referred to in an utterance. This includes time adverbs like soon, after, now, then, etc., and also different tenses. A good example is the word *tomorrow*, *today*, which denotes the consecutive next day before and after every day. It was found to be such cases of temporal deixis in the narrative under investigation as: Time clauses and phrases such as (*when* something scary happened to me) and (*when* I was five years old) in sentence number 1; (*then* something happened that ...) in sentence number 2; (*when* my brother, Julian, and I decided ...) in sentence number 3; (*After* we bought the ice cream sundaes, ...) in sentence number 4; (*When* we sat on the fence, ...) in sentence number 7; (*Before* we knew it, ...) in sentence number 9; (*Then* I got scared ...) in sentence number 13; (I was really scared *now*) in sentence number 15; (*Then* I felt good because ...) in sentence number 18; (*When* it was all over, ...) in sentence number 19; (... I was *still* mad at him ...) in sentence number 20; (So *in one afternoon*, ...) in sentence number 21 are all signs of time and the change of time through the narration process. In sentence number 12, the phrase *while I was* is omitted before the phrase (sitting there crying and wouldn't help me). *All of a sudden* meaning suddenly has a connotation of time in sentences number 8 and 16. It should be reminded that verb tense and aspect also depict the order of actions within which the narration happened with regard to the time when the story was narrated.

Spatial Deixis

Place deixis, also known as space deixis, concerns with the spatial locations relevant to an utterance. Like person deixis, the space deixis may be either those of the speaker and addressee or those of persons or objects being referred to. The most salient English examples are here, there, this, and that. In this narrative, the following are cases of place deixis: (... go to *Thrifty's* ...) meaning the place where ice cream was sold belonging to Thrifty in sentence number 3; (... , we went *back home*.) in sentence number 4; (We sat *on the fence* that divided our yard *from the next door neighbor's yard*) in sentence number 5; (...*on the neighbors' side of the fence*.) in sentence number 6; (When we sat *on the fence*, ...) and the dogs started barking *at us* in sentence number 7; (... , the fence fell *down*.) in sentence number 9; (Julian and I both fell *down* hard.) in sentence number 10; (He quickly got *up* and ran *into the house* ...) in sentence number 11; (... he left me sitting *there* crying and ...) in sentence number 12; (... the dogs were coming *across the fence*) and (*toward me*.) in sentence number 13; (... , my brother came *outside*...) in sentence number 19. (All of a sudden the fence started *moving*.) in sentence number 8 has a connotation of direction, moving from one place to another. In phrases such as (When we sat on the fence, the dogs started barking *at us*.) in sentence number 7 and (When it was all over, my brother came outside and started laughing *at me*.) in sentence number 19 connote the word *at* connotes a slight meaning of up to down direction along with the action done by the main verbs, that is, bark and laugh respectively.

Discourse Deixis

Discourse deixis, also referred to as text deixis, refers to the use of expressions within an utterance to refer to parts of the discourse that contains the utterance — including the utterance itself. For example, in the sentence: *This* is a great story. The word *this* refers to an upcoming portion of the discourse, and in the sentence: *That* was an amazing day. The word *that* refers to a prior portion of the discourse. Here are some cases of discourse deixis used in the narrative:

(I want to tell this story *because* ...) in sentence number 1; (I was mad at him *because* ...) in sentence number 12; (Then I got scared *because* ...) in sentence number 13; (Then I felt good *because* ...) in sentence number 18; (I hit him *because* ...) in sentence number 20. But there are other signs of reasons which are implicit such as the reason why (... changed my fear to happiness.) in sentence number 2 implicit in sentence number 2; the reason why (Julian, and I decided to go to Thrifty's ...) in sentence number 3 implicit in sentence number 3; the reason why (... the dogs started barking at us.) in sentence number 7 implicit in sentence number 7; the reason why (Julian and I both fell down hard.) in sentence number 10 implicit in sentences number 8 and 9; the reason why (I was really scared now!) in sentence number 15 implicit in sentences number 13 and 14; the reason why (... I relaxed and became happy.) in sentence number 16 implicit in sentence number 17; (So in one afternoon, I was mad, scared, and happy.) in sentence number 21 implicit in sentences number 1 to 20.

Social Deixis

Social deixis concerns the social information that is encoded within various expressions, such as relative social status and familiarity. Two major forms of it are the so-called T-V distinctions and honorifics. Julian is referred to by the family relation with which holds to the storyteller. Although Julian is not the main character in this story, since their relation was not known by the audience, it was once told at the beginning of the story.

Rhetorical Genre Analysis

The first thing which might be called into question is the fact of distinguishing description from narrative. According to narrative category proposed by Shaughnessy (1977), this story can be considered to be an example of narrative which described what happened in a period of specified time and location to some people (here, storyteller and his brother Julian). In accordance with Shaughnessy's (1977) narrative category, this story is composed of the following four components:

Abstract: the abstract is identified to be the first sentence, that is, *I want to tell this story because this is how I felt when something scary happened to me when I was five years old.*

Orientation: The two protagonists, the storyteller as major and Julian as minor, were introduced in the first and third sentence, respectively.

Resolution: *The fence fell down; Julian and I both fell down hard; and The dogs didn't want to bit me; they only wanted to lick my ice cream sundae.* Based on what went through the preceding sentences, it can be assumed that the resolution was not brought about by the storyteller and his brother Julian but it happened by chance, what is not usual, at least in ordinary life.

Coda: This story lacks coda because nowhere in the story the storyteller brought the listeners including teacher and students out of the story time to here and present.

CONCLUSION

Language is considered to be a system of arbitrary symbols used for human communication and this study aimed at discovering the system in the ways people apply language for the sake of communication in social contexts. The system that comes out of the obtained data revealed that communication is an interlocking social, cognitive, and linguistic enterprise. Although it is common to discuss system in linguistic descriptions of semantics, syntax, and phonology, looking for such a system at the discourse, written or spoken, is still burgeoning. In this study, system in discourse is found to be at hierarchically arranged levels, higher levels including some smaller subcategories. The structures serve to be flexible templates that could be applied to accomplish communicative functions in any given social context.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

With respect to the analysis of the discourse layers, although this research would shed light on the issue, such limitations as lack of good sources available, time limit, and costs would affect the reliability of the data, so these limitations did not allow the researcher to make the ground level in providing a great deal of necessary quantitative and qualitative theoretical and experimental surveys. The data were collected only within a short period of time putting only one written discourse under the microscope, while investigating more written and/or oral discourse(s) might produce delicate results since in such cases especially in oral discourses the researcher(s) would be able to

critically dissect such suprasegmental features as stress, intonation, pauses and so forth. Additionally, it was impossible to conduct more repeated analysis by different experts, while repeated and different analyses would have certainly a more detailed picture of actual situation.

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Appendix A:

The Rotten Fence

By PL

- 1) I want to tell this story because this is how I felt when something scary happened to me when I was five years old.
- 2) Actually, I was very scared, but then something happened that changed my fear to happiness.
- 3) The story began when my brother, Julian, and I decided to go to Thrifty's and buy an ice cream sundae.
- 4) After we bought the ice cream sundaes, we went back home.
- 5) We sat on the fence that divided our yard from the next door neighbor's yard.
- 6) There were two mean looking bulldogs on the neighbors' side of the fence.
- 7) When we sat on the fence, the dogs started barking at us.
- 8) All of a sudden the fence started moving.
- 9) Before we knew it, the fence fell down.
- 10) Julian and I both fell down hard.
- 11) He quickly got up and ran into the house and locked the door.
- 12) I was mad at him because he left me sitting there crying and wouldn't help me.
- 13) Then I got scared because the dogs were coming across the fence toward me.
- 14) They had their mouths open as if they were going to bite me.
- 15) I was really scared now!
- 16) But all of a sudden, I relaxed and became happy.
- 17) The dogs didn't want to bite [the letter 'e' added here] me; they only wanted to lick my ice cream sundae.
- 18) Then I felt good because I knew everything would be all right and that I had two new friends.
- 19) When it was all over, my brother came outside and started laughing at me.
- 20) I hit him because I was still mad at him for not helping me.
- 21) So in one afternoon, I was mad, scared, and happy.

THE EFFECT OF USING MALL ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY LEARNING

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ABSTRACT

This study focused on the impact of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) on Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' vocabulary learning. To carry out the research, 60 Iranian EFL learners, who participated in an international English language testing system (IELTS) preparation course, were selected as the participants of the study. Afterward they were randomly assigned into experimental and comparison groups. A vocabulary test was given to both groups as the pretest. The participants in the experimental group received 150 vocabularies of the General vocabulary for the IELTS book, their definitions and example sentences on a regular basis three times a week via SMS. The participants of the comparison group were provided with the same vocabularies and were asked to learn them with dictionary by themselves. After ten weeks, a vocabulary posttest was administered to both groups. The result indicated that the experimental group outperformed the comparison group leading to the conclusion that the use of MALL had a significantly more effective impact on learners' vocabulary learning.

KEY WORDS: MALL, vocabulary learning, vocabulary teaching

INTRODUCTION

Learning new vocabularies is an important part of learning a new language. According to Nation (2006) learners should know at least 5000 lexical items to understand non-technical English texts. Because of the limited class hours, students do not have the opportunity to speak and use all of the vocabularies in class. This leads to some problems for language teachers and learners. The problem faced a language teacher is how to teach this large number of vocabulary during the limited time of the class. Nation (2005) believed that teachers can teach individual words explicitly, but deliberately teaching vocabulary is one of the least efficient ways of developing learners' vocabulary knowledge. Also learners face a lot of difficulty in the language learning process. They should memorize and learn the large amount of words of the language they are learning. This urges language teachers and researchers to look for alternative ways to traditional classroom teaching of vocabulary and to change vocabulary learning into a lifelong learning which is not limited to the classroom and adapt it to the needs of learners. They should make learning interesting for students and make them responsible for their own learning. One of the ways that can help teachers in teaching vocabulary is using different technologies available to students. Cognitive and socio-cognitive approaches have implication of how to integrate technology in teaching in the communicative trend (Laufer, 1998).

One of the technologies that can be used to help learners in learning a foreign language is mobile phones which are dominant in most students, life. They are not just communication devices anymore. They are useful computers that fit into students, pockets, are always with them and nearly always on, and can be used in any kind of learning (Prensky, 2005). This technology has brought about a new type of language learning called Mobile Assisted Language Learning. As with other forms of technology, mobile assisted language learning (MALL) is a branch of technology-enhanced learning which can be implemented in numerous forms including face-to face, distant or on-line modes. However, different scholars in the field have underscored that MALL should be implemented in the classroom, taking the presence of learners as a paramount factor into consideration. As Colpaert (2004) has rightly argued, before using mobile technologies a learning environment should be fostered. Likewise, Salaberry (2001) has argued against "technology- driven pedagogy" emphasizing the fact that despite their considerable benefits nothing to date has proved that any type of technology can necessarily act better than traditional forms of teaching. Finally, as Beatty (2003) has asserted, "Teachers need to be concerned about investigating time and money in unproven

technology” (p.72). All in all, using any kind of technological device should be accompanied by developing an efficacious type of methodology because these devices are not instructors but rather instructional tools. In a study in Japan Thomson and Houser (2005) examined the use of cell phones in education. In this study students were surveyed regarding their use of mobile phones. English vocabulary lessons were sent to the learners' mobile phones using short text messages and a website was developed to explain the English idioms which students surfed using the 3G phones. The findings revealed that mobile phones are ubiquitous among students and learners were ready to read small texts on mobile screens. It was noted that mobile phones can effectively serve to educate a foreign language learner and short text messages is very useful in teaching vocabulary.

In a recent study, Sole, Calic, and Neijmann (2010) showed that mobiles can allow learners to express themselves in a variety of scenarios. This study included two case studies and was conducted over two years in one of the UK universities. Students were required to report on their work with mobile devices outside the classroom. It was shown that using mobile devices help learners have a better engagement with learning and to have a better interaction. The results also showed that mobile devices also facilitate contextual learning and they resultantly allow the information to be captured in learner's own location in a way as to be resonant with students' needs. Lu (2008) used a counter balanced design to investigate the usefulness of short message service (SMS) on 30 vocational high school students, vocabulary retention. In the first week of the experiment, one group received 14 target words via SMS and the other group received the same material on paper. In the second week the two groups changed their media; that is mobile group became paper group and the paper group became mobile group. At the end of each week, an immediate post test, and three weeks later a delayed post test was conducted. The results of the tests showed that both groups regardless of the medium had improved compared to the pretest. But generally mobile group scores were significantly better than the paper group. It's worth mentioning that their scores diminished in the delayed post test. This result underscores the effect of regular reading of vocabularies and it urges to find a way to investigate whether learners read frequently the lessons provided them via short messeging system (SMS). A comparison of students' scores on mobile phone and paper showed that there is a positive relation between reading frequency and vocabulary gain. Also at the end of the experiment the participants were interviewed to find their attitude towards mobile assisted language learning. The information gained by interview showed that generally students had positive attitudes towards mobile vocabulary learning and liked to continue learning vocabulary with the aid of mobile. Finally, at the University of Lancaster, Mitchell, Race, McCaffery, Bryson, and Cai's (2006) study involved using short text messages as a way to make communications between teachers and students possible. They found that text messaging is a cost effective mechanism to convey the personalized information to learners' mobile phones in a trendy fashion.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Given the importance of the vocabulary learning in learning a new language and the opportunities that MALL provides, the present study addresses the following question:

“ Does using MALL have any significant effect on EFL students' vocabulary learning?”

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The subjects of this study were 60 male and female EFL learners who were studying English at the advance level in a language school in Mashhad, Iran. They were between 23 and 28 years old.

Instrumentation

The following instruments were used to gather data at different stages of this study:

1. A language proficiency test, a modified version of IELTS, consisting of 25 listening questions, 50 reading questions. The time limit for answering the test was 75 minutes.
2. A vocabulary pretest, it was composed of 50 multiple choice items which were taken from Focus on Vocabulary 2: Mastering the Academic Word List (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2001).
3. A vocabulary posttest, which was similar to the pretest.

Material

The General vocabulary for the IELTS book was the main material of this study. This book has been written for students who are planning to sit either the general training or the academic modules of the IELTS exam. It covers

some of the main vocabulary points that learners will need for, or come across in, the listening, reading, writing and speaking sections of the exam.

Procedure

The procedure will be reported in the following stages:

Participants Selection and Homogenization

In order to homogenize the participants upon their level of proficiency, first an IELTS (described in full earlier) was administered to all the 60 available students. They were then randomly divided into experimental and comparison groups. The comparison group consisted of 30 students, 10 males and 20 females, and the experimental group consisted of 30 students, 15 males and 15 females.

Administrating the Vocabulary Pre-test

As it was mentioned earlier, the experimental and comparison groups, were selected from among a population of students whose proficiency level was examined to be at the same. However, since the study concentrated on vocabulary, a vocabulary test, taken from Focus on Vocabulary 2 (described in full earlier), was administered to both groups to ensure that they were also homogenous in terms of vocabulary knowledge.

Intervention

During the instruction, the participants in the experimental group received 150 vocabularies of the General vocabulary for the IELTS book, their definitions and example sentences on a regular basis three times a week via SMS. In addition, they were assessed each session by the instructor in class, to see how they learned the vocabularies. The participants of the comparison group were provided with the same vocabularies and were asked to learn them with dictionary by themselves. In addition, like the experimental group they were assessed by the instructor in class.

Administrating the vocabulary Posttest

After ten weeks of teaching, a vocabulary posttest, similar to that of pretest was administered to both groups in their final examination. It is worth mentioning that the vocabulary posttest was different from the vocabulary pretest.

RESULTS

After administrating the IELTS to 60 students, descriptive statistics was obtained. Table 1 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of the language proficiency test that was used for the homogenization of the participants. The mean and the standard deviation equaled 52.58 and 11.41, respectively. They were then randomly divided into experimental and comparison groups.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Homogeneity Test

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. Error	Std. Error
Total	60	44	38	82	52.58	11.413	130.267	.912	.309	.103	.608
Valid	60										
N											

Since the study concentrated on vocabulary learning, and to check the homogeneity of the experimental and comparison groups at the beginning of the experimentation, a vocabulary test was administered to both groups as a pre-test, and an independent *t*-test was performed on the two groups test scores. Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Vocabulary Pre-test

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	Comparison	30	48.75	15.91
	Experimental	30	50.11	16.51

Regarding the mean scores of two groups there was no significance difference, but in order to be sure of close homogeneity of two groups, a *t*-test was run. It showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental and comparison groups in terms of their vocabulary knowledge. Table 3 manifests the results.

Table 3: Comparison between Variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Vocabulary Pre-test

			Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
			F	Sig.	t	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper	
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed		11.39	.001	1.002	58	2.02	0.850	3.095	6.16	7.74

As it has been shown in table 3, the *t*-observed value for the comparison of the means of two groups was 1.002 at 58 degrees of freedom, which was lower than the *t*-critical of 2.02. Thus it could be claimed that the two groups were not significantly different in terms of vocabulary before undergoing the treatment.

After ten weeks of instruction, both groups were given a similar post-test. Table 4 summarizes the descriptive statistics:

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of the two Groups on the Vocabulary Post-test

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Post-test	Comparison	30	52.97	10.63
	Experimental	30	68.45	9.25

To see whether the treatment was effective or not, the means of two groups were compared through a *t*-test. As it has been shown in table 5, the *t*-observed value was 5.56 at 58 degrees of freedom which was higher than the *t*-critical of 2.02. Thus, it was concluded that the students' performance in the experimental group was significantly greater than that of the comparison group.

Table 5: Comparison between variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Vocabulary Post-test

			Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
			F	sig	t	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper	
Post-test	Equal variances assumed		15.36	0.000	5.56	58	2.02	0.230	5.430	-6.94	3.46

DISCUSSION

Vocabulary has a central role in language learning, and Language learners should know a large number of words to be successful in their learning or to have a successful communication in it. Hence this study aimed to investigate the effect of using MALL on EFL students' vocabulary learning. The findings approved the usefulness of SMS in this regard. The participants in the experimental group improved significantly in the post test and outperformed the comparison group in the post test. This study indicated that using Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) offered interesting advantages to the experimental group as compared with the comparison group. Learning vocabulary via SMS helped the participants in the experimental group to enhance their vocabulary knowledge in the post test. Studies analyzing the mobile technology's use in the different aspects of language learning have supported the idea that mobile technology can enhance learners' second and foreign language acquisition. Learners' attitudes towards technologies, their intention to use it, and the various actual uses of mobile technology integrated in their second and foreign language learning is a dominating research focus (Chang & Hsu, 2011). The result of this study was in line with Derakhshan and Kavianpanah (2011) who assessed the effectiveness of SMS on university students' vocabulary learning. They concluded that those who were exposed to SMS had more vocabulary gain and retention.

CONCLUSION

This paper was generally an attempt to assess the effectiveness of using mobile phones in vocabulary learning of a group of Iranian EFL students. The first part of the article dealt with reviewing the related literature on using technology and mobile phones in the classroom. The second part was an attempt to elaborate on the experiment and the results. It was finally concluded that due to the significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups, the treatment had been a successful one in fostering the vocabulary knowledge of the students. Generally speaking, this study had a number of implications. First, this study showed that mobile phones can play a crucial part in learning vocabularies of a language. Another aspect worth mentioning is that this study was an attempt to help teachers, especially English teachers in developing countries who do not have enough opportunity to use sophisticated technologies in their classes. The technique offered in this study could be used by teachers in large classes. Finally, Like teachers, students can also take advantage of mobile learning. It can help them to learn and retain the large number of the foreign language vocabularies they are learning. Since the students are used to using their mobiles and sending and receiving SMS, they can use it as a complementary device to face to face instruction and assessment. In this way they can move toward a learner centered classroom and make students responsible for their own learning. Because the result of the present study confirmed the positive effect of SMS on learning of vocabularies. It goes without saying that every study faces a number of limitations which can not be avoided. Since the researchers used a modified version of IELTS as the proficiency test, it was not verified in terms of reliability, the same is true about the vocabulary pre and post- tests. Another limitation of this study refers to the term generalizability. Since the researchers had access to a limited number of participants, which may decrease the generalizability of the findings. The number of characters allowed in a short message was considered as a limitation. Due to this limitation, only a limited number of words could be sent in each attempt. Also the example sentences were chosen based on this limitation. Though many researches have been carried out towards MALL technology as a growing field of study in language learning and teaching, there are still so many works left to be done. Moreover, the methods with the help of which mobile device technology can be used to provide a more robust learning environment have to be further improved. More research is needed to explore that whether learning academic words via SMS can help learners to employ those words in extended discourse.

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IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY AND TEACHERS' BURNOUT: A CASE OF COMPARISON

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ABSTRACT

In any foreign language setting, there are some variables that play an essential role in teachers' and consequently learners performances. Two of these important social psychological variables in teaching and educational context are self-Efficacy and burnout. This study has been conducted as a qualitative dominant mixed research design to explore the correlation between self-efficacy of Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and their reports of burnout comparing two big provinces of Tehran and Khorasan Razavi. The data were gathered through the application of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson 1981, 1986) and a researchers-made questionnaire of self-efficacy was designed by Motallebzadeh, Ashraf and Tabatabaee Yazdi (2013) which checked Iranian EFL teachers' self-efficacy. The participants were as 326 professional experienced teachers having university education. They were from both genders and different age groups. After obtaining the raw data, the SPSS software (version 16) was used to change the data into numerical interpretable form, using correlational analysis to determine any significant relationship between self-efficacy and teachers' burnout. The result showed that the participants' self-efficacy has a reverse relationship with their burnout. In addition, a significant relationship was observed between teachers' age, gender, years of experiences and reports of burnout.

KEYWORDS: Burnout, Self-Efficacy, ELT Teachers

INTRODUCTION

The current decades seems to be known as the years of stress and intension. Studies revealed these two features as the most challenging and influential factors in human's life, for all contexts and work places. It is assumed that if people do not feel stressed for a few days or weeks; they suffer from a chronic stress condition that causes a feel of frustration and fatigue. They come across not only with emotional but also with physical problems. This condition has been called burnout by psychologists.

As cited in Skaalvik and Skaalvik, (2010) burnout is defined as a result of long-term occupational stress, especially among human service workers such as teachers (Jennett, Harris, Mesibov, 2003). Many teachers around the world may experience stress in their work (Jennett et al., 2003). Although most teachers cope successfully with such stress, burnout may be the endpoint of coping unsuccessfully with stress (Jennett et al., 2003).

As cited in Martin, Sass, and Schmitt, 2012, teacher intended-to-leave is very harmful to the profession. In the United States almost about one quarter of novice educators are not willing to continue their job after three years and by the fifth year this increases to 40%. (Milner & Woolfolk Hoy, 2003; National Center for Education Statistics, 2004; National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 2003). Self-efficacy is known as an another influential factor in any job and life success, and defined as people beliefs about their own abilities to think, plan, monitor, organize, and perform activities needed in educational settings (Bandura, 1997, 2006).

This study was going to investigate the extent to which Iranian EFL teachers participating in their teaching classes leads to teacher burnout. Furthermore, the link between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their burnout were examined with regard to demographics.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Understanding of teachers' perception of self-efficacy and the impressions of this knowledge play an essential role in teachers' decision-making and their action and methodologies that they use in the class (Pajares, 1992).

A question may be raised here why some teachers could tolerate the high level of stress and succeed in their job while some others cannot. This study aimed at investigating the role of teachers' self-efficacy and burnout as the two important reasons of this question.

Teachers' burnout

Teaching is among those occupations with the highest levels of job stress (Chaplain, 2008; Stoeber & Rennert, 2008). Many studies have been done to investigate causes of stress and its consequences (e.g., Kokkinos, 2007; Kyriacou, 2001; Liu & Ramsey, 2008; Travers & Cooper, 1996). One of these consequences that is very important is teacher turnover (e.g., Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Perrachione, Rosser, & Petersen, 2008).

In any profession, turnover may lead to many straight costs (e.g., replacement costs, training costs). Turnover can be so influential because teacher turnover is related to many severe educational problems such as decreasing quality of education for the students (Levy, Fields, & Jablonski, 2006).

Teacher turnover refers to a teacher's readiness to leave the teaching profession. Researchers in field of education have recognized that work tension is positively related to turnover and negatively related to job satisfaction (e.g., Chen, 2007). For instance, Wright and Cropanzano (1998) noted that emotional exhaustion, which is a primary indicator of work stress and burnout, is a major predictor of voluntary turnover.

Decreasing of school effectiveness (Ingersoll, 2001; Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005), productivity, and motivation (Tett & Meyer, 1993) can be the result of teachers' turn over. As cited in Devos, Dupriez & Paquay, 2012, the first years of teaching are a problematic era. Novice teachers come into a unique world; meet new things, unexpected condition and challenges. They are going to encounter dissimilar types of difficulties and problems, such as controlling classroom discipline, assessing learners' work, motivating learners (Britt, 1997; Ganser, 1999; Melnick & Meister, 2008; Veenman, 1984). Still, while this initial stage is frightening for some, it is a satisfying experience for others (Hebert & Worthy, 2001). How could this be clarified?

Besides the individual characteristics of the inexperienced teachers, the social working conditions (e.g. relationships with colleagues...) is a key for understanding how teachers cope with this era. Pyhältö, Pietarinen, and Salmela-Aro (2011) revealed the following:

"The teachers reported a range of different kinds of events and episodes causing destructive frictions and negative experiences in their work. The teachers perceived social interactions as being the most challenging and problematic part of their work in terms of burnout, on several different levels in their school community. Experienced burdening was situated in social interactions with the members of the school community." (p. 1105)

Recently, Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) explored relationship between teaching experience, and teacher efficacy among 447 Iranian EFL teachers. The results showed that experienced teachers experienced a significantly higher level efficacy.

As cited in Bruce 2009, "Strategies to avoid burnout include reducing stress, keeping personal health strong, building a strong social network, obtaining clear expectations in all facets of one's professional life, improving time management, participating in a mentoring program, and self-reflecting on personality characteristics that may be contributing to stress and burnout." (p. 57).

Teachers' self-efficacy

Dewey (1903) claimed that all teachers should have "some regular and representative way in which he or she can register judgment upon matters of educational importance, with the assurance that this judgment will somehow affect the school system" (p. 199). Bandura's (1977) stated that one's self-efficacy beliefs are affected by two important

components: human agency and triadic reciprocal causation. The theory of human agency proposed that human beings are capable of shaping their lives (Bandura, 1982).

Still, this mechanism that through which human agency works is a multi-directional model that in which personal factors (e.g. cognition, and attitudes), and the external factors influence on each other (Bandura, 1997). In this mechanism, social setting, insight, and behavioral achievement influence on a teacher's judgment about his or her capabilities to positively affect student learning (self-efficacy).

Markley (2004, as cited in Ghasemi & Hashemi, 2011) indicated about the significant role of English language teachers in their academic success and learners' learning that highly depends on teachers and their methodologies in their classes. Strong self-efficacy makes teachers to be less critical about students' errors (Ashton & Webb, 1986), to work more with students who feel stress (Gibson & Dembo, 1984), and to be more patient with students' difficulty (Meijer & Foster, 1988; Podell & Soodak, 1993; Soodak & Podell, 1993). Moreover, teachers show greater enthusiasm for teaching (Allinder, 1994; Guskey, 1984; Hall, Burley, Villeme, & Brockmeier, 1992).

Self-efficacy could be related to a number of significant factors related to education, including student achievement (e.g., McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; Muijs & Reynolds, 2002), student motivation (e.g., Midgley, Feldlaufer, & Eccles, 1989), educational innovations (e.g., Cousins & Walker, 2000), classroom management skills (Wool-folk, Rosoff, & Hoy, 1990), and teacher stress (Greenwood, Olejnik, & Parkay, 1990).

Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and emotional intelligence among 89 EFL teachers from several private language institutes in Mashhad, Iran. Their findings showed that there was a significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. Further, Vaezi and Fallah (2011) explored the connection between self-efficacy and anxiety in a sample of Iranian EFL teachers in private language institutes. The results showed an important negative correlation between self-efficacy and stress.

Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) studied relationship between teaching experience, academic degree and teacher efficacy among 447 Iranian EFL teachers. The results of data analysis revealed that experienced teachers (with more than three years of teaching experience) had a significantly higher level of efficacy, efficacy for classroom management, efficacy for student engagement, and efficacy for instructional strategies compared to their novice counterparts.

Rastegar and Memarpour (2009) explored teacher self-efficacy with respect to teacher emotion and demographic variables in an EFL context in Shiraz, Iran. The results showed a positive correlation between teacher emotional intelligence and self-efficacy.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Generally, researches point out to two main findings: 1) teachers are more in danger than other workers to burnout symptoms (see De Heus & Diekstra, 1999; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), and 2) burnout affects teachers around the world (Byrne, 1999; Rudow, 1999).

In Iran, these days, most teachers are facing different social problems such as inflation that makes them feel social stressed and tension. Blasé (1982) has shown that stress and burnout affect teachers' job satisfaction, and reduce efficiency when working with students. Moreover, it seems that teachers with a high self-efficacy are happier, more creative, and more effective in their duties as teachers.

Teachers' methodologies and their actions in the class and the way they recognize and arrange instruction extremely depend on their ideologies of effective teaching and their ideas about teacher efficacy (Ghaith & Shaaban, 1999; Chacón, 2005). Then, the teachers' ideas of an effective teacher can highly affect their teaching and accordingly their learners' learning (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000).

Understanding of teachers' perception of self-efficacy and the impressions of this knowledge play an essential role in teachers' decision-making and their action and methodologies that they use in the class (Pajares, 1992). Since language learning mostly takes place in formal language setting and as a foreign language, knowing these issues are very important in Iranian context (Kariminia & Salehizadeh, 2007).

Subsequently teachers have a key role in all societies and the success of learners' future depends on teachers' affective conditions, the most important significant of the present study is helping teachers enhance their self-

efficacy and reduce their burnout, by determining the relationship between burnout and self-efficacy. Consequently, the learners can make more benefit from their teachers and the whole class.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Consequently, the study addresses the following research questions:

- 1) Is there any significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy, and their feelings of burnout?
- 2) Is there any significant relationship between teachers' report of burnout to their age?
- 3) Is there any significant relationship between teachers' burnout with regard to their gender?
- 4) Is there any significant relationship between teachers' burnout and their years of the experiences?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants of this study were 326 EFL teachers from two big provinces of Iran. Selection was done from all available professional experienced teachers having university education (Bachelor: 184; Master: 136 and PhD: 6). They were both males (102) and females (224) and aged between 20 and +40 years old with a range of between -1 and +10 years of teaching experience. Their field of study was Teaching of English as a foreign language (TEFL) (239), English Translation (57), and English literature (30). All of them were supposed to pass Teaching Training Courses (TTC) whether in University or Institute.

Instruments

The needed data were gathered through the application of one standard and one researcher-made questionnaires. In addition, demographic form asked about the participants' demographic information including age, gender, and years of teaching experience.

1. Teacher's burnout scale

The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI; Maslach & Jackson 1981, 1986) that is one of the universal instruments used for assessing burnout was used in this study. The questionnaire consisted of three sub-dimensions; emotional exhaustion sub-dimension (EE, 9 items, maximum score – 54), desensitization sub-dimension (D, 5 items, maximum score – 30), and personal accomplishment sub dimension (PA, 8 items, maximum score – 48). Higher emotional exhaustion and desensitization sub-dimensions and lower personal accomplishment sub-dimensions cause high burnout status (Maslach& Jackson, 1981).

Prior research confirmed the validity, reliability of this questionnaire (Iwanicki&Schwab, 1981; Gold, 1985). Additionally, reliabilities for data gathered from each of the three scales ranged from .76 to .90 (Iwanicki& Schwab, 1981) and .72 to .88 (Gold, 1985). Reliabilities for data in the present study were similar and acceptable (EE: .89, DP: .71, PA: .71).

2. Teacher's self-efficacy scale

For measuring teachers' self-efficacy a researchers made questionnaire was designed, by Motallebzadeh, Ashraf and Tabatabaee Yazdi (2013) which checked Iranian EFL teachers' self-efficacy, based on the (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy 2001)and (Bandura, 1997) Instrument Teacher Self-efficacy Scale, and (Murdoch,1997) Good Teacher's questionnaire. This 30-item researcher- made questionnaire was conducted according to the following 5 subscales: efficacy to influence decision making (2 items, maximum scores _ 10), instructional efficacy (15 items, maximum score – 45), disciplinary efficacy (2 items, maximum score – 10), efficacy to enlist parental and community involvement (3 items, maximum score – 15), and efficacy to create a positive school climate (8 items, maximum score – 40). Each item is measured on a 5-point scale: "nothing, very little, some influence, quite a bit, a great deal." The Self-Efficacy questionnaire used in this study was given to two linguists and specialists to judge its validity. Some items were modified and others were deleted until the researchers came up with a final draft of 30 items, and the reliability was estimated using Cronbach's Alpha .90.

Procedure

In this study, 236 participants who are all Iranian ELT teachers in different language schools from two big provinces of Iran (Tehran and Khorasan Razavi) were selected. They were from both genders and from different ages with different years of experiences. In this study, for collecting the data, questionnaires in the form of papers and online (using Google drive) were spread up to different English Language teachers. These teachers were from different subfields of the study within English Language field. Collecting data started at April 2013 and lasted for about 2 weeks. The probable needed time for filling out both questionnaires was about 10 minutes.

Gathering data was summarized by the use of SPSS software (Version 16). Then, the correlation between these two variables was calculated. To analyze the data further, linear regression analysis was conducted to find out to what extent self-efficacy might have predictive power in teachers' overall burnout.

RESULT

Table (1) presents categorization of sub-scales of burnout and self-efficacy scales and their related Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients based on the data collected from the 616 participants of the study.

Table 1: Classification of different items of burnout and self efficacy scales, cronbach alpha coefficient (α)

Scales/sub-scales	Items	(α)
Burnout		
Emotional Exhaustion	1, 4, 9, 10, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22	.89
Reduced Personal Accomplishment	3*, 6*, 7*, 12*, 13*, 17*, 19*, 21*	.71
Depersonalization	2, 5, 8, 11, 14	.71
Self-efficacy		
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	1, 2	.82
Instructional Efficacy	3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17	.87
Disciplinary Efficacy	18, 19	.71
Efficacy to Enlist Parental and Community Involvement	20, 21, 22	.71
Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30	.74

* Scored in reverse order

Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to examine the role of teachers' self-efficacy in their burnout. The results indicated significant negative correlations between self-efficacy and burnout ($r = -0.61$, $p < 0.01$). This is in accordance with Vaezi and Fallah (2011) that discovered a significant negative correlation between self-efficacy and job stress among a sample of Iranian EFL teachers in private language institutes. In addition, as table 2 revealed all sub-scales of teacher self-efficacy were negatively correlated with teachers' burnout.

Table 2: correlation between teachers' self efficacy and burnout

Burnout	(r)
Total Self-efficacy	- 0.58**
Efficacy to Influence Decision Making	- 0.24**
Instructional Efficacy	- 0.56**
Disciplinary Efficacy	- 0.45**
Efficacy to Enlist Parental and Community Involvement	- 0.40**
Efficacy to Create a Positive School Climate	- 0.50**

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

Moreover, two components of teacher's burnout, namely Emotional Exhaustion, and Depersonalization were negatively associated with teachers' self-efficacy as follows: self-efficacy and (1) Emotional Exhaustion ($r = -0.42$, $p < 0.01$), and (2) Depersonalization ($r = -0.49$, $p < 0.01$), but the third component, namely (3) Reduced Personal Accomplishment, is positively correlated with teachers' self-efficacy ($r = -0.45$, $p < 0.01$).

These findings are in accordance and agreement with the study of Hakanen, Bakker and Schaufeli (2006) that revealed both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization correlated negatively with turnover and health among Finnish teachers. On the other hand, a positive relationship was found between personal achievement and self-efficacy ($r = .45$, $p < .001$).

To analyze the data further, linear regression analysis was conducted to find out to what extent self-efficacy might have predictive rule in teachers' overall burnout. The results indicated that teachers' total score of self-efficacy was negatively predictor of burnout. In this analysis, Total Self-efficacy and its constructs explained 38% of the variance in teachers' burnout. Of these variables Instructional self-efficacy and Efficacy to create a positive school climate made the largest unique contribution.

Considering different provinces, the results revealed significant negative correlations between self-efficacy and burnout in Tehran ($r = -0.62, p < 0.01$), and Khorasan-Razavi ($r = -0.58, p < 0.01$). These indicated that the higher significant negative correlation in case of province was for Tehran. To know any relationship between burnout and teachers' gender, independent sample T-test was used. According to mean differences between male and female teachers, result showed that burnout among female teachers is higher than among male teachers ($\text{sig.} = 0.03 < 0.05$). This finding is in accordance with Anderson and Iwanicki's (1984) but in contrast with that of Borg and Riding (1991) result which revealed significantly higher levels of burnout among male teachers. In this regard, Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) found that male teachers reported more frequency and intense feeling of depersonalization towards their students compared to female teachers.

Moreover, the result revealed significant differences between male and female teachers regarding self-efficacy ($\text{sig.} = 0.03 < 0.05$). In this case, male teachers seem to be more efficient than female that is in accordance with burnout results of this study. On the other hand, the more efficient teachers, the less sense of burnout was observed.

In addition Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted. The results revealed significant negative correlations between self-efficacy and burnout for both genders. Male ($r = -0.62, p < 0.01$), and Female ($r = -0.60, p < 0.01$). The result showed that correlation is higher in Male groups. To investigate the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and burnout and their age, Pearson product-moment correlation was run again. The results revealed significant positive correlation between burnout and age ($r = 0.90, p < 0.01$).

More detailed analysis showed that there was a significant negative correlation between teachers' burnout and self-efficacy among male teachers of the age between 26-30 ($r = -0.32, p < 0.01$), but for the case of female teachers the correlation was significant in age groups of 20-25 ($r = -0.31, p < 0.01$), 26-30 ($r = -0.37, p < 0.01$), and 31-35 ($r = -0.41, p < 0.01$). Further, findings of the present study indicated a significant positive correlation between EFL teachers' age and their burnout ($r = 0.9, p < 0.01$). In other words, teachers' burnout tends to increase overtime. This is consistent with previous research that demonstrated that age is an important factor in predicting teacher burnout. Moreover, no significant correlation was seen between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and their age.

Moreover, the study revealed significant correlation at the level of B.A. ($r = -0.51, p < 0.01$) and higher in male teachers. Also the correlation is significant at the M.A. level ($r = -0.73, p < 0.01$), but higher in females. As a result, these findings revealed feeling of burnout was higher for M.A. teachers and no sign of burnout for PhD teachers.

Furthermore, qualitative data that gathered using two open-ended questions revealed that teachers perceived financial issues as being the most demanding and problematic element of their work in terms of burnout (27%), for example, one teacher stated that "payment principles don't appreciate your efforts." Additionally, many teachers stated lack of self-confidence and motivation as the reasons of burdening (12.8%). Several teachers believed that they had some trouble with the materials and books they taught (10%).

DISCUSSION

The current study investigated the possible relationships of burnout, and self-efficacy with some socio-demographic and occupational characteristics of Iranian EFL teachers working at different institutes. The findings proposed that some EFL teachers, mainly younger feel more success in their profession, and they could be more successful at reducing the level of burnout. This may have suggestions for teachers' well-being, motivation and teaching efficiency and accordingly emphasize the value of setting up some courses for EFL teachers to increase efficacy.

To efficiently deal with teacher burnout, EFL teachers, should develop skills in controlling their stress levels. In addition, the role of language institute managers to provide assistance and support from others (e.g., colleagues, supervisors) are of utmost importance. Qualitative data, which was collected through open-ended questions to capture the things that promoted teacher burnout experiences, supported these findings in terms of self-efficacy gains. Many teachers indicated a desire to increase their effectiveness and specially recorded Iranian teachers' reports of burnout, mainly in fifteen aspects.

To summarize, the qualitative data analysis revealed that teachers consider different factors as the main cause of burnout among teachers. They have different priorities and this range of priorities leads to considering different factors as the underlying causes of burnout among teachers. It seems that different teachers get burned out differently and it makes the task more grueling. All the aforementioned factors have to be considered by all policy makers, managerial sectors and even syllabus designers in all processes of their decision making. To obliterate all these underlying causes, cooperation among different educational sections seems necessary. It means to reduce the amount of burnout among teachers the involvement of different groups is necessary.

Furthermore, teachers proposed different kinds of reasons for burdening and low level of self-efficacy. For example they indicated financial issues as the most demanding and problematic reasons of burdening. Moreover, several teachers believed that they had some trouble with the materials and books they taught. A lack of professional and qualified teachers, educational rules and policies, not positive and friendly atmosphere among colleagues/supervisors and managers, students with behavior problem and not qualified supervisors and managers were characteristic of the reasons that were considered as burdening by the teachers.

In addition, data revealed clearly that the majority of teachers reported that modernized work place and being up-to-date could be the best solution as one stating that " using internet for being updated on regular basis, taking part in teacher development courses like TESOL, exchange experiences with my fellow teachers". Twenty one percent of teachers complained about their low salaries. They compared their salaries to the cost of living.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study illustrated that all five constructs of self-efficacy were reversely correlated with teacher burnout. Therefore, the results confirmed our hypotheses. In this study, burnout was at least moderately correlated to efficacy to influence decision making, instructional efficacy, disciplinary efficacy, efficacy to enlist parental and community involvement, and efficacy to create a positive school climate as sub-scales of self-efficacy. Further, findings of the present study indicated a significant positive correlation between EFL teachers' age and their burnout. In other words, teachers' burnout tends to increase overtime. This is consistent with previous research that demonstrated that age is an important factor in predicting teacher burnout.

The results also indicated a negative correlation between EFL teachers' self-efficacy and years of teaching experience, as well as age. In other words, teachers' self-efficacy tends to decrease over time and with every year of teaching. This is not in accordance with findings of Chester (1996) who revealed that beliefs are mediated by the teachers' age and prior experience. These results were also in contrast with those of Campbell (1993) who showed teachers with more experience were more efficacious.

It was also found that there was significant difference in the teachers' self-efficacy with respect to gender. In this case, male teachers seem to be more efficient than female that is in accordance with burnout results of this study. On the other hand, the more efficient teachers, the less sense of burnout was observed. Moreover, the results of the present study indicated that there were significant burnout differences among EFL teachers with respect to gender. In other words, male teachers' burnout level was significantly higher than that of the females. This finding is in contrast with Anderson and Iwanichi's (1984) but in accordance with that of Borg and Riding (1991) result which revealed significantly higher levels of burnout among male teachers. Moreover, in this regard, Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) found that male teachers showed more intense feeling of depersonalization towards their students compared to female teachers. This finding is consistent with the findings of Pierce and Molloy (1990). They mentioned that teachers with positive self-concept are more productive, happier and more effective in their job. Pierce and Molloy (1990) also reported that male teachers perceived themselves as less self-confident than female teachers.

(De)LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study, like any other researches, suffers from some limitations that may raise some new questions for further research in the field. The most important limitation included in the study would be the working conditions under which all the teachers participating in the study are working including the commuting difficulties to work, the payment, or the physical condition of the working place and above all the colleagues and the manager. Furthermore, this study did not consider high school or university teachers due to the accessibility and availability of the teachers and the working places to the researcher. Consequently, it is going to merely focus on English teachers in language institutes. Therefore, it can be claimed that the findings of this research could be well fit with institutional EFT teachers.

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THE EFFECT OF KEEPING PORTFOLIOS ON WRITING ABILITY OF ADVANCED EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The present study attempted to discover the impact of keeping portfolios on the improvement of the advanced English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' writing. In order to have homogeneous groups, a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) proficiency test was given to 60 participants of the study and 48 of them were selected, and then they were randomly assigned to comparison and experimental groups. Since the study concentrated on writing ability a writing pretest was administered to both groups to make sure they were also homogeneous in terms of writing ability. The experimental group was exposed to portfolio assessment and instruction while the comparison group received the traditional writing instruction and assessment. After 10 sessions of treatment, a posttest similar to the pretest was administered. The result of the study indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the groups. The conclusion was that keeping portfolios can contribute to progress of the students in terms of writing ability and it can be used as a promising testing and teaching tool in English language classes.

KEY WORDS: writing ability, portfolio instruction, portfolio assessment.

INTRODUCTION

Based on Brown (2004), in the field of second or foreign language teaching and learning, writing is a unique skill with its own conventions and features. Writing effectively and clearly in a logical and well-developed organization is a main purpose of every writing treatment. Unlike the other skill, assessing writing is not a simple task. The traditional methods of assessing writing were not really successful in helping students in improving their writing ability. But, developing alternative assessments like portfolios have had high washback effect on writing classes. Chapelle and Brindley (2010), state that portfolio is purposeful collection of students' work over the time and contains their language performance at different stages of completion, as well as the students' own observations on his or her progress. Assessments may be focused on many purposes, but the most important role is always to improve instruction for each student. According to Gordon (2008), writing is an aid and support for other skills; it focuses on accuracy and communication of meaning. Morrison-Saunders, Bell and Retief (2012) point out that since most of university works are around writing, it is considered as a fundamental skill to the university students in academics experiences.

Direct and indirect methods of gathering data for assessment

Allen (2008) states that generally there is two basic ways to assess students' writing: first one is direct assessment which is based on an analysis of student products, in which they demonstrate how well they have mastered learning outcomes; next one is indirect assessment which is based on an analysis of reported views about students mastery of learning outcomes. Cooper (1984) also believes that direct assessment requires the examinees to write one or more essays, typically on preselected topics and indirect assessment requires them to answer multiple-choice items. He also states that direct assessment is sometimes referred to as a "production" measure and indirect assessment as a "recognition" measure. In Fraidan (2005) point of view, while direct approach of assessing writing has been criticized for its subjectivity, indirect approach is popular for being objective and producing the same result in the future.

Formal approach to scoring writing

To make plan for administering an approach to writing assessment there may be varieties of scoring methods and combination of methods like holistic, primary trait and analytic assessment for different purposes in different writing

tasks. Bacha (2001) believes that holistic and analytic scoring instruments or rating scales have been used to identify students' writing proficiency levels for different purposes in EFL/ESL programs.

Table 1: A comparison of holistic and analytic scales in terms of qualities of test usefulness (Weigle, 2002)

Quality	Holistic Scales	Analytic Scales
Reliability	lower than analytic, but still acceptable	higher than holistic
Construct Validity	assume that all relevant aspects of writing ability develop at the same rate and can thus be captured in a single score; correlate with superficial aspects such as length and handwriting	more appropriate for L2 writers as different aspects of writing ability develop at different rates
Practicality	relatively fast and easy	time-consuming; expensive

Breland (1983) quotes from Diederich (1974) that in analytic scoring, the writing samples scored by experts representing several different academic disciplines. Primary trait scoring is also known as focused holistic scoring, and it is resemble to holistic scoring. Brown (2004) states that this kind of scoring focus on task at hand and assigns a score based on the effectiveness of the text's achieving that goal, for example if the goal or content of writing is to write an persuasive essay, the score evaluation would rise or fall on the achievement of that function.

Writing ability test

While some scholars talk about intensive and extensive writing, some others have known them as controlled and free composition. Brown (2004) clarified intensive or controlled writing as a form-focused writing, grammar writing or simply guided writing and talks about extensive or free writing in which learners can exercise a number of options in choosing words, structure, and discourse that is freed from strict control of intensive writing. According to Farhady, Ja'farpour, and Birjandi (2009), controlled writing is utilized to recognize or complete grammatical sentences to assess the learner's ability to convey certain thoughts in writing; it consists of some type of written model with directions for conversations or language uses in rewriting the model. They also believe that free writing or composition writing includes a topic for the examinees to write a composition of a definite length. To Hyland (2003), in controlled writing fixed patterns from substitution table will be employed and in free writing patterns have developed by learners to write essay, letter, and so on.

Portfolios

khodadady and Khodabakhshzade (2012)note that portfolio is a collection of texts that writer has produced in a definite period of time. According to Davis and Ponnampereuma (2005), a portfolio is gathering various forms of evidence of achievement of learning outcomes; the student portfolio for assessment aims is a set of reports, papers, and other material, together with the student's consideration on his or her learning and on strengths and weaknesses. Based on Aydin (2010), students usually have positive reactions toward portfolio; it helps learners to analyze literary texts, write in different styles, demonstrate an awareness of the target language culture, improves proficiency skills, content knowledge, and grammatical competence; it also reduces writing anxiety, and promotes students' motivation to learn a foreign language.

Syafei (2012) believes that there are several types of portfolio: First, showcase portfolios which are usually used to show a student's best work to parents and school administrators. Next, collections portfolios which are student's work to present how students deal with day to day class assignments or *working folders* which may contain rough drafts, sketches, works-in-progress, and final products and finally, assessment portfolios which are presented as reflections of specific learning goals that consist of systematic collections of students' work, student self-assessment, and teacher assessment. According to Davis and Ponnampereuma (2005), Portfolio assessment has five stages:

1. Collection of evidence of learning outcomes achievement during day-to-day learning activities.
2. Reflection on learning to promote learning, personal and professional development, and improvement of practice.
3. Evaluation of evidence or quality of the evidence.
4. Defense of evidence of how well the portfolio has reflected the achievement of the learning outcomes.
5. Assessment decision or Pre-validated rating scales to assess the evidence.

Moya and O'Malley (1994) use both formal and informal assessment methods, emphasizes on both the processes and products of learning, try to understand student language progress in the linguistic, cognitive, metacognitive, and affective domains, it contains teacher, student, and objective input, and also stresses both academic and informal language development. These are the characteristics that make portfolios as a popular alternative assessment in the frame work of communicative language teaching.

However, testing and rating writing is a long process; it seems to be more delicate than other skills and needs more time and attention. In this way there are different kinds of writing assessment such as direct, indirect, formal, informal, and Portfolios assessments which are also direct method of writing assessment. This study attempted to investigate the impact of keeping portfolios on students' writing progress.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Given the importance of the writing ability in learning a new language and the opportunities that portfolios provide, the present study addresses the following question:

“ Does keeping portfolios have any significant effect on EFL students' writing ability ?” To what extent?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 60 advanced students from 3 language institutes in Mashhad, Iran. After administering a TOEFL proficiency test, 48 of them were randomly assigned in two experimental and the comparison groups. Although both male and female had participated in this study but gender was not considered as a moderator. They were advanced EFL learners who were tested on the effect of portfolio assessment.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study included a proficiency test which was the truncated version of TOEFL (TOEFL, published by ETS, 2010) proficiency, a pretest, and a posttest as well. At the beginning of the study since the researchers aimed to apply their treatment on advanced students, they were given a TOEFL proficiency test. After the participants had assigned in two groups, a writing pretest was also administered to both groups to make sure they were homogeneous in terms of writing ability. To explore the utility and efficiency of the treatment a writing posttest was conducted at the end of the research. In both pre/posttests the participants were asked to write a paper based on the same topics between two groups. Since the researchers used a modified version of TOEFL as the proficiency test, it was not verified in terms of reliability, the same is true about the vocabulary pre and post- tests.

Design and Procedure

Since the purpose of this research was to investigate the impact of keeping portfolio on improvement of writing skill, an experimental method was selected. Through administering a language proficiency test between 60 advanced students who attended the TOEFL proficiency class in 3 language institutes in Mashhad, Iran. Those students whose scores fell between on standard deviation above and below the mean were included in the study. Out of the 60 students, 48 of them were selected and their close homogeneity was confirmed by utilizing the statistical technique of t-test. In order to fulfill the research the treatment applied in 10 sessions between two experimental and comparison groups. In comparison group students received traditional writing assessment; every session learners were given a topic to write about, the teacher read and scored the students' papers. But in experimental group, after choosing the topic, learners wrote up their first drafts, then, under each assignment teacher wrote his comments about the different aspects of students' written tasks. Therefore, the students gained information about their strengths and weaknesses of their essays. They also were asked to self-assess or reflect on their writing in the classroom and evaluate themselves. Then, at home, the students revised and redrafted their writings based on teacher's comments and their own reflection.

RESULT

At the beginning of the research, a writing pretest was administered in order to determine the ability of the subjects in terms of writing skill. This would enable the researchers to investigate the possible impact of the treatment on the improvement of the writing ability of the experimental group. The descriptive statistics of the writing pretest are reported in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Writing Pre-test

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Post-test	Control	24	11.93	2.13
	Experimental	24	11.91	2.42

To guarantee the homogeneity of the subjects regarding their current writing ability, the researcher ran a t-test. As it has been shown in Table 3, the t-observed of 0.129 was lower than the t-critical of 2.02 at 0.05 level of significance for 46 degrees of freedom. Thus it could be claimed that the two groups were not significantly different in terms of writing before undergoing the treatment.

Table 3: Comparison between Variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Writing Pre-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F observed	F critical	t observed	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	t critical
Pre-test Equal variances assumed	1.28	.001	-.129	46	0.86	0.02	2.02

After the instruction, the subjects in both groups sat for the post test. The descriptive statistics of the post test for both groups are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of the two Groups on the Writing Post-test

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Post-test	Control	24	12.56	2.31
	Experimental	24	15.31	2.28

The researchers ran an independent t-test (Table 5) to analyze the means of two groups on the posttest. Since the t-observed value of 6.25 at 46 degrees of freedom was greater than the t-critical of 2.02, the null hypothesis could be safely rejected at 0.05 level of significance leading to the conclusion that the treatment was effective enough to make a significant difference between the experimental and comparison groups. Consequently, it could be concluded that keeping portfolios would certainly improve students' writing ability.

Table 5: Comparison between variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Writing Post-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F observed	F critical	t observed	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	t critical
Post-test Equal variances assumed	1.02	1.69	6.25	46	0.02	2.75	2.02

DISCUSSION

Portfolio assessment and instruction could be used in writing classes on the one hand to resolve the teaching-testing incoherence (Walker & Perez Riu, 2008) prevalent in most EFL/ESL writing classes and on the other hand to boost students' achievement in writing ability. In sum, this study demonstrated the potential of portfolio assessment to help students foster their English writing ability. Both quantitative and qualitative methods were utilized to find out the impact of keeping portfolios on EFL learners' writing ability. The results showed that portfolio assessment and instruction as a process-oriented teaching and assessment tool improved the students' overall writing ability and the sub-skills of focus, elaboration, organization and vocabulary. The students also perceived the positive effects of portfolio assessment on the product as well as the process of English writing. The positive effects of portfolios on students' writing might be due to the "opportunities they afford students to become actively involved in assessment and learning" (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p.99). In line with Murphy (2006), learning processes can be improved if formative assessment procedures are applied appropriately.

The students in the experimental group were actively involved in assessment and learning in the process-oriented portfolio program. They revisited, reflected on and revised their writing during the term and put their selected pieces of writing in their portfolios. In line with Hagstorm (2006), the constructivist approach in which formative assessment procedures are incorporated into teaching and learning, assessment should be viewed as a process designed for learning rather than a product separated from learning.

Keeping portfolios can be used in EFL classes as a mechanism whereby learning, teaching and assessment are linked. They can be used to boost the development of EFL/ESL students' writing ability. Students' genuine writing performances during the term should be the target of the evaluation. In fact, assessment should be seen as a collaborative formative process which helps students as they move toward their writing goals.

CONCLUSION

As mentioned earlier, the main aim of this study was to find out the impact of keeping portfolio on students' writing. The results of quantitative data analysis indicated that portfolio assessment affected the students' achievement in their overall writing as well as their achievement in terms of focus, elaboration, organization, vocabulary, etc. To some extent, the results are also in accord with Fahed Al-Serhani 's (2007) findings that portfolio assessment significantly improves students' writing performance in general and the product skills of purpose, content, organization, vocabulary, sentence structure and mechanics in particular. Similarly, Khodashenas and Salehi (2012) find that portfolio-based writing instruction and assessment is an appropriate alternative in terms of writing. They conclude that, Portfolio assessment help students foster their English writing ability since they receive useful comments from teacher and actively involvement in process of assessment by themselves. It is also consistent with Elahinia's (2004) findings that portfolio assessment significantly improves students' overall writing ability.

There are several limitations to this study. First and foremost is that the portfolio score is considered to be the average of scores on the five selected pieces of writing. In other writing portfolio programs quantitative grades could be accompanied by a qualitative profile of students' efforts and achievements, hence reporting assessment results in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Second, age, gender and affective factors which are left untouched in the present study could be dealt with in further research to see if they moderate the effect of portfolio assessment on writing and its sub-skills. Third, the participants in this study were all in the advance level of proficiency which limits the generalizability of the result only to this proficiency level. Finally, the time span for this study is limited to only ten sessions of instruction, about five weeks which may affect the external validity or generalizability of the result.

Some suggestions could be generated from this study for future research on portfolio-based writing assessment and instruction. Firstly, since most EFL/ESL teachers in Iran are unfamiliar with portfolio-based assessment/instruction, and teachers play an essential role in this field, more research should be undertaken to explore the teachers' perception of this new approach to assessment. Secondly, due to the limit of time and space, the current study only lasted for ten sessions (five weeks). However, time might make a difference regarding learners' attitude, strategy and writing ability. To put it another way, some effects might not occur in such a short time. Therefore, further research needs to be carried out for a longer period of time, for instance, a semester or even longer.

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CONSIDERING CHALLENGES IN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF E-ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT

The world stepped into the era of online information and technologies that virtually have impact on all sides of human life including economics, education, social and cultural sides (Shojaei, Motamedi, & Nekoueizadeh, 2013). The idea of having our assessments computerized is obviously attractive and e-assessment is emerging as a major driver to e-learning for administrators, instructors and learners. E-Assessment (sometimes known as Online Assessment, Computer-based Assessment or Computer Assisted Assessment-CAA) certainly has advantages, disadvantages and associated problems. Expansion of virtual e-assessment is one of the most appropriate approaches to make higher education easier and more convenient for learners by accessing to self-assessment. The existence of maladministration assessment at any educational level has the greatest threat to the validity and reliability of any examination and consequently to the authenticity and recognition of issued diploma. Therefore, there are many debates over how e-assessment should be designed and administered, and this leads to curriculum design and policy. By considering that e-assessment systems must be stable in order to generate valid and reliable assessments results, this paper tries to replicate and discuss a conceptual framework for implementation of authentic e-assessment in web-based courses.

KEY WORDS: E-assessment, Authentic e-assessment, framework for implementation

AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT IN WEB-BASED COURSES

The two most important reasons for using authentic competency-based assessments are (a) their construct validity and (b) their impact on student learning, also called consequential validity (Gielen, Dochy, & Dierick, 2003). Construct validity of an assessment is related to whether an assessment measures what it is supposed to measure. With respect to competency assessment this means that (a) tasks must appropriately reflect the competency that needs to be assessed, (b) the content of an assessment involves authentic tasks that represent real-life problems of the knowledge domain assessed, and (c) the thinking processes that experts use to solve the problem in real life are also required by the assessment task (Gielen et al., 2003). Based on these criteria, authentic competency-based assessments have higher construct validity for measuring competencies than the so-called objective or traditional tests. Consequential validity describes the intended and unintended effects of assessment on instruction or teaching (Biggs, 1996) and student learning (Dochy & McDowell, 1998). As stated, Biggs's (1996) theory of constructive alignment stresses that effective education requires instruction, learning, and assessment to be compatible.

If students perceive a mismatch between the messages of the instruction and the assessment, a positive impact on student learning is unlikely (Segers, Dierick, & Dochy, 2001). This impact of assessment on instruction and on student learning is corroborated by researchers as Frederiksen (1984, "The Real Test Bias"), Prodromou (1995, "Backwash Effect"), Gibbs (1992, "Tail Wags the Dog"), and Sambell and McDowell (1998, "Hidden Curriculum"). Frederiksen (1984) and Prodromou (1995) implied that tests have a strong influence on what is taught, because teachers teach to test, even though the test might focus on things the teacher does not find most important. Some consider authentic assessment as a synonym for performance assessment (Hart, 1994; Torrance, 1995), while others argue that authentic assessment puts a special emphasis on the realistic value of the task and the context (Herrington & Herrington, 1998). Reeves and Okey (1996) pointed out that the crucial difference between performance assessment and authentic assessment is the degree of fidelity of the task and the conditions under which the performance would normally occur. Authentic assessment focuses on high fidelity, whereas this is not important issue in performance assessment. These distinctions between performance and authentic assessment indicate that every authentic assessment is performance assessment, but not vice versa (Meyer, 1992).

Savery and Duffy (1995) defined authenticity of an assessment as the similarity between the cognitive demands-the thinking required-of the assessment and the cognitive demands in the criterion situation on which the assessment is based. A criterion situation reflects or simulates a real-life situation that could confront students in their internship or future professional life. Darling-Hammond and Snyder (2000) argued that dealing only with the thinking required is too narrow. In their view, students need to develop competencies because real life demands the ability to integrate and coordinate knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and the capacity to apply them in new situations (Van Merriënboer, 1997). Birenbaum (1996) further specified the competency concept by emphasizing that students need to develop not only cognitive competencies such as problem solving and critical thinking, but also meta-cognitive competencies such as reflection, and social competencies such as communication and collaboration.

In light of the constructive alignment theory (Biggs, 1996) authentic assessment should be aligned to authentic instruction in order to positively influence student learning. Authentic assessment requires students to demonstrate relevant competencies through a significant, meaningful, and worthwhile accomplishment (Resnick, 1987; Wiggins, 1993).

Computing-mediated distance education introduces extraneous factors that could affect the validity of the course assessment system. One of these factors is identified as the usability of the web site. Usability deals with how well a system satisfies user needs and requirements. It applies to all the aspects of a system with which a user might interact, including installation and maintenance procedures (Orde, 2001). Another factor is attitude. Weller (2002) examines technical barriers in the assessment process of a web-based course, and points out the tension between individuality and robustness in submissions and the detection of plagiarism. Clarke et. al. (2004) state that feedback to students on their assignments is an essential activity. They point out that tutorial support must be a crucial part of good distance course, where emails should be considered as a non-intrusive means of communication. Orde (2001) offers some suggestions to develop online courses, for instance: to consider a description of learners; to provide readily available technical support; to eliminate group activities easily done face-to-face; and to record and grade interactions such as e-mail and group discussion contributions. To Orde, the testing portion of Course Info requires that each quiz item be individually entered and submitted. If this feature of the software is used, the ID students advise allowing multiple attempts. To Orde, formative evaluation is an essential component and necessary to online course development.

Gatlin and Jacob (2002) discuss advantages of digital portfolios as part of one university's authentic pre-service teacher assessment. Fenwick and Parsons (1997) assert that effective assessment must be intricately woven throughout the teaching-learning process. Collaborative learning activities enable subjects to share their abilities and limitations, providing a better quality product than one that is the mere sum of individual contributions. Group interactions, following the indications for collaborative work given in a course, facilitate vicarious learning, which is hard for some subjects to experience if they do not interact with their peers (Bandura & Walters, 1963; Vygotsky, 1986).

Tools for objective testing, within virtual learning environments and within dedicated assessment engines (e.g. Question Mark Perception) allow teachers to orchestrate frequent assessment testing (e.g. online objective testing) which can be used both to offer flexibility in the time and place of assessment and/or to encourage students to spend more 'time on task' out of class. Time on task has been correlated with enhanced student learning (Chickering & Gamson, 2001) with many studies showing that frequent objective testing enhances the performance of students in final exams (cited in Haigh, 2007).

Computer-supported assessment also makes it possible to enrich and make assessment tasks more authentic, for example, incorporating multimedia presentations and to enable better alignment of tests to student's levels of understanding (Conole & Warburton, 2005). For instance, as a test of their understanding, students learning a foreign language might watch a recorded video of current affairs program and answer objective questions relating to the content (Nicol, 2009). Adaptive testing involves modifying the nature of the test based on the responses the student has made to earlier tests. Although modifying interactions in this way can be achieved in paper tests, this is far more efficient in computer-supported environments. Some researchers have also attempted to use computer programs in specific disciplinary domains (e.g. mathematics) to automatically generate multiple variations of the same class of problem types (Bennett, 1999).

E-ASSESSMENT CHALLENGES

A major problem of learning and education policy in educational system is the separation of ‘academic’ and ‘practical’ subjects. Regrettably, learning and education policy is separated from ‘practical’ subjects. E-assessment has undoubtedly to play a major role in defining and implementing curriculum change in education. Governments have strong commitment to implementation of high quality e-assessment by good initial progress has been made in education system; therefore, there is a need to be vigilant that the design of e-assessment systems is driven by considerations (Shojaei et al., 2013).

It should be emphasized that there is a significant relationship between how to perform e-assessment and what the outcomes are in education because use of lonely technology will not lead to effectively teaching-learning outcomes (Shojaei et al., 2013). Therefore, for implementation and administration of viable and practical e-assessment platform in educational system should be studied from different viewpoints as below:

Economic issues

The high price of paper around the globe has already made official administrators both in the ministry of education and in the ministry of Sciences; Research and Technology use e-assessment in educational environments instead of traditional paper and pencil tests (Shojaei et al., 2013). Running e-assessment plays a valuable role in educational measurement, and especially in distance education (ED). Because the data are often easily collected and analysis of them can be automated by coding the questions and responses, costs can be significantly avoided in e-assessment implementation. On the other hand, e-assessment costs involving in providing electronic equipment (e.g. computers), reliable software, bandwidth, training specialized administrators, and spending a lot of time in developing test questions. Additional costs of maintenance, secrecy, security, and trouble-free operations are also involved (Scottish Qualifications Authority, 2004). In the short to medium term, e-assessment tools can be expensive to implement, and traditional assessment methods may be less expensive. Once created, however, e-assessment applications become less expensive, being easy to operate and score, and reusable from year to year in different combinations (Ridgway et al., 2004).

By considering that e-assessment systems can be more cost-effective than traditional assessment methods but third developing countries get into trouble for equipping their educational system by e-assessment because of hardware, software, training skilled administrators and instructors, and maintenance costs.

Technical requirements

Due to the variety of e-assessment systems being applied for different purposes, technical requirements of such systems are also different. However, there are basic technical requirements that should be met by all e-assessment systems such as: software; connectivity and bandwidth; data storage and transfer; security; accessibility; and lastly technical standards.

The e-assessment runs from software installed on a computer and connection speeds to the Internet need to be considered. Security is regarded as of prime importance in the administration of e-assessments because security increases issues such as privacy, confidentiality, authentication of transferring data via e-assessment system.

Usability of the assessment system is of dominant importance in the effectiveness of the assessment delivery; subsequently modern e-assessment should ideally be administered anytime, anywhere and on any operating system. One of the threats in using e-assessment systems refers to the specific platform on which the e-assessment runs. An assessment system loses its value if learners find it difficult to use.

Administrators in designing an e-assessment system should provide simple, clearly explained and consistent navigational facilities that allow the candidate to navigate through the items in the assessment as freely as permitted by the assessment principles. Designing e-assessment systems should match the user needs, user control over presentation where applicable, consistent navigation, functionality, positioning and names of buttons and icons, and also alternative input or navigation methods where practicable. Depending on the specific e-assessment system in use, dedicated testing centres may be needed with an on-going requirement for technical support throughout the assessment period (Sangi & Malik, 2007). The reliability of e-assessment systems is easily threatened because e-assessment system requires reliable hardware, software, network and power systems at all testing centers. Through administrating e-tests at multiple educational centers, synchronizing data management and operational security issues among centers is very important to impede jeopardizing the e-assessment system’s reliability.

Security and Privacy

The e-assessment database is a large pool of related components from which assessments can be built; including test items, scoring keys and assessment algorithms (Anzaldúa, 2002). Therefore, it is vital that steps are taken to ensure security of e-assessment database. On the other hand, according to Rowe (2004), cheating online becomes easier, since what or who the student brings to the assessment site cannot be seen. Therefore, one of the major challenges of an e-assessment system is the ability to securely provide a test which is delivered to only legitimate students that means secure log-in of users based on pre-defined users' identification such as usernames/passwords. Responses by administrators to the sub-project survey have indicated the importance of alternative network links and increased security measures while online exams are being conducted (Sangi & Malik, 2007). In fact, the user security process is fallible to security threats which plague existing online summative assessment systems (Warren & Hutchinson, 2003; Sangi, 2008).

The problem of having a secure, fair and effective e-assessment system is not new. Several solutions have been applied to avoid this problem over the years. Marias et al., (2006) classify the security of e-assessment into four main types. The first is Web security: this type of security is concerned with the security of servers where the web application is running. The second is user security: which is concerned with the authenticity and identity of the users. The third is location security: which is related to the correct/supervised location that e-assessment should be performed. The fourth is data security: refers to privacy and confidentiality of assessment data. In Gilbert et al., (2009) recommendations to ensure data security in summative e-assessments are divided into two classes, security of test materials and results; security of assessment data transferred over networks. Several solutions have been discussed by the authors varied from the simplest cheapest way of using passwords to the more complex and more expensive techniques of adding physical instruments to the assessment system such as, Biometric authentication and using video conferencing setups (Barker & Lee, 2007). Maintaining users' privacy is another concern which aims to protect specific users' data not to be accessed by other users. A big issue in this context is to find a good compromise of providing adequate information of students' performance to teachers and keeping specific details secret (Bull & Mckenna, 2001). Then for maintaining the reliability and validity of an online test, security measures should not jeopardized by accessing to the results data, including back up results data.

Plagiarism

One obstacle which can prevent teaching staff from utilizing technological solutions to run student assessment is the worry about securing transfer of test materials over the network. Because it is so easy to plagiarize using the Internet sources, learners may plagiarize without recognizing that they are doing so, even though they believe that plagiarism is ethically wrong (Kraus, 2002). These "casual plagiarists" may also plagiarize due to poor time management skills (Beasley, 2004), information overload (Collberg & Kobourov, 2005), or lack of academic preparation prior to college (Adeva, Carroll & Calvo, 2006; Jackson, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2006). Many students, however, make self-serving decisions to plagiarize with the hope of materially improving their grades (Beasley, 2004; Braumoeller, 2001; Hart & Friesner, 2004; Hughes & McCabe, 2006; McGowan, 2005). Computer security is the generic name for the collection of related components such as assets, threats, goals and preventive measures designed to protect the system (Stallings, 2000). In general, every computer system is required to protect three primary assets, i.e. the hardware, software and data assets (Pfleeger & Pfleeger, 2003). Plagiarism is a concern for many thinking of using CAA, (Weller, 2002); but Rovai, (2000) and Carroll, (2002) suggest that assessment design is the key to deterring plagiarism. O'Hare and Mackenzie, (2004) assert that there is a level of imagination and rigor required for the design of assessment online compared to that for more traditional forms of assessment. Weller (2002) suggests that the use of portfolios can help to counter plagiarism, as these places less reliance on single assessment items.

Administrative/ operational issues

The administration of e-assessment requires careful and continual record-keeping. To ensure the reliability of the system, a well-trained staff is needed at all testing centers (Scottish Qualifications Authority, 2004). In addition, Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) assumed that automated polices and security procedures are essential, with electronic and manual student authentication procedures. Specialized skills are required to produce high quality e-assessments. This is while many instructors fear that e-assessment will de-skill their profession. Some are threatened by the introduction of e-learning and e-assessment, and suspect the motives involved. Such fears need to be handled by the institution.

Social/Ethical issues

The electronic manipulation of information in e-learning systems raises major social and ethical issues (Marais et al., 2006). E-assessment platforms provides stress free and safe environment for examination than traditional exam environment. E-assessment contexts are fair to learners in contrast to traditional teacher-based evaluation that is susceptible to subjective assessment. By considering the point that facilities in e-assessment provide complementary environment for better education but low-speed internet connection and abrupt disconnection cause severe concern for learners that result in their mal-performance. It should be mentioned that information technology (IT) literate learners are more succeed in cyber shot space to respond electronically than illiterate learners. Therefore, illiterate learners by creating a sense of fragility, defensive, and raising of inhibition within themselves through answering questions directly affect their capacity to succeed in the e-assessment platforms, and online assessment leads to underestimate illiterate learner's ability.

One of the most important issues that should be noted is the law of copywriting that unfortunately is ignored to some extent in third developing countries because gain access to, manipulate, copy, and misuse the designed e-assessment environments is easy therefore, careful policy decision for preventing to abuse is tangible.

CONCLUSION

Today, e-assessment is one of the available tools for learning but its application and development face challenges and obstacles. In the same line, in this paper, the authors tried to identify what challenges and infrastructures exist for the expansion of authentic e-assessment in educational system and what solutions make e-assessment success considering the fact that e-assessment is a need for improving e-learning in educational system. On the one hand, governments have strong commitment for implementation of high quality e-assessment in educational systems. Consequently, there needs to be vigilant that the design of authentic assessment systems is driven by identification internal and external hinder conflict factors. As noted, internal factors and external factors play a major role in defining and implementing consistent e-assessment in web-based courses. It should be noted that there are many internal as well as external factors which influence implementation of e-assessment, however, in this study, only some notable affected factors, which play a fundamental role, are considered.

In nutshell, although the importance of e-assessment has been emphasized by the majority of the researchers, little has also been written about how e-assessment can be wisely used and implemented in educational system to enhance student learning. The government of developing countries should invest as much money on using e-assessment, as medium supporting educational system, and administrator and instructor training for supporting the educational system shift from traditional assessment to reliable and valid electronic assessment.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEDIUM OF COMMUNICATION AND EFL LEARNERS' USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Aasa Moattarian

ABSTARCT

Being able to communicate effectively is the optimal goal of all language learners; therefore, despite difficulties they face and restrictions they have while expressing themselves, they rely on employing diverse communication strategies (CSs). This descriptive study was set to analyze the Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' use of CSs in oral and written performances. To this end, 60 university students of EFL were selected. The participants' oral and written performances were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively using Dornyei's (1995) taxonomy of CSs. The results of the study revealed that medium of communication plays a significant role in the use of communication strategies. The most frequent problem areas that led to the use of communication strategies were "lexical gaps", "problems in discourse management", and "uncertainty in conveying the message", which can be considered by language teachers and material designers.

KEYWORDS: interlanguage, communication strategies, communicative competence, strategic competence, oral performance, written performance

INTRODUCTION

People communicate with others from the first moment of their birth, by crying, touching, and later on by use of words. However, there are always some deficiencies; gaps exist between what the speakers have in mind and their linguistic performances. Corder (1981) asserts that due to their willingness to communicate, speakers try to find ways for solving problems. The ways which help people communicate in the presence of such deficiencies are called communication strategies (CSs).

Theoretical antecedents of CSs can be traced back to interlanguage studies and learner errors in early 1970s when Selinker (1972) introduced the notion of second language communication strategies in his seminal article entitled "Interlanguage". He argued that learners' insufficient knowledge of language and at the same time willingness to communicate leads to the use of CSs. Later, Corder (1981, p.103) suggested a working definition for CSs as: "systematic techniques employed by the speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty".

Studies on CSs enjoy a four-decade history. Different studies have been conducted considering such variables in the use of CSs as communication medium, language proficiency level, ethnic and sociolinguistic factors, psycholinguistic factors, and cognitive factors. Varadi (1973) was the first scholar who studied CSs empirically. He asserted that in order to study CSs a learner should interact with a native speaker. Tarone (1977) adopted an interactional approach and contended that CSs are used when two speakers do not share the same meaning systems; therefore, to study CSs, interaction between a native and a nonnative speaker is not necessary (as cited in Ellis, 1994).

Speaking is the most basic means of communication; therefore, for most people knowing a language means being able to speak it. However, speaking appears to be demanding for foreign language learners (Lazarton, 2001). In order to speak, one should not only know the language, but also social and pragmatic rules to perform appropriate structures of the language (Martinez-Flor, Uso-Juan & Alcon-Soler, 2006). CSs are inevitable in oral communication for language learners. These strategies keep speakers flexible, and confident, and make their communication more effective. Therefore, the use of CSs in oral communication has been investigated in various studies (Nakatani, 2005; Phothongsunan, 2010; Puffer, 2006; Wannaruk, 2003, to name a few). Writing also plays a crucial role in communication. In the past, writing was thought to be noninteractive and decontextualized. Today, however, it is believed to be an interactive process since the writer, reader, and the text are all involved in the process of writing (Massi, 2001). Therefore, studying CSs in written communication is of great significance. Aliakbari and

Karimi (2009) investigated the use of CSs in the written performances of EFL learners at different proficiency levels. They found that the higher the proficiency level, the more reconceptualization strategies and the less substitution strategies were used. They also noted that the use of lexical CSs varied by the participants' language proficiency. Chimbanga (2000) investigated the use of CSs by university students of Biology. He found that students were eager to use L2-based strategies like 'circumlocution', 'paraphrase', and 'generalization' and concluded that those who took the risk of applying resource expansion strategies irrespective of grammatical problems were more successful in achieving their goal of communication.

Lots of studies have been conducted to investigate CSs considering different variables; however, the existing literature shows that there is still room for researchers to investigate the use of CSs by language learners. For instance, some studies can be found in which both oral and written performances are compared (e.g., Lai, 2010, Yarmohaamdi & Seif, 1992); however, we still need to create a more comprehensive view of learners' performances beyond just the differences in these two mediums. The reasons behind the use of CSs should be investigated as well. In fact, this study tackled how differently CSs are used by Iranian EFL learners in their oral and written performances. Accordingly the research question addressed in this study was:

- How do communication strategies used by Iranian EFL learners vary by medium of communication?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

One hundred and fifteen, 21 male and 94 female, Persian speaking university students aged between 19-25 were randomly selected. In order to have a homogenous group of participants, measures of central tendency were used. Those whose scores were between -1.5 and + 1.5 standard deviations were considered as the participants. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the placement test.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of placement test

Descriptive Statistics				
N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD.
115	16.00	53.00	33.26	8.40

The results turned out to be 70 participants. Then 60 were randomly selected as the final participants of the study.

Material

To collect data in this study two tasks, one for oral and one for written data elicitation, were designed by the researchers. Nunan (2004, p. 58) based on an analysis of communicative use of language contends that "Many communication activities can be stimulated through the use of pictures". In order to check the comparability of oral and written performances in both tasks, pictures were used as visual aids to elicit data. An important reason for choosing pictures was that they displayed the intended point; deviations from the suggested topics were thus prevented. In order to verify the tasks in terms of reliability, they were piloted in a similar situation to that of the present study.

Procedure

The participants were asked to perform one task for oral, and one for written data elicitation. To avoid misunderstandings, before performing the tasks, participants were briefed on the process they had to undergo in Persian (their mother tongue). Since appeal for help was eliminated in written performances due to manageability purposes, participants were informed that during the writing sessions they were not allowed to ask any questions. After completing the written task, were assigned to groups of five to attend group discussion sessions. The purpose behind holding group discussion was to reduce participants' anxiety and also to make the situation as authentic as possible. All the discussion sessions were sound recorded and transcribed, and all paralinguistic strategies were jotted down at the moment for later analysis. In order to ensure that paralinguistic strategies were not neglected, all the group discussion sessions were observed by the researchers and a graduate TEFL student who had been briefed on the process and aim of the study to record the paralinguistic strategies. Finally, the performances were analyzed based on Dornyei's (1995) taxonomy of CSs.

RESULTS

Analyzing the data based on Dornyei’s taxonomy (1995), the researchers found 1934 instances of the twelve CSs defined by Dornyei. Moreover, 176 of the sentences which the participants had used to compensate for their communication needs could not be accommodated within the existing taxonomy. Close examination of those sentences revealed that some techniques had been employed systematically which led the researchers to suggest the following four new strategies:

Appeal for approval: in oral communication, sometimes compensating for the linguistic gaps, the participants stopped talking and asked if they were understood. In fact, when they were not sure if they had conveyed the message, they sought for approval; for example, “he can search for other information as well. *Do you know what I’m saying?*”

Use of redundant notes: in both oral and written performances some participants used some excessive notes. Examination of ‘redundant use of language’ revealed that the participants used this strategy to make sure that the interlocutor understood them; for example, “you can take a *trip or travel* to another country*”.

Use of nonlinguistic means along with other communication strategies: in this strategy the participants, while adopting a CS, tried to express the meaning by using nonlinguistic means too; for example, “you can see *whole (using hands to show all of the people)* the people*”.

Paraphrasing: using this strategy, the participants tried to paraphrase the sentence to convey a message; for example, “we can know about their ideas and share the ideas about *We can know how they think about it.*” This way, in this study the performances were analyzed based on a sixteen item taxonomy as presented in Table 2

Table 2: Extension of Dornyei’s taxonomy of CSs (1995)

Strategy	Definition	
1	Message abandonment	leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties.
2	Topic avoidance	avoiding topic areas or concepts which pose language difficulties
3	Circumlocution	describing or exemplifying the target object or action
4	Approximation	using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible
5	Use of all purpose words	extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking
6	Word coinage	creating a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule
7	Use of nonlinguistic means	mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation
8	Literal translation	translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2
9	Foreingizing	using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically and/or morphologically
10	Code switching	using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 word with L3 pronunciation in L2.
11	Appeal for help	turning to the conversation partner for help either directly or indirectly
12	Time gaining	using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think
13	Appeal for approval*	seeking for the interlocutor confirmation to continue the utterance
14	Use of redundant notes*	using redundant notes to fill the possible existing gaps
15	Use of nonlinguistic means along with other CSs*	accompanying the use of mime and facial expression with the use of other CSs
16	Paraphrasing*	using the sentences with the same meaning

Note * strategy added to Dornyei's taxonomy

Since the researchers aimed at figuring out the differences between performances by different mediums, each and every sentence was closely examined and the use of each CS was identified and counted. In order to find out whether the differences between the use of each strategy in oral and written performances were statistically significant at $p < .05$, chi-square tests were applied, the results of which are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of chi-square tests for the use of CSs in oral and written performances

		Oral performances	Written performances	χ^2	Df	Sig.
1	Topic avoidance	366	208	43.491	1	.000
2	Time gaining	326	-	-	1	-
3	Literal translation	250	202	5.097	1	.024
4	Approximation	176	137	4.859	1	.027
5	Use of nonlinguistic means along with other CSs	75	-	-	1	-
6	Paraphrasing	64	0	-	1	-
7	Use of all purpose words	57	10	32.970	1	.000
8	Use of nonlinguistic means	52	-	-	1	-
9	Message abandonment	50	2	44.308	1	.000
10	Code switching	33	11	11.000	1	.001
11	Use of redundant notes	25	8	8.758	1	.003
12	Circumlocution	18	14	.500	1	.480
13	Appeal for approval	14	-	-	1	-
14	Appeal for help	10	-	-	1	-
15	Word coinage	5	5	.000	1	1.000
16	Foreingizing	2	0	-	1	-

As shown in Table 3, for strategies which could not be used in written performances chi-square tests were not applicable. The differences between the use of all CSs, except for *word coinage* and *circumlocution*, in oral and written performances were statistically significant ($p < .05$). The researchers also noticed that all the 16 strategy types were applied in oral performances; whereas, in written performances only 9 types were used. By comparing the frequencies of CSs used in oral and written performances, it was revealed that more strategies were used in oral performances than written performances (72% of the strategies were used in oral and only 28% in written performances). In Figure 1, the distribution of CSs in the oral and written performances is illustrated.

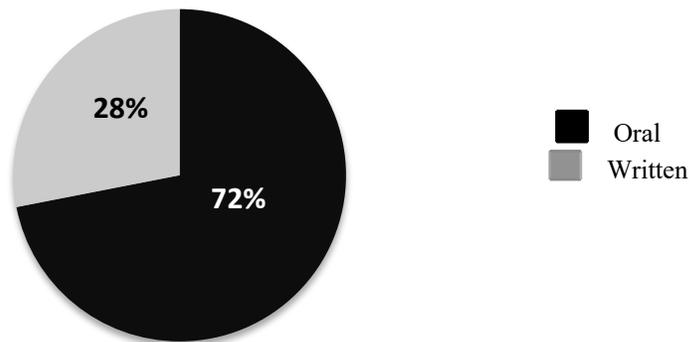


Figure 1: CSs used in oral and written performances

To examine whether the observed differences between the use of CSs in terms of medium of communication were statistically significant, a chi-square test was performed whose result is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Result of chi- square test for the use of CSs in different mediums of communication

	Oral performances	Written performances	χ^2	Df.	Sig.
Total	1523	597	4040.470	1	.000

The value obtained from the chi-square test was indicative of the fact that the difference between the use of CSs in oral and written performances was statistically significant ($p < .05$).

A detailed discussion of all the numerical analyses is presented in the following.

DISCUSSION

Based on the statistical analyses mentioned above, it can be inferred that the use of CSs significantly vary by the medium of communication.

Although some strategy types were obviously not applicable in written communication (*use of nonlinguistic means*), and some were eliminated in written performances due to manageability purposes (*appeal for help*, *appeal for approval*, and *time gaining*), in oral performances more strategy types were used than in written performances. Consequently, the total number of CSs used in oral performances was more than written performances, as shown in Figure 1. This is related to fundamental features of personal involvement in oral and written communication. Findings of this study confirm the findings of many previous studies (García, 2011; Khamis, 2010; Warschauer, 1996; Yarmohammadi & Seif, 1992; Zhao, 2010, to name a few) that argue CSs are used distinctively in different mediums of communication. Analysis of the data also revealed that, participants employed CSs to compensate for three main gaps: “lexical deficiency”, “problems in discourse management”, and “uncertainty in conveying the message’.

To compensate for lexical deficiencies, the participants used *time gaining*, *approximation*, *code switching*, *circumlocution*, *word coinage*, *appeal for help*, *use of all purpose words*, and *foreignizing*. These CSs comprised 40.12% of the total number of CSs used by the participants. Discourse management, which indicates management of available resources in interaction, includes the strategies learners adopt to convey the message they have in mind to meet their communicative goals in different environments (Schegloff, 1968; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973 as cited in

Condon & Cech, 2010). One of the problems participants encountered in this study was “deficiencies in discourse management”, for which they adopted *paraphrasing*, *use of nonlinguistic means*, and *message abandonment*.

Goodboy and Myers (2008) argue that participants are sometimes not sure whether they can convey the message; therefore, they need to be confirmed; they may also employ a strategy to make sure that their interlocutor will understand them. Moreover, participants employed 'appeal for approval', 'use of redundant notes', and 'use of nonlinguistic means' along with other CSs in order to make sure that their interlocutor understood them.

It should also be noted that finding out about the strategies used by foreign language learners provides a more comprehensive view of interlanguage communication, which can help language teachers, and material designers to understand the problem areas which should be catered for in the classroom.

CONCLUSION

This descriptive study aimed to investigate the use of CSs in different mediums of communication. CSs are used to tackle communication problems; therefore, studying CSs leads to finding out problem areas. Knowing the problem areas, language teachers are recommended to design class activities in ways which help learners overcome such communication problems. Since strategic competence plays a crucial role in successful communication, foreign language teachers and material designers are expected to improve students' strategic competence in order to enable them to communicate effectively.

Although the research has reached its goal, there were some unavoidable limitations. A notable shortcoming was that due to manageability purposes, some strategies like *time gaining*, *appeal for help*, and *appeal for approval* were not considered in written performances. Moreover, in this study data obtained in one shot design; therefore, some affective factors like motivation, anxiety, etc. played some role. If there were opportunity to collect data in time series design the researchers could generalize the findings more confidently.

For further research, researchers may take gender, age, language proficiency, and task variability into account. Moreover, following the performances with think aloud sessions, the researchers will find out what were the mind processes the learners underwent before choosing a CS.

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THE EFFECT OF TELLING SHORT STORIES ON LEARNING GRAMMAR AMONG EFL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN IRAN

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ABSTRACT

The role of storytelling in the acquisition of grammatical rules and structures has not clearly been discovered, but it is claimed that it is one of the most effective techniques for conveying information in a compelling and memorable way. There are many reasons to tell stories in our classes as they can give relief from the routine and stimulate the mind, they are a great motivator for teachers as well as for students, they can also foster understanding and acceptance of the foreign language and culture. This study aims at investigating the effect of teacher's telling short stories on the acquisition of grammatical rules and structures of the Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. The sample of the study consisted of 30 female intermediate students who were randomly chosen from one of the public high schools in Isfahan and assigned into experimental and control groups, 15 in each. Grammatical point that was related to conditional sentence (type III) was taught traditionally in the control group; however, in the experimental group, it was taught by telling short story. Data of the study were collected via a pre-posttest design for equivalent groups. The tests were identical and consisted of 15 multiple choice items. The analysis of the collected data through applying t-test revealed that telling story has a positive effect on learning grammar structures but the experimental group didn't outperform the control group significantly on the measure. In other words, there wasn't a significant difference between the two groups in terms of the acquisition of grammatical rules and structures.

KEY WORDS: Telling short stories, Learning grammar, Iranian EFL learners

INTRODUCTION

Teachers have been debating on what is the best method for teaching grammar for generations. Many people, including language teachers, hear the word "grammar" and think of a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate "good" grammar with the prestige forms of the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and "bad" or "no" grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers of nonprestige forms.

Language teachers who adopt this definition focus on grammar as a set of forms and rules. They teach grammar by explaining the forms and rules and then drilling students on them. This results in bored, disaffected students who can produce correct forms on exercises and tests, but consistently make errors when they try to use the language in context.

Other language teachers, influenced by recent theoretical work on the difference between language learning and language acquisition, tend not to teach grammar at all. Believing that children acquire their first language without overt grammar instruction, they expect students to learn their second language the same way. They assume that students will absorb grammar rules as they hear, read, and use the language in communication activities. This approach does not allow students to use one of the major tools they have as learners: their active understanding of what grammar is and how it works in the language they already know.

The communicative competence model balances these extremes. The model recognizes that overt grammar instruction helps students acquire the language more efficiently, but it incorporates grammar teaching and learning into the larger context of teaching students to use the language. Instructors using this model teach students the

grammar they need to know to accomplish defined communication tasks. So, in order to make a grammar lesson effective, beneficial, and interesting a teacher should use some new and fascinating techniques in the classroom. Since the meaning is an important device in teaching grammar, it is important to contextualize any grammar point (Celce-Murcia & Hilles, 1988).

Story telling seems to be one of the most enchanting and culturally rich resources that can easily be used in language classrooms. Stories offer a change from routine classroom activities. They are precious resources to develop students' abilities in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. They can also be used to teach a variety of language items such as sentence patterns, vocabulary, and pronunciation. As stated by Lo and Fai Li (1998:8), learning English through stories also provides a non-threatening atmosphere for students, who usually are tense when speaking English in a formal classroom setting.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Storytelling is almost as old as language itself. In fact, some cultures still use spoken stories to pass on information to younger generations because the language is not written down. Storytelling is also not just for children; it covers the entire age range of the population and covers all aspects of life. Stories also give new insights into the target culture. They are the means through which cultural themes are presented effectively. Since they provide authentic texts, they are motivating. According to Hill (2001:29) "There are many advantages of using stories in the classroom through using contemporary popular stories, which are already familiar to teenagers, the teacher can meet the challenges of the teenage needs in the classroom. Since stories are motivating, in many forms they may constitute a powerful subculture with their own rituals."

Pederson (1995) considers storytelling as the original form of teaching and states that there are still societies in which it is the only form of teaching. He mentions that although some attempts have been made to imitate or update it, like the electronic storytelling of television, live oral storytelling will never go out of fashion and a simple narrative will always be the cornerstone of the art of teaching.

Brian Ellis(1997) in his article "*Why Tell Stories*" believes that storytelling is the perfect embodiment of whole language pedagogy and it teaches higher level of thinking skills, addresses the needs of students with different learning styles, provides opportunity for cooperative learning and building social skills and most importantly storytelling has been shown to build intrinsic motivation and self-esteem, even in the students who are labeled hard to reach.

Deacon and Murphy's *Deep Impact Storytelling* (2001) discuss why giving a course depth through storytelling is important. They describe ways to help teachers deepen the impact of storytelling through language and thinking activities that include shadowing, summarizing, student retelling, action logging, and newslettering. They Share one "split" story and student reactions to it as a way of exemplifying the ideas provided.

The study by Hui-Ling Huang on *The Effects of Storytelling on EFL Young Learners' Reading Comprehension and Word Recall* (2006) has indicated the necessity of teacher intervention in EFL reading; the teacher's story interpretation through contextualized storytelling as a multi-sensory approach could result in perceptible benefits in young learners' reading comprehension. The teacher is thus encouraged to incorporate storytelling in teaching and experience the magic of this ancient art in modern language classrooms, even though it may place some extra burden on the teaching preparation. Despite the effective framework of storytelling for vocabulary learning, the findings of this study on word recall did not support the theoretical assumption.

According to Fitzgibbon and Wilhelm (1998), teachers are increasingly being provided with an array of creative storytelling materials and ideas for second language learning. They discuss benefits which include enhanced student enjoyment, lower affective filters, authentic and enriched language input, and more inclusionary, collaborative classrooms. Stories appear to enable students to draw upon their own experiences and to organize information in personalized ways, thus better comprehending and retaining information and concepts.

In terms of grammar learning, storytelling may serve as a steppingstone to the learning of syntax as it demonstrates grammatical and syntactic features in meaningful context. As Mallan (1991) points out, storytelling demonstrates a varied use of tense and linking devices in organizing ideas. With a deliberate design of learning activities, the teacher can draw learners' attention to specific linguistic features in the story presentation (Taylor, 2000; Wajnryb, 2003).

The Importance of Teaching Grammar

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. Grammar explains the types of words and word groups that make up sentences in any language and makes it possible for us to talk about language. In fact, grammar is the way in which sentences are structured and the language is formatted, so while studying correct grammar may be a bit boring, it really is worth the time and effort. If we don't know the rules of grammar, then we will never be able to communicate clearly and effectively in English language. People associate grammar with errors and correctness. With the use of incorrect grammar sentences can become meaningless and their message is unclear. So, knowing about grammar helps us understand what makes sentences and paragraphs clear and interesting and precise. Grammar can be part of literature discussions, when we and our students closely read the sentences in poetry and stories. And knowing about grammar means finding out that all languages and all dialects follow grammatical patterns.

Grammar teaching has often been regarded as a structure based formal activity. But it no longer has much credibility when we believe the precise focus on a particular form leads to learning and automatization (Skehan,1996). After the integration of several sources and techniques, which are mainly based on communicative activities, the teaching of grammar gained a new insight. In communicative tasks, the learners comprehend, manipulate, produce or interact in the target language while their attention is basically on meaning rather than form (Nunan,1989). Swan (1998) suggests that we should consider the needs of the students in teaching grammar. Furthermore, he states that the principles of comprehensibility and acceptability should be considered.

The importance of story telling

By stories, we mean the incidents or events in the news or on TV, stories about people and things our students know and care about. One of the best opportunities to use stories is, lessons on the supposedly dry subject of grammar (as well as punctuation and usage). A story provides a realistic context for presenting grammar points and holds and focuses students' attention in a way that no other technique can. Stories can be used for both eliciting and illustrating grammar points. The former employs inductive reasoning, while the latter requires deductive thought, and it is useful to include both approaches in lesson planning. In addition, a well-told story is the perfect context for a structure-discourse match, but the technique can also be used effectively for a structure-social factor match. However, when teachers include grammar stories in their lessons, students have a better understanding of real world and grammar lessons are not so boring for them .(Baker & Green,1977)

There are many reasons why we want to tell stories in our classes. Stories provide students with opportunities to listen to language in context rather than in bits and pieces. Stories also introduce new vocabulary and language forms within rich networks of associations. Equally important, stories can have a deep impact on a person's construction of knowledge and self. However, storytelling consists of more than just telling stories. It may include not only creating a story but also the use of pictures, acting, singing, story writing and so forth.

According to Chambers(1970) there are a number of ways in which storytelling can enhance intercultural understanding and communication. Stories can...

- allow children to explore their own cultural roots
- allow children to experience diverse cultures
- enable children to empathize with unfamiliar people/places/situations
- offer insights into different traditions and values
- help children understand how wisdom is common to all peoples/all cultures
- offer insights into universal life experiences
- help children consider new ideas
- reveal differences and commonalties of cultures around the world
- Promote a feeling of well being and relaxation
- Increase children's willingness to communicate thoughts and feelings
- Encourage active participation
- Increase verbal proficiency
- Encourage use of imagination and creativity
- Encourage cooperation between students
- Enhance listening skills

Integrative Grammar Teaching

Integrative grammar teaching combines a form-based with a meaning-based focus. Spada and Lightbown (1993:205) have also argued "that form focused instruction and corrective feedback provided within the context of communicative interaction can contribute positively to second language development in both the short and long term". Thus, integration of form and meaning is becoming increasingly important in current research. Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1997:14) call it "a turning point" in communicative language teaching, in which "explicit, direct elements are gaining significance in teaching communicative abilities and skills". Of course, depending on the students and their particular needs, either form or meaning can be emphasized. But in having various students with different needs in the same group, or having various needs in the same students, an integrative grammar teaching approach creates optimal conditions for learning for everyone in the classroom. Musumeci (1997) mentions the idea of connecting *form* and *meaning* in grammar teaching as a developing trend in reference to the proficiency oriented curriculum. She points out that students should be able to learn explicit grammar rules as well as have a chance to practice them in communication in the authentic or simulation tasks. Interestingly, Musumeci advocates giving students a chance to look at the language on a sentence level to see how certain grammatical rules are applied.

Integrative grammar teaching, which presupposes students' interaction while learning, can be viewed as a cognitive process of learning an L2 that reflects the sociocultural theory proposed by the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1978). In talking about the development of a child's brain and his socialization, Vygotsky argues that there is a strong relationship between learning and cognitive development, in which cognition develops as a result of social interaction and sharing the responsibility with a parent or a more competent person. From an early age, children look to their parents for clues to acceptable social behavior. This brings us to Vygotsky's *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) in which there are two main stages of an individual's development. The first stage is what a child or learner can do by himself; the second stage is his potential, what he can accomplish with the help of another, more competent person. The distance between two points is called the *zone of proximal development*. Vygotsky also introduces the notion of a *mediator* - a person who helps students to accomplish what they cannot do by themselves. According to Appel and Lantolf (1994) and Lantolf and Pavlenko (1995), the role of the mediator in teaching an L2 is placed on an L2 teacher, whose task is to direct students in the right direction and help them reach the second stage in the ZPD.

Similar to Vygotsky's theory is the often-criticized Krashen's (1981, 1985) *Input Hypothesis*, also well-known as the "*i + 1*" hypothesis. According to this hypothesis *i* represents students' current level of L2 proficiency, and *+1* is level of the linguistic form or function beyond the present students' level. Krashen's *Input Hypothesis* and Vygotsky's *Zone of Proximal Development* are basically describing the same cognitive process of social interaction in students' development. For Krashen, optimal input should be comprehensible, i.e. focused on the meaning and not on the form. In this study students will be focusing on the form, but actively, through *communicative, meaning-based, exploratory assignments*. Even though well-criticized for lack of empirical evidence (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Gregg, 1984; McLaughlin, 1987, etc.), the significant contribution of the Input Hypothesis to the field of applied linguistics is that it shows how teachers can focus on the actual level of students, adjusting the complexity of the material so that learners will be able to reach what initially was beyond their level.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Teaching grammar is now the most challenging task that any Iranian teacher may face in her/his daily classroom. Many do not wish to teach grammar explicitly but they are aware that students need an understanding of the rules to achieve fluency as well as accuracy. Unfortunately, many students leaving schools and entering universities do not have adequate English proficiency to excel in their studies. One possible solution is integrated approach to grammar teaching where there is a focus on the form but the activity is meaning based.

The primary purpose of this study, then, is to determine whether story telling activities is effective or help comprehension of grammar. Among many factors attributed to the listener, language proficiency and teaching grammar through context are two factors under investigation in this research, the extent to which story-telling activities affect the improvement of learner grammar is also examined in this study

The technique that is going to be used is teaching grammar using story telling activities. In any case, by this method of teaching grammar, we can challenge students and stimulate their interests by letting them choose favorite stories and that is in itself, a major success to breaking the traditional view of grammar classes as dull and boring.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is an attempt to answer the following questions:

1. Does using storytelling for teaching grammar have any significant effect on the acquisition of grammatical rules and structures by Iranian EFL learners?
2. Is there a significant difference between teaching grammar traditionally and teaching grammar through storytelling with regard to their influence on the acquisition of grammatical rules and structures by Iranian EFL learners?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The participants in this study were 30 Iranian under-intermediate EFL learners (based on Nelson Solution Test), aged 17-18, studying in the fourth grade in one of the high schools in Isfahan and were homogenous with regard to their English proficiency level. The sample included female participants with the same native language, that is, Farsi. The learners participated voluntarily and then were randomly assigned into the two groups (one experimental and one control) involved in the study (15 students each).

Instruments

In order to answer the questions of the study, for the main experiment ,a story containing some grammatical points related to conditional sentence (type III) were chosen , then the teacher wanted the students to answer the questions that were at the end of the passage . The story was chosen according to the length and difficulty level. Also, a pre-test and an identical post-test including 15 item-multiple choice test was selected and administered to two groups. It should be mentioned that the grammatical point (conditional sentence type III) was taught to the control group based on the exercises of their textbook.

Procedure

In the first place the students were divided into two group of experimental and control, 15 each. Then a pre-test of the grammar test was conducted immediately before starting the experiment to both groups to evaluate the subjects' ability in grammar. The researcher developed a 15-item-multiple choice test on conditional sentences (type 1, 2, 3) and the modal verbs usage that only 5 of them tested conditional sentence type3. Test items had 4 choices only one of which was correct. In scoring, (1) point for each correct answer and (0) for each wrong answer was allotted.

The treatment consisted of two levels: the method of telling short story and the traditional method alone. The experimental group undertook the first level of the treatment and the control group undertook the second level. For the main experiment, a story which contains some grammatical points related to conditional sentence (type 3) was chosen (the learners were taught conditional sentences type 1 &2 in grade two), then the teacher taught new vocabulary from the story, told the story and wanted the students to answer the questions that were at the end of the passage .The answer of all of the questions related to conditional sentence . Traditional teaching was conducted to the control group. It means that after introducing the grammatical point, examples and patterns related to that point is read and some exercises were done.

To be sure of the efficiency of the treatment, the researcher administered a post-test, an achievement test, both to the experimental and the control group about two weeks after the treatment. The post-test was identical to the pre-test as it had the same type of items, number, and structure.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to find out the impact of using storytelling as a teaching strategy on EFL learners' grammar acquisition and to investigate if there is significant difference in students' achievements between traditional method and storytelling method of grammar teaching. The data were collected through a pretest-treatment-posttest design for equivalent groups and analyzed via the statistical package SPSS.

To determine if there are any significant differences in the students' achievements between the means of the two groups (experimental and control) on the pre- test, the researcher used the pre- test for the two groups so as to emphasize homogeneity between them. And an independent-samples t test was carried out to compare the two groups. Table 1 shows the results:

Table 1: The independent samples t- test for revealing the differences between two groups on pre- test

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Computed T	DF	Sig.
Experimental	15	1.5	1.45	1.42	28	0.16
Control	15	0.85	0.86			

Table (1) shows that there is no significant difference between experimental group and control group on the pre- test, because the computed T (1.42) is smaller than the critical T (2.131), so we accept the null hypothesis (Ho) that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups. This result can be represented in the following diagram. (Figure 1)

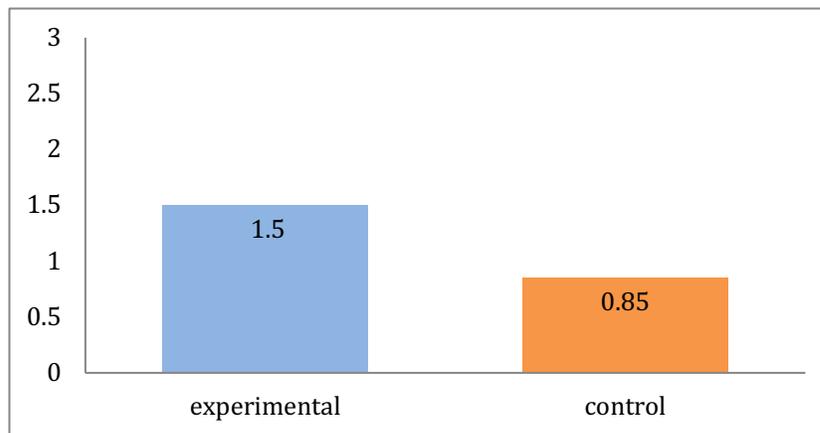


Figure 1: The differences between the means of pre- test for the experimental and the control groups

To answer the first question of the study and determine if there are any significant differences in the students' achievements between pre and post tests among the experimental group due to storytelling strategy, the researcher used the paired samples t- test. Table 2 shows the results:

Table 2: The paired samples t- test to show the differences between pre- test and post –test results among the experimental group

Measurement	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Computed T	DF	Sig.
Pre-test	15	1.5	1.45	-2.68	14	0.19
Post-test	15	2.92	1.32			

Table (3) shows that there are significant differences between the pre-test and the post-test among the students of the experimental group in favour of the post test, because the computed T (-2.68) is bigger than the critical T (1.96) at $\alpha=0.05$, so we reject the null hypothesis (Ho) that there is no significant difference between the means of measurement (pre- test and post-test). This indicates that using storytelling in English language instruction to the intermediate students has a positive effect on students' acquisition of grammatical rules. This result can be represented in the following diagram. (Figure 2)

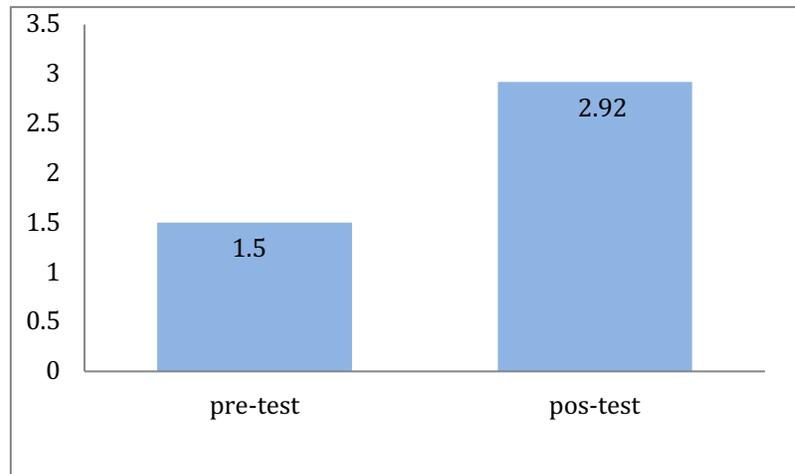


Figure 2: The differences between the means of pre- test and post- test for the experimental group

Then the researcher used the paired samples t- test to discover if there are any significant differences in the students' achievements between pre and post tests among the control group due to traditional method. Table 3 shows the results:

Table 3: The paired samples t- test to show the differences between pre- test and post –test results among the control group

Measurement	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Computed T	DF	Sig.
Pre-test	15	0.85	0.86	-3.27	14	0.00
Post-test	15	2.85	1.87			

Table (3) shows that the computed T (-3.27) is bigger than the critical T (2.94) at $\alpha=0.01$, so there are significant differences between the pre-test and the post-test among the students of the control group in favour of the post-test and the null hypothesis (Ho) that there is no significant difference between the means of measurement (pre- test and post-test) is rejected. This result can be represented in the following diagram. (Figure 3)

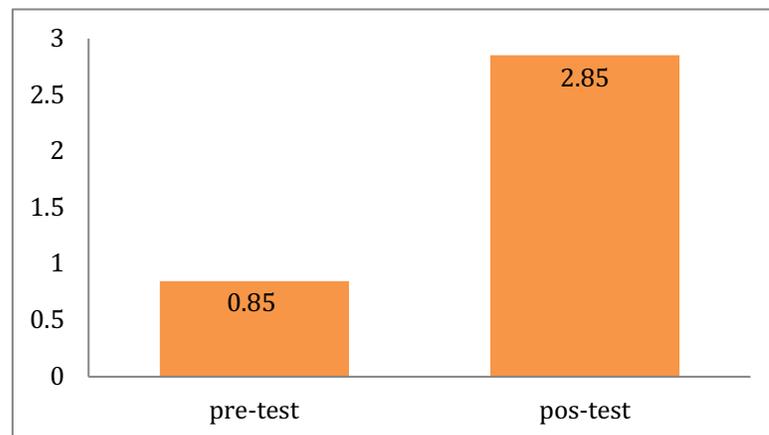


Figure 3: The differences between the means of pre- test and post- test for the control group

To answer the second question of the study and determine if there are any significant differences in the students' achievements between the means of the two groups (experimental and control) due to using storytelling method as shown by the post- test, the researcher used the independent samples t- test. Table 4 shows the result:

Table 4: The independent samples t- test for revealing the differences between two groups on post- test

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Computed T	DF	Sig.
experimental	15	2.92	1.32	0.11	28	0.90
control	15	2.85	1.87			

As Table (4) shows, there is not statistically significant difference between experimental group and control group on the post-test, since the computed T (0.11) is smaller than the critical T (2.131) the, so we accept the null hypothesis (H₀) that there is no significant difference between the means of the two groups. This result can be represented in the following diagram. (Figure 4)

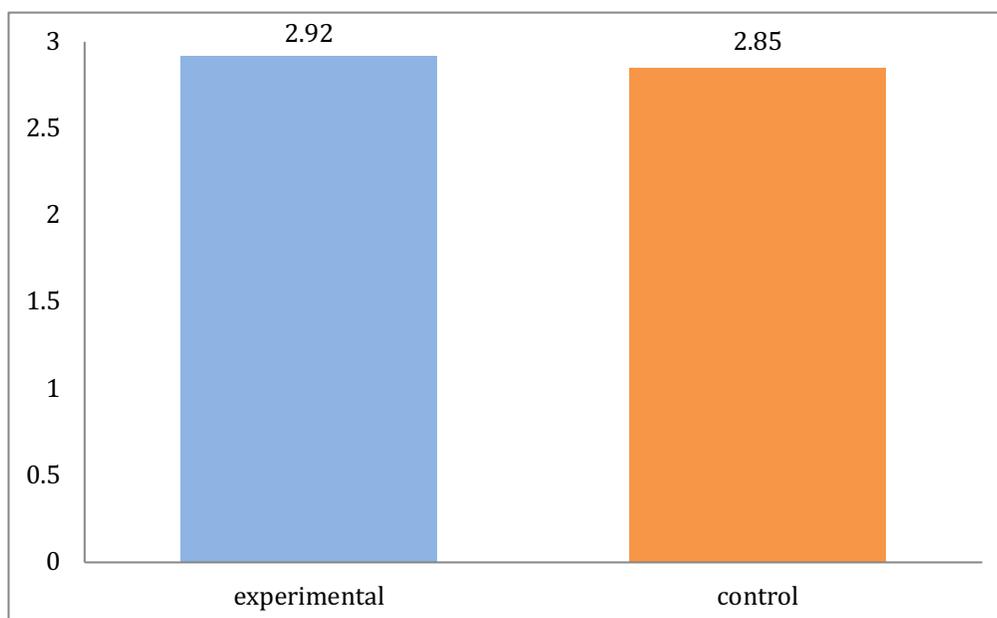


Figure 4: The differences between the means of post-test for the experimental and the control groups

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study set out to investigate two research questions: (1) whether teaching grammar through storytelling have any significant effect on the acquisition of grammatical rules and structures by Iranian high school EFL learners; and (2) whether there is a significant difference between teaching grammar traditionally and teaching grammar by using storytelling with regard to the influence they exert on the acquisition of grammatical rules and structures by Iranian high school EFL learners. The findings revealed that using storytelling had a positive impact on the acquisition of the grammatical rules, as suggested by the post-test results. Moreover, the findings indicated that teaching grammar using storytelling was not significantly different with regard to the influence they exerted on the acquisition of the grammatical rules and structures by Iranian high school EFL learners. Of course, this is true according to the results of this study. It seems that the students in higher levels benefit less than lower level proficiency level because, according to Thanajaro (2000) they have the ability to organize new information and helping methods have little additional effect on them. Moreover, since the low proficient learners do not have enough experience with the new language they are learning, they need to be helped in whatever way possible. Although the results of this study did not turn out to be as expected, it is evident that storytelling is one of the most basic ways of sharing knowledge, of making sense of experiences, and of seeing oneself in relation to others. In the classroom, storytelling is an important activity with strong links to literacy. As professional storyteller Jeff Gere (2001) points out, "Storytelling can encourage students to explore their unique expressiveness and can heighten a student's ability to communicate thoughts and feelings in an articulate, lucid manner." In our fast-paced, media-driven world, storytelling can be a

nurturing way to remind children that spoken words are powerful, that listening is important, and that clear communication between people is an art.

Every study, evidently, has some shortcomings imposed on it because of some limitations. This research is no exception. To support the results obtained through this study, there are some suggestions made for further studies in order to complement the findings of this study. They are as follows:

1. The participants in this study were intermediate learners. Some other studies can be conducted with participants of other proficiency levels, that is, elementary, lower-advanced, and advanced, to find out whether or not the same results will be obtained.
2. The focus of attention in this study was teaching grammar. Other studies can be carried on in the areas of reading and writing and find out how the participants react in those structures.
3. The material used in this study was a short story that was suitable for the intermediate level. In other studies of this kind we can use some complicated and longer passages can be used to see if the groups will still response in the same way or differently regarding their proficiency level , because with longer text , the situation may be different
4. The participants of this study were monolingual speaker of Persian; in other studies researchers can employ bilingual participants and understand whether or not the same results will be obtained. The rational for this is that since bilinguals' cognitive ability is higher than monolinguals (Bialystok, 1992; Romaine, 1989), they may or may not benefit more from such activities.

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**THE IMPACT OF JOURNAL WRITING ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS OF ADULT IRANIAN EFL
(ENGLISH AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE) LEARNERS WITH LOW EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)
INDEX**

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ABSTRACT

In this research, the intention was to testify 'Dialogue Journal Writing' (DJW) as an active reflective practice among adult learners with low Emotional Intelligence (EI). Among the various individual differences that the adult learners bring to the EFL classrooms, "EI" trait has been mostly focused upon as one social skill needed for learning a language. However, in a bulk of research, rarely have the researchers put emphasis on maximization through educational tools that they have had at their disposal. Here, the intention was to capitalize on low EI adult learners' active and conscious role through active learner-teacher written dialogue communication. Thus, 126 adult academic students were randomly selected through cluster sampling from academic students and homogenized through a standardized Nelson TOEFL test. Through Bar-On's EI questionnaire (1980), the target groups were screened. Students' performances were compared on two successive posttests after the treatment induction. The results indicated the outperformance of the experimental group for the two posttests. (Time 1: Sig. 2-tailed=.001 < 0.05 & time 2: 0.02 < 0.05). As to the interconnectivity effect of gender and EI level, the MANOVA results showed the outperformance of females over the males especially, at lower and medium EI just in the first post test. At last, two qualitative assessments including informal interviews and a semi structured questionnaire were triangulated with the results. The findings indicated that DJW could efficiently help adult EFL Iranian learners who suffer from lower EI to participate more in learning tasks and get better achievements. The pedagogical implications for utilizing DJW in EFL settings have been fully discussed at the end.

KEYWORDS: Emotional intelligence, self-awareness, Dialogue journal writing, academic achievement

INTRODUCTION

Psychologically speaking, adults are usually considered as unmotivated and uncooperative and mostly confronted with affective barriers to their learning. Among the crucial learner variables in EFL settings, in a multitude of research articles in recent years, just few studies have been directly devoted to affective domain. A bulk of research has indicated that the focus of present educational system is on rational and/or cognitive aspects such as memory and problem solving skills and that lip service has been paid to the important contribution of the emotional mind (Nelsend 2003). Tunkey (2002) accentuates that the research studies conducted so far to explore the relationship between Emotional intelligence (EI) as a pertinent affective factor on language performance shows that the extent to which EI can be put into practice to improve language teaching and learning needs more deliberation. But what does EI exactly involve? And how can it orient EFL learners to better educational achievements? Does it move parallel with IQ or takes a different route?

Goleman (1995) as one of the pioneers of the personality trait, 'EI', asserts that it refers to the learners' ability to recognize and regulate emotions in both themselves and in others. It entails the innate ability of a person and can be improved by external factors such as the environment. It can help people to be better students. It can be as much powerful and even at times more powerful than IQ in predicting success in various life challenges. The possession of high IQ rating is not the sole indicator when it comes to being successful in all fields (Goleman1995). It is believed

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that those learners having a lower index of EI trait are less able to get across their messages for their intended situations. Nevertheless, the research papers which discuss EI theory seem not to pay enough attention to the ways as to how of maximizing learning among those who suffer from lower EI. In this research project, the intention is to assess EI as one personality factor among a group of adult learners by the active learner-teacher written dialogue writing termed as '*dialogue journal writing*' (DJW). The authors want to investigate the issue in more details and testify the effect of DJW on the academic achievements of some EFL learners with lower EI. Below, an operational definition of the term DJW is given very briefly to clarify the issue.

According to Peyton (1992), '*journal writing*' is *an ongoing or constant written conversation in which adult ESL/EFL learners and their teacher exchange their messages or impressions regularly over their learning progression*. What '*journal writing*' generally seeks for is not directly pertained to pedagogy but it also refers to the recently-developed concepts like alternative-assessment, portfolio assessment and self-monitoring practices in which the students esp. adults come to the forefront to actually control their improvements in learning which in effect this might activate a sense of belonging through active participation both inside and outside of class. The applicability of such reflective practices in real situations like classroom and home is however a little vague.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Reflective or insightful approaches toward language learning have been mostly put forward by constructivists like Vygotsky since 1978 up to the recent decades. The main intention behind constructivists current with Vygotsky was that '*learning is largely a social activity and learners create their own learning through their experiences and beliefs*.' Such interaction between the teacher-student doesn't take place occasionally but it is an ongoing process through which the teacher monitors and takes care of the whole process of teaching-learning procedures for a whole term (Hatton & Smith, 1995; Richards, 1990; Short & Kauffman, 1994). Richards & Lockhart (1996) mentioned some sources for such critical reflections over the course including reflective journals, learning logs, lesson reports, autobiographies, collaborative dairy keeping, audio and video recording, teacher narratives, portfolios, observation and action research. Gibb's model (1988) of reflective frameworks in self-awareness approaches might be a great help here to mention. He elaborated on six successive stages of such reflective processes in resolving a problematic situation:

- A: Description: What happened?
- B: Feeling: What were you thinking/ feeling?
- C: Evaluation: What was good/bad about the situation?
- D: Analysis: What sense could you make of the situation?
- E: Conclusion: What else could you have done?
- F: Action plan: If it rose again, what would you do?

By definition, reflection is '*a natural activity in which individuals are engaged to a greater or lesser extent*' (Cottrell, 2003). Moon (2005) offers a definition of reflection as "...a form of mental processing that we use to fulfill a purpose or to achieve some anticipated outcome" (Moon, 2005, p.1). Moon argued that this process is generally used to help understand complex or unstructured ideas that do not have an obvious solution.

Lowenstein (1987, p. 87) traces the history of personal journal writing to the development of '*self consciousness*' for the purposes of self-understanding, self-guidance, expanded creativity, and spiritual development. Interestingly, the '*journal writing*' practice arrived in language teaching strands from various previous professions like chroniclers, travelers, pilgrims, creators, apologists, confessors, and prisoners, (cited in Thomas Mallon, in his popular *A Book of One's Own: People and Their Diaries* (1984).

Pushing movements for journal writing approaches

The main reasons behind the popularity of journal writing to other professions including language learning (LL) was that after the 20th century, the growth of psychology and psychotherapy encouraged scholars to look inside people's minds, in order to scrutinize their feelings, and explore their dreams. Phil Rich (1999), a Clinical Director of the Stetson School, believes that Journal writing provides a way to put thoughts down on paper where the learners can be seen and this in turn gives substance to feelings. He implies that journaling is an effective technique

for self expression since it fosters personal growth, and can be a valuable companion on the road to self discovery. He asserts journal writing can provide a place to express and explore innermost thoughts, feelings, ideas, questions, and concerns, and later return to reminisce or re-examine.

Still another reason for a support towards journal writing approaches was that of growth in personal spirituality dating from the 1980's that linked personal journal writing to creativity, expansion of consciousness, and the deepening of spiritual awareness and growth (Santa- Maria, 1983; Solly and Lloyd, 1989; Baldwin, 1990; Wakefield, 1990, Cameron, 1992; Rainer, 1997). Hiemstra (2001) mentioned several benefits that was another cause for journal writing as a reflective approach to become more popular. He asserted the mind trackers of this device were able to see tangible evidence of mental processes in their subjects; On the other hand the journal keepers had a safe place to practice writing without restrictions of form, enabling the articulation of connections between new information and what they already know, and making meaning. Building confidence was another benefit mentioned by Hiemstra that was termed as '*the nurturing of voice and spirit*'.

Now one may ask what inside factors can trigger best use of such capabilities in adults to have more control over their learning. Such realizations have occurred for people in their routine everyday life activities. When it comes to education, the first thought that comes to mind is how such reflective devices can put in operation in language classes. Do really students at older age benefit more from such reflective approaches? What mechanisms can help a teacher-student interaction? Which groups of learners can gain more in this way? What other factors can mediate in the process? Should we consider other socio-ethnographic factors like gender, education level, marital status in the learning process through such interaction or not? How can such reflective tools as DJW be promoted for the target group of the present study? These and some other relevant issues on the association of reflection and language development in adults with lower EI has been at issue in the present research. Below, the research studies done specifically on EI trait centering on language studies are mainly put forward to scrutinize the issue in more details.

What is Emotional intelligence?

Emotional intelligence is generally defined as the ability to perceive, control and evaluate emotions. Some researchers believe that emotional intelligence is an inborn capability while others suggest that it can be learned and thus strengthened for extending further learning. The most recent definition that attempts to cover the whole construct of EI describes it as the ability, capacity, skill, or potential to feel, use, communicate, recognize, remember, describe, identify, learn from, manage, understand and explain emotions (Hein, 2007).

In their seminal article, "Emotional Intelligence", Peter Salovey & John D. Mayer defined emotional intelligence as, "*the subset 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 actions*" (1990).

Goleman (1998) the founder of EI defines it as the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others for motivating ourselves and managing emotions in ourselves and in our relationships. He believes that we have two ways of knowing: The rational and the emotional. Both of these ways of knowing are intertwined, but emotional intelligence is a greater determiner of success in life. His EI model includes: 1. Knowing one's emotions, 2. Managing emotions, 3. Motivating oneself, 4. Recognizing emotions in others, 5. Handling relationships

Gardner (1983) suggested that all individuals have personal intelligence profiles that consist of a combination of several different intelligence types, including linguistic. Gardner (1999) has described Linguistic Intelligence as sensitivity to spoken and written language and the ability to use language to accomplish goals, as well as, the ability to learn new words.

Recent research accounts on EI promotion within ELT domains

In order to follow those studies which had focused on aspects of EI promotion, a comprehensive search gave us the following results.

In EFL, there was a bulk of research on EI trait and various aspects of academic achievement like Rostami, N. 1383, khosravi, Z 1378, Kouhsar et al, 1386. Jamali Nesari, et al (2011) worked on EI traits and learning English vocabulary. Among the research studies, among those working on EI and EFL aspects of successful oral participation we found another interesting work by khazade A. et al (1386) and Pishghadam and Ghonsooli (1387). According to Hassanzadeh R. et al (2011) two of the EI main components, intrapersonal intelligence (independence, assertiveness, self-actualization, self-regard, and self-awareness) and general mood (optimism and happiness), and language achievement are positively correlated. Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) showed educational success and intrapersonal, general mood and stress management dimensions have positive correlations.

In the recent literature, a shift of emphasis overbearing EI findings from students to teachers' mentality was seen in some major work like Nelson and Low (2005). In their research, they supported the view that the main reasons behind the success for those teachers who model emotional intelligence are exemplified by intentional reflective and not reactive behavior, more flexible behavior, assertive and not aggressive or passive communication, more optimistic and thus not pessimistic or negative viewpoints which are really helpful for the learning environments. Such reliance on skills and positive habits, they believed, aids the teachers with higher EI. Abdollahi (2001) maintained the same standpoint by relating the probable success of those teachers with high EI by creating a pleasurable classroom through a dynamic group discussion with the students. In Saeidi's and RimaniNikou's (2012) article on EFL Teachers' EI and their students' language achievement, a significant relationship was found between the two variables. That is, the higher teachers' EI, the more students' language achievement.

In settings apart from Iran, other studies related to EI accounts and ELT were also prominent like Vanett and Jurich (1997), Pierson (2003), Santa-Maria, M. (1983), Lowenstein, S. (1987), among others. Kerka, S. (1996), Hiemstra, R. (2001), Peyton (1977) and Yayli, D. (2009) had worked on the effect of journal writing in EFL/ESL settings. Parker et al(2004)found positive relationship between success and intrapersonal, stress management and adaptability intelligences.

In the present research, it has been tried to testify the effect of reflective thought activators on EI promotion among those adult students who lack a plausible EI level in social settings.

The authors believed through applying DJW the teachers might be able to stir confidence, autonomy and self-awareness among those adults with lower EI which in effect this might bring more success in their language learning processes.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The questions put forward at this research project were thus:

1. To what extent can constant dialogue journal writing help the adult students with low EI to have more achievements in the learning situation?
2. Can gender as a subsidiary variable predict success in EFL adult learners through journal writing? Do Male and female learners with different EI levels benefit equally from journal writing?
3. What are the students' overall impression on 'dialogue journal writing' as an active task-report tool?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants included 126 adult Iranian EFL learners (male / female) between the ages of 20 and 25 who were randomly selected via cluster sampling from among 400 adult students attending in Sabzevar both public and private universities. Their majors were law and Family management.

Instrumentation

A pre-test including a validated TOEFL proficiency test version of Nelson was first administered among all the subjects to cater for their probable variability concerning language proficiency. The validated Nelson English Language Test battery was chosen at elementary level. A typical test of this series entails 50 items comprising a 37-item grammar section along with 13 items on vocabulary knowledge.

At the second stage, a translated version of Trait Emotional intelligence (EI) questionnaire by Bar-On (1980) into Persian was administered among the remaining 156 subjects. The translation to Persian was prepared and checked by two EFL professors in order to ensure that all the items were fully understood by all the subjects. The intention was to select those students who had a lower EI index compared with their classmates with higher EI. The validity for the self report trait EI in relation to personality was psychometrically demonstrated as discriminately reliable in Iranian Context by Dehshiri, (1385). Its Chronbach Alpha was reported %73 which shows an acceptable index. The whole

90- item inventory examined 15 different scales including inter-personal skills, intra-personal skills, adaptability, stress management, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-respect, independence, problem-solving, emotional self-awareness, inter-personal skills, assertiveness and reality-testing among others.

Procedures

Initially, a pre-test including a validated TOEFL proficiency test version of Nelson at elementary level was first administered among some 180 subjects to homogenize the population. The aim was to cut the scores at two extreme poles highest and the lowest 20 % scores from the experimental phases of the study in order to ensure maximum control over the homogeneity of the subjects concerning their language proficiency. Thus, 24 students who were not within the homogenized selected sample at level of elementary level were excluded at this phase of the study.

After administering the EI questionnaire, those that were included in the two extremes of very low vs. very high EI index were advertently deleted from the experimentations due to the purposes of the study. 30 subjects were also excluded at this phase of the study. The remaining 126 subjects went through a three-month treatment inducement stage for journal writing practices.

Those subjects whose EI total score was between -1 and +1 standard deviation from the mean or one standard deviation above and below the mean were classified as 'medium EI'. Accordingly, high EI learners were those whose score was between +1 and +2 standard deviation from the mean and consequently low EI ones included those with -1 and -2 SD from the obtained mean. The measured scores in each level have been specified in Table 1 Mean for the total EI scores was estimated as 312.03 with SD= 37.2.

Table 1: The criterion for classifying the subjects' total EI index

+3	>	+2	+2	>	+1	+1 ($\mu=312.03$)	-1	-1	>	-2	-2	>	-3	
Standard Deviation			Standard Deviation			Standard Deviation			Standard Deviation			Standard Deviation		
Too high EI index			High EI Index			Medium EI Index			low EI Index			Too low EI Index		

In order to check the normal distribution of the population in the study, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was run for the obtained scores in SPSS ver.20. The distribution was decided normal since the p-value ($0.599 > 0.05$). Table 2 indicates the normal distribution of the subjects. Since the data followed a normal distribution, 1/3 of the medium level scores was devoted to EQ lower group in order to increase the number of subjects and maintain a more plausible research population in terms of number for the purposes of the present research.

Table 2: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for distribution checking

		EQ Scores
N		126
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	312.0317
	Std. Deviation	37.21783
	Absolute	.068
Most Extreme Differences	Positive	.046
	Negative	-.068
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.767
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.599

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

Having administered the EI questionnaire, the researchers decided on four groups (2 exp. and 2 con.). Those that were included in the two extremes of very low vs. very high EI index were advertently deleted from the experimentations due to the purposes of the study. 28 subjects were excluded at this phase of the study. The remaining 126 subjects constituted the subjects targeted for the purposes of the current research project. Table 3. shows the distribution of the groups comprising a plausible distribution of subjects having trichotomous low/medium/ high EI index for both experimental and control groups.

Table 3: A cross-tab exhibiting the general distribution of the population and sample size for each research group

Research Groups	Number of subjects	Gender		EI index level and gender		
		Male	Female	High	Medium	low

Experimental	67	27	40	Total: 12		Total: 25		Total: 30	
				M 5	F 7	M 12	F 13	M 10	F 20
Control	59	25	34	Total: 12		Total: 14		Total: 33	
				M 7	F 5	M 6	F 8	M 12	F 21
Total: 126		Total: 52		Total: 74					

During the experimental stage, which lasted for nearly four months, the subjects were required to initiate a dialogue communication with their instructor. The subjects were asked to do the proper ordinary given tasks in each session plus reporting their impression over their work as to what problems they have faced while doing the due tasks. Afterwards, the instructor responded to the reports following a strict format touching the students' areas of difficulty and gave proper solutions and more reassurance that everything was ok and went well at the right time. Journal writing along with continuous task report by the learners were paralleled and continuously assessed by the instructor during an academic three-month period. The subjects were first provided with necessary knowledge in their ordinary courses. They were then asked to do the proper given tasks in each session plus reporting their work as to what problems they faced while doing the due tasks.

In the present study, students and their teachers were continually participating in a dyad conversation through which they presented their impressions and probable problems during the course.

Two successive posttests of achievement type were finally used to verify the learners' progress rate after the treatments. The reason for administering two successive posttests of achievement type was to make sure if the applied treatments in this research can bring about progressive progress among the learners.

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS

After the interventions, statistical analyses of the variables were conducted to test the first hypothesis as to the effect of journal writing and overall progress concerning reading skills in English. T-test was selected as the statistical measurement device in order to test the first null hypothesis;

H01: 'Dialogue Journal writing can't bring about success in linguistic achievements among adult students with lower emotional intelligence (EI).'

The acceptance level was set at .05 with 95% confidence and reliability. Since it was intended to examine the mean of the groups and due to the fact that the groups under study were independent of one another *independent sample t-test* was selected as the statistical measurement. The other factor leading to the use of t-test was that the data used in this study were all interval.

Measuring the dependent variable with both groups was performed at two stages with one month interval. So two post-tests were involved in statistical analyses. (Time 1 & Time 2)

The achievements by target group ie., those students with lower EI levels whose achievements were probably affected by the induced reflective treatments of journal writing were statistically investigated. Just the subjects with a low EI level in the experimental vs. control group were included in the data analyses for both time 1 and time 2 post tests.

Table 4 below depicts the results for the independent T-test for Time 1 comparing just the low Eq level subjects together.

Independent Samples Test

*Table 4: T-test for independent samples experimental * control groups among lower EI levels (time 1)*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
time1 Equal variances assumed	.237	.628	3.397	61	.001	3.41591	1.00568	1.40492	5.42689
Equal variances not assumed			3.413	60.999	.001	3.41591	1.00083	1.41464	5.41718

Apparently, as the table 4 clearly shows the obtained p value (Sig. 2-tailed=.001) was less than (.05). Also, the observed T-value of (3.397) is enough above the t-critical 1.64 at 95% probability level. The same statistical analyses were rerun for Time 2 post testing among the same groups of lower EI levels. This time also the sig level for 2-tailed T was less than the critical 0.05. (.02<.05) and the observed T-value is larger than the t-critical with 95% confidence. So, we were safe at rejecting the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative one as to the positive effects of journal writing practices among the target group i.e. subjects with a low EI Table 5 shows the statistical results for the T test analyses for time 2 post testing.

Independent Samples Test

*Table 5: T-test for independent samples experimental * control groups among lower EI levels (time 2)*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
time 2									
Equal variances assumed	.407	.526	2.389	61	.020	2.25530	.94403	.36761	4.14300
Equal variances not assumed			2.399	60.994	.020	2.25530	.94007	.37552	4.13509

In this research project, the researchers wanted to investigate the association of gender and EI levels with final linguistic achievements too. The second Null hypothesis investigated in the present survey was as the following:

- H02: Gender can't predict any differences in achievement among male and female EFL adult learners across EI levels after receiving journal writing practices.

Here since the impact of two independent variables (EI levels and gender) was involved on the performance of two post-tests in one month interval, Two-Way ANOVA (MANOVA analysis) was selected for statistical analyses at 0.05 Alpha.

The results of a two-way ANOVA with EI level (3 levels) as one independent variable and the subjects' gender (2 levels) as a second independent variable revealed a significant interaction, $F(4,509) = .015, p < 0.05$. (Table 6)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: time1
 Table 6: Two-Way ANOVA for Time 1 post-test testifying EI vs. Gender

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	237.208 ^a	5	47.442	2.685	.029	.180
Intercept	9587.460	1	9587.460	542.691	.000	.899
eqlevel	2.341	2	1.170	.066	.936	.002
gender	8.319	1	8.319	.471	.495	.008
eqlevel * gender	159.325	2	79.663	4.509	.015	.129
Error	1077.657	61	17.667			
Total	13444.750	67				
Corrected Total	1314.866	66				

a. R Squared = .180 (Adjusted R Squared = .113)

The mean scores for gender at three EI levels at Table 7 below clearly shows that females gained better results compared with males at two EI levels of low and medium.

3. eqlevel * gender

Dependent Variable: time1

Table 7: Descriptive statistics for EI vs. Gender as two independent variables for time 1 posttest

Eqlevel	gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
low EQ	1.00	11.700	1.329	9.042	14.358
	2.00	14.888	.940	13.008	16.767
medium EQ	1.00	11.500	1.213	9.074	13.926
	2.00	15.308	1.166	12.977	17.639
high EQ	1.00	15.200	1.880	11.441	18.959
	2.00	10.536	1.589	7.359	13.712

The same statistical procedure was re-run for time 2 post test. Again, the mean variability for females was higher than males at two lower and medium EI levels. However the interaction of EI and gender this time wasn't statistically significant. ($F(2,73) = .07, p > 0.05$). The critical value for F. ratio at 0.05 was 4.49 which all the obtained F-tests didn't exceed this critical value. So we couldn't have any significant evidence to prove the cross effect or interaction of gender and EI level together on the overall improvement of the experimental group after the treatments for a second time. Table 8 and 9 below shows the MANOVA analysis at time 2 post-test for one month interval. Possible implications have been given in the next section.

3. eqlevel * gender

Dependent Variable: time2

Table 8: Descriptive statistics for EI level vs. gender at time 2 post-test

Eqlevel	gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
low EQ	1.00	12.575	1.128	10.319	14.831
	2.00	14.675	.798	13.080	16.270
medium EQ	1.00	12.292	1.030	10.232	14.351
	2.00	14.250	.989	12.272	16.228
high EQ	1.00	15.800	1.595	12.610	18.990
	2.00	12.429	1.348	9.732	15.125

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: time2

Table 9: Two-Way ANOVA for Time 2 post-test testifying EI vs. Gender

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	92.768 ^a	5	18.554	1.458	.217	.107
Intercept	10300.383	1	10300.383	809.422	.000	.930
Eqlevel	5.769	2	2.884	.227	.798	.007
Gender	.722	1	.722	.057	.812	.001
eqlevel * gender	69.513	2	34.757	2.731	.073	.082
Error	776.262	61	12.726			
Total	13447.000	67				
Corrected Total	869.030	66				

a. R Squared = .107 (Adjusted R Squared = .034)

Paralleled qualitative results for the informal interviews with the teachers and the target group of the present survey were performed at the end. Both positive and negative viewpoints by the stakeholders were referred to, though the final codings were pointed towards the positive points of the continuum, there were also some negative aspects which have all been discussed along with possible implications of utilizing reflective techniques like dialogue journal writing and keeping in the following section.

DISCUSSION

The current research project was mainly carried out to investigate the effect of reflective practices like dialogue journal writing on the possibility of EI development practices among those adult English learners who suffer from lower levels of this prominent aspect of the mind. At first place, the statistical measures gave us enough evidence to prove the overall effectiveness of the induced treatment on the subjects. Concerning this result, Vygotskian viewpoints on learning as a social activity is again more strengthened. Here, the main role that the instructors may possess was focused upon through an ongoing active process to change the learning behavior of the learners by their self-initiated screening activities with the teachers' supervision. As Cochran-Smith & Fries (2005) have specified, the research movements on teacher development are highlighted through school-based enquires which focus on learning in its social context.

In the present survey, the researchers made use of journal logs in order to investigate the critical reflective thinking on the achievement of some learners specifically those who in normal times can't communicate their thoughts easily through class channels along with their classmates or their teachers. Other still reflective mechanisms therein involve learning logs, lesson reports, autobiographies, collaborative dairy keeping, audio and video recording, teacher narratives, portfolios etc. (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

In this research project, three questions were specifically followed. The first and the foremost enquiry was to investigate the effect of reflective practices on the overall linguistic performance of a group of adult learners with a relatively low EI index. The first question is here then rephrased for a recall.

Question 1: To what extent can constant dialogue journal writing help the adult students with low EI to have more achievements in the learning situation?

The results of statistical analyses all proved the outperformance of the experimental over control group among the target group including learners with lower level Eq. Without any doubt, there is now wide recognition that reflective practices like journal writing can be a good vehicle for self-understanding, self-guidance, expanded creativity, and spiritual development.

Question 2: Can gender as a subsidiary variable predict success in EFL adult learners through journal writing? Do Male and female learners with different EI levels benefit equally from journal writing?

Concerning the nature of reflective journal writing, gender can be a crucial issue since as Pica (1991) declares; it is possible that interactions in matched-gender pairs differ from interactions in mixed-gender pairs, both in the amount and type of interaction. The gained results from MANOVA (time 1) analyses let us reject the null hypothesis safely as to the interaction between gender and EI level concerning the linguistic improvement of males and females after the induced treatment. The statistical analyses all were weighted for females rather than males thus they indicated that those female learners esp. at lower and medium EI levels achieved better results compared with their matched EI levels among their male counterparts. Since two post-tests were taken within a one month interval, a second time post test was also administered. However, as previously mentioned in the result section, the interaction of EI and gender this time wasn't statistically significant. ($F. 2.73 = .07 > .05$). Possible reasons might be that though females benefitted more from the reflective practices from the outset, in the long run, they couldn't prove completely adaptable to the treatments compared with their male counterparts. A very crucial point to consider here is to probe into the underlying psychological variables that might have been also in process along with the EI trait within each individual subject. Mayer and Salovey (1997) proposed that emotional skill develops partially within the context of interpersonal relationships. Among such inter-related and complex situations, the interaction of individual traits such as gender with EI must be paid more attention as to what hindering factors have been in action to change the result towards the outperformance of males at the end. Still another implication could be that in the present research study, trait EI typology and not ability EI has been investigated. As Austin, (2004) accentuates, there is a distinction between trait EI (or "emotional self-efficacy"), which concerns emotion-related traits and self-perceived abilities measured via self-report questionnaires, and ability EI (or "cognitive-emotional ability"), which concerns actual emotion-related abilities measured via maximum-performance tests. In this study, EI index has been measured and evaluated through self-report questionnaires which accordingly assessed the trait EI among the selected participants and not ability EI which is cognitive-emotional based. Since gender is also concerned with cognition, it is probable that more assessments must have been done to assess ability EI for the EQ level classification and then probe into its interaction with EI level of ability type.

One last interpretation could be obtained considering Roxburgh, 1996 and Simon, 1995 as many gender differences in situ are initiated by differences in the experiences, responsibilities, and types of stressors that pose differential challenges to the two genders. Females, more often than their male peers, are simultaneously exposed to family- and job-related stressors as a result of their dual roles as mothers and professionals. Fluctuations might have occurred due to such family-type reasons too.

Question 3: What are the students' overall impression on 'dialogue journal writing' as an active task-report tool?

Finally, some informal interviews with both teachers and the learners were performed through open-ended semi structured questionnaire. Informal interviews with the learners were finally done to inquire about their opinions of this way of communicating with their teacher. About 85% of the students had a positive impression on utilizing dialogue journal writing as a useful tool for maximizing class participation esp. among those suffering lower EI index. They enumerated the following benefits in their talks. Some of their viewpoints are briefly given below:

A: They believed they had found a unique opportunity to talk interactively to their teacher; the occasion that to their opinion they had never experienced before. They said they felt great.

B: Most of the students asserted they liked the teachers' written explanation directed towards themselves. They liked the air.

C: Nearly most of the learners enjoyed this means of communication because all their language problems were resolved by the teacher.

D: Some students had benefitted from compensation strategies which they had taken in the process of utilizing dialogue journal writing in which the teachers' verbal aids were considered an appeal for authority on the part of the learners seeking for help. They enquired on their various strategies for learning English. They corrected some of their naïve learning strategies.

E: Students with lower EI index were interviewed individually in order to let them transfer their feelings without any threatening atmosphere. They really wished for such two-sided communication due to its stress-free situation.

F: Students accentuated they had become more orderly, focused and more organized in their lesson.

Although the learners really had positive views on the whole process of journaling, some complaints were also reported like the following:

- A. Teachers' responses to their question sheets were sometimes similar to their classmates' when they compared their own sheets to those of their classmates.
- B. Teachers sometimes evaded some points as to the students' suggestion over class management procedures.
- C. Some students didn't like weekly or sometimes daily reports on their tasks. They thought it was tedious.
- D. We liked to communicate some of our points anonymously, while in this way the teachers knew who had made a point.

Possible reasons behind such negative viewpoints though could be the nature of feedback by the teachers which in the long run can change into a monotonous verbatim of their previous responses without their immediate awareness of such repetitive responses to the same subject.

The teachers were generally satisfied with the reflective tools such as journaling due to its various benefits. To the teachers, the main vantage points involved advancing critical thinking among learners, promoting communication skills, enhancing intellectual growth among many others. The interviewed teachers were all agreed upon the accelerating effects of journaling for the learners' writing performance if they urged the learners to focus on meaning rather than the form. In the long run, they accentuated, this could help the learners overcome their various blocks in writing skills communicatively. In the questionnaire, the teachers were asked if it is possible for DJW to be applied for all age groups. The responses showed that they liked to agree enthusiastically for DJW practices to be enforced and run for all age groups. However, one of the two teachers asserted that it is the matter of time if it is going to be run for adults. Since adults are usually pressed for time, this could be a hindrance point for those age groups. In response to another question as to utilizing DJW for multi-level classes, both teachers agreed forcefully that such reflective practices can really bridge in the gap among learners with various levels and language proficiencies. Among the reasons brought was more efficient time management for class periods. Still another positive aspect could include the opportunity that the learners can gain in reading their other classmates' journals published by the teacher supervision.

CONCLUSION

In a nutshell, the gained benefits for journaling practices specifically for adults have also been verified by many researchers in the field. Stress reduction and health maintenance has been mentioned by Bruce (1998). Adams (1998) also talks about journaling as a therapy for enhancing psychological healing and growth. Most adult education

students may not need psychotherapy or medical recovery assistance, but some can use whatever helps them to release pent-up emotions, counter anger or frustration, and overcome or reduce the stress so typical in today's busy work world and lifestyle. Peyton (1987) even adds that other academic disciplines improve if journal writing is systematically included in the curriculum.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Concerning the DJW processes, there are usually two drawbacks reported in the literature: First, this activity requires considerable time commitment by the teacher to read and respond meaningfully to each learner's entry. To lessen the workload, the teacher can require learners to write two or three times a week instead of daily. This might have a probable impact on the final results, by prospect. Second, some adult students may be reluctant to participate in journal writing continuously. If this were the case, the ESL/EFL instructor may want to engage the learners in the process of writing for an extended period of time which due to time restriction and four-month schedules of academic semesters, the authors had to manage it during just one semester for the target group. Maybe further research work on other aspects of the whole self-report dialogue journal writing processes through longitudinal case studies in language centers that allow for longer periods of time.

POSSIBLE SUGGESTIONS

In this regard, some promising suggestions might be considered. One way could be to hold in-service courses for teachers in order to train them for reflective thinking and dialogue practice mechanisms which really benefit the class time. Through participating in journal writing courses together collaboratively, teachers may augment more dialogic skills. Still another proposition can be to lessen the workload for the teachers. As the learners sometimes get tired of writing, so do their teachers. Meanwhile, this might have been the reason for not providing suitable phrases or providing repetitive verbiage on the part of the teachers. They can require their students for instance to write and report their feelings and impressions two or three times a week instead of daily.

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A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE EFFECTIVENESS OF FOCUS ON FORM AND FOCUS ON FORMS INSTRUCTIONS ON CONDITIONAL SENTENCE LEARNING BY IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

This quasi-experimental study attempted to compare the effectiveness of focus on form instruction with focus on forms instruction on conditional sentence learning to Iranian pre-intermediate English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. To this end, six intact classes involving 97 participants who had gained pre-intermediate level scores on the proficiency test and showed relative unfamiliarity with the target structures on the pretest were assigned into three groups. The study employed a pretest, posttest, delayed posttest design and multiple choice type achievement tests were used to measure the effects of treatment. The focus on form group received textual enhancement, contextualized explicit teaching, and dictogloss; the focus on forms group received explicit deductive grammar instruction. Moreover, the control group was taught reading passages containing the conditional structures. The findings indicated a significant difference among the performance of the three groups on both immediate and delayed posttests with focus on form group outperforming the focus on forms and the control groups. The findings also showed a significant difference between the mean scores of the two posttests of each group. Finally, this study suggests that a focus on form instruction can lead to higher accuracy in learning grammatical knowledge in comparison to focus on forms.

KEYWORDS: focus on form, focus on forms, planned focus on form, textual enhancement, dictogloss

INTRODUCTION

Among the issues in second and foreign language teaching and learning, there has always been significant controversy about whether and how to include "grammar" in second/foreign language instruction/acquisition (Doughty & Williams, 1988). In this regard, with the appearance of form-focused instruction (FFI), as a modification of communicative language teaching, a shift occurred from incidental and implicit grammar teaching instruction to formal and meaningful grammar teaching syllabus. Long (1988) suggested that FFI can be of two types: Focus on form, and focus on forms. Long (1991) defined focus on form as "an instruction that draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (p. 45-46). On the other hand, focus on forms instruction refers to teaching isolated linguistic forms in separate lessons in accordance with a structural syllabus.

Further, Ellis (2001) used FFI as a cover term to refer to any planned or incidental instructional activity that is aimed to direct language learners to linguistic form. Compared to Long's taxonomies of FFI, Ellis (2001) categorizes it in terms of three types including "focus on forms", "planned focus on form", and "incidental focus on form". Thus, it includes both traditional approaches to teaching forms and more communicative approaches.

In focus on forms instruction, the primary attention is on form and instruction is the intensive treatment of preselected forms. In planned focus on form, however, the teacher decides in advance what forms should be focused on, but the primary attention lies on meaning rather than on form. In incidental focus on form, attention is distributed among a wide range of forms that have not been preselected, but the primary of attention is to meaning (Ellis, 2001).

Focus on Form Instruction

Focus on form instruction suggests that learners need to develop communicative use while attention to form should not be overlooked by them. This kind of instruction stresses on the integration of form and meaning without excluding either of them for successful language learning (Izumi & Bigelow, 2001). After focus on form instruction was put forward, many researchers have proposed various options for integrating a focus on grammar and a focus on

communication and many strategies have been used for this purpose (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). Some of these techniques are presented below.

Textual enhancement

Textual enhancement is one of several techniques of input enhancement manipulated in this study. In textual enhancement, readers/learners attend to particular information in a text with typographical cues including coloring, boldfacing, underlining, italicizing, changing the font type, enlarging the font size, or any combination of these techniques (Wong, 2005). Textual enhancement aims to present more salient features of written input to which learners may not usually attend in a text and to make form-meaning connections for the target language.

Dictogloss

Dictogloss is a kind of collaborative output task designed to encourage students to produce language forms cooperatively by reconstructing a text. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) defined collaborative output as "instructional options that push learners to produce output by performing tasks that require them to pay attention to both meaning and grammatical forms." (p. 103). In a dictogloss, teachers usually read a text to their students at a normal pace. Students listen to the text and note any words or phrases related to the content. Then, they work in small groups to reconstruct the text in terms of grammatical accuracy and cohesion (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Focus on Forms Instruction

Focus on forms instruction "is equated with the traditional teaching of discrete points of grammar in separate lessons" (Sheen, 2002, p.303). The primary purpose of the activity designed for this kind of instruction is to learn a pre-selected form. It is based on analytic syllabus and the teacher and students are aware of what the linguistic target for the lesson is.

Focus on forms has also been defined as "instruction involving a structure of the day approach, where the primary focus is on the form that is being targeted" (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002, p.420). In this type of instruction, learners are required to focus their attention on some specific form intensively in order to learn it. It also offers different means for understanding of grammar (including explaining grammar rules in the L1, identifying differences between the L1 and the L2).

Studies on Form-Focused Instruction

Many different models and strategies are designed for conducting a form-focused study. Lee (2007) examined the effects of input enhancement on learners' reading comprehension and learning of passive forms. The results showed that in the form correction task the participants with enhanced texts performed better than those with the unenhanced texts. The findings also revealed that manipulation of printing in bold had positive effects on Korean students' acquisition of passive voice in English. Moreover, in another study, Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, and Doughty (1995, cited in Nassaji & Fotos, 2011) showed that the learners of enhancement group performed better than unenhanced group in both noticing and subsequent production of the target forms.

Mayo (2002) investigated the effect of two focus on form tasks (a dictogloss and a text reconstruction) in advanced EFL level. Although the two tasks had been claimed to be effective and encouraging learners to produce language and reflect on its form (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Swain 1998), the quantitative analysis of the data indicated that the text-reconstruction task was a suitable form-focused task for this group of learners.

Sheen (2001) conducted an on-going comparative research for the last school year in an elementary school in Quebec. For the study, two sixth grade classes were taught, one of which was considered the control group with the usual focus on form instruction. The experimental group was taught as usual except that the researcher was allowed to provide a focus on forms for approximately one hour a week. Both groups achieved very similar results in pretest. After two months they took a posttest in the form of oral interviews which were broadly similar to the pretest. The result of this study showed that a focus on forms approach helped students in the experimental group to make solid progress in the two targeted grammar areas, while the control group, which was taught based on a focus on form, continued producing largely incorrect forms, thus allowing fossilization to continue to develop.

Some research studies have also been conducted in Iran (Abdolmanafi, 2010, Charanli, 2010, Mokhberi, 2011, etc.) to investigate the effectiveness of focus on form instruction on learning some target forms; however, to the best of the researchers' knowledge no studies have so far compared the effectiveness of a combination of input enhancement, delayed explicit focus on form and an output-based task (a dictogloss) as a model for focus on form instruction with explicit deductive grammar teaching as a model of focus on forms instruction on conditional sentence learning by Iranian pre-intermediate English language learners.

Conditionals

The present study focused on conditionals as the target structures because of the syntactic and semantic complexities embedded in conditional constructions (Chou, 2000). The difficulty degrees of conditionals in English can be related to the structures themselves. Mindt (1996) also argued that conditionals complexity and particular tense uses in comparison with other sentential patterns turn them into fairly problematic constructions, both in first and second language acquisition. Moreover, conditionals consist of main clauses and subordinate clauses which are difficult for students to comprehend because of the syntactic complexity (Lord, 2002).

Nayef and Hajjaj (1997) suggested three points in teaching conditionals: "forms of the verbs, the time reference of the verbs, and the meaning of the condition in each of the patterns" (p.140). They also pointed that the difficulty of conditionals lies in the interaction of forms (verb form changes) and meanings. It seems that asymmetry between forms and functions in conditionals may cause serious problems for L2 learners. Likewise, the agreement of the forms of two verbs in the two clauses of a conditional sentence is the source of difficulty for learners (Ke, 2004). So, the present study centered on all the three basic patterns of conditionals.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to compare the effectiveness of focus on form and focus on forms instructions on the conditional sentence learning of Iranian pre-intermediate English language learners, the following research questions were developed:

1. Is there any significant difference among the language learners who were instructed through focus on the form, focus on the forms, and control group in learning of conditionals in the immediate posttest?
2. Is there any significant difference among the language learners who were instructed through focus on the form, focus on the forms, and control group in learning of conditionals in the delayed posttest?
3. Is there any significant difference between the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest scores of the language learners who were instructed through focus on the form, focus on the forms, and control group in learning of conditionals?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

To accomplish the objectives of this study, 112 male and female EFL learners of six intact classes from two private language institutes in Iran were given a homogeneity test (44 males in three intact classes and 68 females in three intact classes, respectively). These learners were at pre-intermediate level of language instruction based on the screening system used by the two institutes' authorities but for increasing homogeneity of the students of two institutes, all the learners were given a homogeneity test. In the test, a table of interpreting scores acts as a guideline for teachers to choose which level is suitable for their students. From among the initial participants, 105 learners gained the scores range of pre-intermediate level in the test.

In the next step, learners were pretested by means of a multiple-choice test to determine their level of knowledge with regard to the target structures. One hundred and one learners met the necessary condition. Four learners were absent in one of the phases and their scores were omitted from the study, thus making the final number of data providers 97. These six intact classes were put into three groups randomly; two groups as the experimental groups (focus on form group, $n = 33$ and focus on forms group, $n = 32$), and the third as the control group ($n = 32$). Each of these three groups included one female's class and one male's class and all learners had Persian as their first language.

Instrumentation

As mentioned above, *Solutions* placement test with a reliability of .80 was used to find out the degree of homogeneity with regard to the language knowledge of the three groups. This test has been designed to assess students' knowledge of the key language as well as their receptive and productive skills. The next instrument used in

this study was an achievement test containing 30 items, 20 of which were related to the target structure and were used for statistical analyses. The other ten items were not related to the targets of the study. The items were taken from *Objective test in English as a foreign language*, *Nelson English language tests*, and *Grammar in use tests*. This test was also used as a delayed posttest two weeks after the treatment to compare the recall of the target structures in posttest and delayed posttest.

A third instrument was a 30 item multiple-choice type achievement test on English conditional sentences parallel with pretest administered to the participants after the treatment as a posttest. Both tests were piloted on 20 learners similar to the sample of the current study with the difference that these students were familiar with the target structures. The reliability of the pretest and posttest scores was calculated through KR-21 method which turned out to be 0.72 and 0.70 respectively. A time allocation of 20 minutes was also estimated for both tests.

For treatment, in the experimental group 1 (focus on form group), one passage for textual enhancement purpose and one passage for dictogloss purpose were extracted for each type of conditional structures. As a whole, six passages were extracted for this group. In focus on forms group five types of exercises and drills (fill in the blanks, consolidation drill, matching, chain drill, and correcting order) were acquired for each type of the target structure. In control group, two passages for reading comprehension purpose were extracted for each structure. Most of the passages used in this group were the same as the passages of the focus on form group.

Procedure

This study was conducted in the summer of 2012 at two private language institutes which adhered to a meaning driven syllabus with almost similar educational conditions and facilities. In these two institutes, each session lasted 90 minutes and the classes met two times a week. The instructional treatments were provided during three training sessions for each group, each of these sessions lasted approximately 60 minutes.

All groups (six intact classes) received the instructions from the same instructor who was also one of the researchers. The two instructional treatments were matched for the target structure, and all three groups were matched for instruction time. Each session focused on one type of conditional structure. Before the treatment, two tests were administered. A homogeneity test was administered to all three groups to find out whether the participants were at pre-intermediate level. Another test was a pretest administered to discover whether the participants had almost similar familiarity with three main forms of conditional sentence structures. One session after the pretest, the learners participated in the study treatment. At the beginning, the researcher-instructor presented overall instructions about the experiment in each group. In each session for the focus on form group (experimental group 1), input enhancement activity, delayed explicit focus on form, and dictogloss for each structure were presented to participants for focus on form purpose.

For input enhancement activity, in each session the participants were provided with one reading passage which contained one type of conditional structure. The target forms were typographically enhanced through bolding, italicizing and underling. In detail, the If-clauses including the word *if*, two verbs of if-clauses and comma (if necessary) used in the passages given to this group is visually enhanced. After reading the passages the participants were asked to complete certain tasks. The task required the learners to use the conditional sentences in the different contexts. It should be mentioned that the primary attention was on meaning.

After being exposed to the target structure, the learners were taught the features of language they had already attended to meaningfully in a contextualized explicit instruction. For example, one sentence of the passage containing an if-clause which had been textually enhanced was considered and the structure was explained to the learners. This was followed by an output-oriented task which was a dictogloss. The teacher read aloud a text containing the target structures three times. The participants initially listened to the reading, next took notes, and later checked their notes and reconstructed the original text which contained the target structure with the other members of the group.

Experimental group 2 received focus on forms instruction. In this group, first, the participants were provided with grammar rules of the target structure, and then five activities related to focus on forms instruction were done by the

participants individually or in group. The types of exercises were traditional drill (fill in the blanks), consolidation drill, matching, chain drill, and putting the words in correct orders. It should be mentioned that the grammar rules were explained in participants' mother tongue (Persian) and in each of these phases if a student used the target structure wrongly, the teacher corrected it or asked the student or the other student to take part in its correction.

In control group, the members were provided with two reading passages, containing the target structures, in each session and did reading comprehension exercises for about 60 minutes; it should be reiterated, however, that they were not taught the target structures explicitly. All the passages used for both focus on form and control groups in this study incorporated different topics and were taken from different sources including Chinese speakers' acquisition of English conditionals: Acquisition order and L1 transfer effects., *Interchange* (3rded). Some passages used as dictogloss were also retrieved from: [http:// www.Englishpage.com](http://www.Englishpage.com).

After the treatment, all the participants were unexpectedly tested on the target structures with an immediate posttest. Two weeks after the posttest, a delayed posttest which was the same as the pretest was administered to examine both short- and medium-term effects of the instructions. It should be mentioned that before starting the study all of the test items, exercises, and passages used in this study has been also checked by another teacher who had more than five years of experience in English language teaching. As a result, some of the items were modified to be more suitable for learners of pre-intermediate level. The readability of all of the passages used in the study was also calculated based on Flesh-Kincaid Reading Ease. The result showed that all used passages were relatively suitable for pre-intermediate level learners.

RESULTS

The results of the study are presented in the following two main sections: (1) result of the pretest, (2) results of testing the hypotheses.

Result of the Pretest

Table 1 shows the group statistics results of the three groups in the pretest. In order to decide upon the homogeneity of the variances of the two groups, a Levene's test was deployed. It indicated that the three groups were homogeneous in terms of their variances, $F(2, 94) = 1.028, p = 0.362 > 0.05$. Therefore, in order to ensure that there was no significant difference among the three groups in terms of their knowledge of the conditional structures, an ANOVA was conducted. The comparison of the means in the pretest, $F(2, 94) = .434, p = 0.649 > 0.05$, indicated that there was no statistically significant difference among the performance of the three groups in the pretest indicating the relative unfamiliarity of participants with the target structures.

Table 1: Group Statistics for the Achievement Pretest

groups	N	Minimum	Mean	Median	Maximum	Std. Deviation
Focus on Form	33	2	4.61	5.00	8	1.713
Focus on Forms	32	1	4.28	4.00	8	1.631
Control Group	32	1	4.59	5.00	7	1.388
Total	97	1	4.49	4.00	8	1.575

Results of Testing the Hypotheses

The comparison of the mean values of the three groups in the immediate posttest indicated that the difference between the means of the three groups was statistically significant. Table 2 shows the group statistics for the immediate posttest.

Table 2: Group Statistics for the Immediate Posttest

Groups	N	Minimum	Mean	Median	Maximum	Std. Deviation
Focus on Form	33	6	13.06	13.00	20	4.077
Focus on Forms	32	5	11.28	11.00	19	3.245
Control Group	32	3	6.91	7.00	11	2.161

Total	97	3	10.44	10.00	20	4.148
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Levene's test for homogeneity of variances showed a significant value of 0.003 for the immediate posttest. The ANOVA results demonstrated that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the three groups, $F(2, 94) = 30.404, p = 0.000 < 0.05$ (see Table 3).

Table 3: ANOVA Results for the Immediate Posttest

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	648.872	2	324.436	30.404	.000
Within Groups	1003.066	94	10.671		
Total	1651.938	96			

Since the ANOVA results indicated a significant value of 0.000, the multiple comparisons among groups were performed by using least square differences (LSD) to determine which groups were significantly different from each other. As the first line (row) of Table 4 shows, the mean difference (MD) of focus on form and focus on forms group was 1.779 which revealed that focus on form group was better than focus on forms group. Moreover, when focus on form group and control group were compared with each other, the result showed that there was a significant difference between them ($MD = 6.154, sig = .000$). As line two shows, the mean difference of focus on forms and control group was 4.375 which revealed that focus on forms group was better than control group.

Table 4: Multiple Comparisons(LSD) for the Immediate Posttest

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LSD focus on form	focus on forms	1.779*	.810	.031	.17	3.39
	control group	6.154*	.810	.000	4.55	7.76
focus on forms	focus on form	-1.779*	.810	.031	-3.39	-.17
	control group	4.375*	.817	.000	2.75	6.00
control group	focus on form	-6.154*	.810	.000	-7.76	-4.55
	focus on forms	-4.375*	.817	.000	-6.00	-2.75

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Regarding to comparison of the mean values of the three groups on the delayed posttest, group statistics showed a significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups (see Table 5).

Table 5: Group Statistics for the Delayed Posttest

Groups	N	Minimum	Mean	Median	Maximum	Std. Deviation
Focus on Form	33	5	10.48	10.00	19	4.154
Focus on Forms	32	3	7.91	7.00	18	3.383
Control Group	32	3	5.75	6.00	9	1.778
Total	97	3	8.07	7.00	19	3.778

Table 6: ANOVA for the Delayed Posttest

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	365.534	2	182.767	17.095	.000
Within Groups	1004.961	94	10.691		
Total	1370.495	96			

Levene's test for homogeneity of variances showed a significance value of 0.001 for the delayed posttest. As Table 6 displays, the ANOVA results demonstrated that there were significant differences among the mean scores of the three groups, $F(2, 94) = 17.095, p = 0.000 < 0.05$.

As Table 7 shows, the post hoc LSD test displayed the notably significant differences between focus on form group and focus on forms group ($MD = 2.579, sig = 0.002$) which revealed that focus on form group was better than focus

on forms group. Moreover, when the delayed posttest scores of focus on form group and control group were compared, a significant difference was found ($MD = 4.735$, $sig = .000$). As line two shows, the mean difference of focus on forms and control group was 2.156 which revealed that focus on forms group was better than control group.

Table 7: Multiple Comparisons (LSD) for the Delayed Posttest Scores

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
LSD	focus on form	focus on forms	2.579*	.811	.002	.97	4.19
		control group	4.735*	.811	.000	3.12	6.35
	focus on forms	focus on form	-2.579*	.811	.002	-4.19	-.97
		control group	2.156*	.817	.010	.53	3.78
control group	focus on form	-4.735*	.811	.000	-6.35	-3.12	
	focus on forms	-2.156*	.817	.010	-3.78	-.53	

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 8 also shows a significant difference between the mean scores of each group in the immediate and delayed posttests.

Table 8: Summary of Paired Samples Statistics for the immediate posttest-delayed posttest scores

groups			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
focus on form	Pair 1	delayed posttest	10.48	33	4.154	.723
		immediate posttest	13.06	33	4.077	.710
focus on forms	Pair 1	delayed posttest	7.91	32	3.383	.598
		immediate posttest	11.28	32	3.245	.574
control group	Pair 1	delayed posttest	5.75	32	1.778	.314
		immediate posttest	6.91	32	2.161	.382

As shown in Table 9, there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the immediate and delayed posttests in focus on form group ($t = 7.023$, $df = 32$, $sig.$ (two-tailed) = $0.000 < 0.05$). It could be concluded that the participants gained better scores in the immediate posttest with the mean of 13.06 than in the delayed posttest with the mean of 10.48. There is also a significant difference between the mean scores of the immediate and delayed posttests in focus on forms group ($t = 6.573$, $df = 31$, $sig.$ (two-tailed) = $0.000 < 0.05$). It showed that the participants obtained better scores in the immediate posttest with the mean of 11.28 than in the delayed posttest with the mean of 7.91.

In control group, $t = 4.773$, $df = 31$, $sig.$ (two-tailed) = $0.000 < 0.05$ revealed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of these posttests in control group. Table 9 also displays that the participants of control group gained better scores in the immediate posttest with the mean scores of 6.91 than in the delayed posttest with the mean scores of 5.75. Based on the indicated results, it can be concluded that the participants of all three groups had better performance in the immediate posttest than in the delayed posttest.

Table 9: Paired Samples T-test of the Immediate posttest-Delayed Posttest Scores

groups			Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
						Lower				Upper
focus on form	Pair1	delayed posttest–immediate posttest	-2.576	2.107	.367	-3.323	-1.829	-7.023	32	.000
focus on forms	Pair1	delayed posttest–immediate posttest	-3.375	2.904	.513	-4.422	-2.328	-6.573	31	.000

control group	Pair1	delayed posttest– immediate posttest	-1.156	1.370	.242	-1.650	-.662	-4.773	31	.000
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DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was mainly to compare the relative effects of the two instructions of focus on form including textual enhancement, contextualized explicit grammar teaching, and dictogloss with focus on forms including explicit deductive grammar instruction in learning of the three basic patterns of conditional sentence learning of Iranian pre-intermediate students.

In the first and second questions concerning the existence of a significant difference among the three groups in the immediate as well as the delayed posttest, the results indicated that the students who were taught based on focus on form instruction outperformed those who were taught based on focus on forms instruction in both immediate and delayed posttests. Therefore, the results suggested that the manipulation of focus on form instruction could facilitate the participants' learning of conditional structures. The findings also revealed that, the control group, which received non-formal instruction, did not significantly improve their scores on the posttests. The results are in accordance with the Long's claim that a focus on form approach is more effective than both focus on forms and focus on meaning (Long & Robinson, 1998 cited in Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). There are four interpretations of why the focus on form instruction might be more effective than focus on forms instruction in this study. First, when learners read the enhanced passages, they tended to naturally pay attention to the highlighted target forms unknown to them. It is in accordance with the Sharwood Smith's view (1993) that the effects of focusing learners' attention to specific aspects of input can lead to further cognitive processing. Second, contextualized explicit teaching of the target structures created an opportunity for the teacher to explain the grammar points by the use of the enhanced text. Third, using dictogloss as a collaborative output task helped learners to reflect on their own language output, and encouraged them to cooperate with their peers in the group and learned from each other. Finally, this model of focus on form instruction was designed in such a way that provided learners with opportunities to do both input and output tasks for learning the target structures.

In the third question concerning the possible existence of a significant difference between the immediate posttest and the delayed posttest scores of the three groups, results revealed that in all three groups the gains were not maintained in the longer term. However, the findings lead us to assume that focus on form instruction has more lasting positive effect than focus on forms instruction. More specifically, the results of this study suggest that lasting instructional effects can be obtained through providing learners with opportunities to use the target form in a meaning-oriented task in combination with appropriate form-focused treatment.

CONCLUSION

First of all, this study can conclude that although both instructions are effective, focus on form instruction is more effective than focus on forms instruction. Moreover, though the time lag of two weeks between immediate posttest and delayed posttest revealed that the gains were not maintained in the medium term, the improvements in the mean scores of the two posttests when compared to the pretest suggested that for the two experimental groups, especially focus on form group, learning of the target structures had taken place to a great extent. So, it cannot be denied that focus on form instruction has more lasting positive effect on grammar learning than focus on forms instruction. This conclusion seems to be consistent with Spada's (1997) claim that when grammar points introduced through formal instruction are accompanied with communicative exposure for the learners, their accuracy of use improves and their awareness of the forms becomes longer-lasting. This study also brings into light the advantage of integrating form and meaning in EFL contexts and the facilitative function of combination of input enhancement, explicit teaching, and collaborative output task in L2 learning. In this study, the focus on form instruction included the combination of two techniques of textual enhancement and dictogloss with the former being a kind of input-based task and the latter a kind of output task. It is in accordance with Swain's (2005) claim that the most effective strategy for most teaching situations is to use all the techniques and resources available and not to limit oneself to one type of activity. The study also support the current view which encourage teachers to combine different techniques of focus on form as a design for focus on form instruction, such as rule instruction (Alanen, 1995) and output tasks (Izumi, 2002).

Although there have been a lot of research studies in the literature regarding the comparative examination of the effect of different types and techniques of focus on form, very little research has directly compared the effectiveness of focus on form and focus on forms approach (Ellis, 2002). Moreover, it is difficult to compare the results of this study with the results of other studies which investigated FFI together with a communicative task because different studies use different numbers of grammatical structures, different types and techniques of focus on form instruction, and use different ways to measure learning. However, the findings revealed that focus on form instruction is more effective than focus on forms and focus on meaning on the learning of grammar, lending support to findings in previous studies on the effects of different types of focus on form instruction on the grammar learning. Therefore, the present study could be considered as an additional support for focus on form instruction in comparison with focus on forms instruction.

However, the findings should be interpreted by taking into account the limitations of the study. The first limitation is related to the sample size. It should be noted that the number of participants is not large enough to generalize the conclusions to all pre-intermediate English language learners. Moreover, the use of intact groups imposes its own limitations on generalizability of the findings. Second, the placement test which was used to check the homogeneity of the participants was the Solution Placement test which is lesser known and used standard test. Third, this study only focused on learning three grammatical structures through some techniques of focus on form and focus on forms instructions by the pre-intermediate English language learners; therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to the whole grammar or other structures in English. Hence, future research necessity to investigate the effects of different techniques of focus on form and focus on forms instructions in learning of various grammatical structures on learners with different proficiency levels. Moreover, the effects of longer duration of treatment need to be addressed to gain more understanding on the effect of long-term retention on the conditional structures.

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ON THE IRANIAN EFL GRADUATES' RECOGNITION OF SEMANTIC OPAQUENESS OF EUPHEMISTIC EXPRESSIONS IN ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to probe into the semantic opaqueness of English euphemisms and investigate it in view of the maxims of cooperative principle based on the mindset of Iranian EFL graduates. For this purpose, data from 100 Iranian EFL graduates on 60 English euphemistic expressions were collected and analyzed. The results indicated that interlocutors do not constantly observe the CP maxims but recurrently flout them, while using euphemisms. In this vein, considering the rate of flouting, the manner maxim ranked first and the quantity maxim ranked last. Besides, concerning EFL learners' recognition of semantic opaqueness in English euphemisms, the supremacy of flouting of the manner maxim revealed that interlocutors have frequent tendency to do flout and say vague things to avoid unpleasant and embarrassing issues in a direct way. So it supported the idea that EFL learners' recognition of English euphemisms can characterize the semantic opaqueness of English euphemisms. It was finally concluded that due to semantic opaqueness, a potential threat to EFL learners could be their being unenlightened about the implications of the shades of meanings of euphemisms when they are exposed to them, or when they are recognizing or producing discourse.

KEYWORDS: Cooperative principle, euphemism, maxim, semantic opaqueness.

INTRODUCTION

It seems axiomatic that in every culture there are a fair number of words labeled as frivolous, vulgar, or uncaring. Also, there are certain things that are not supposed to be mentioned directly. Such roundabout type of language is known as euphemism in linguistics, which comes in a variety of forms and is used for a variety of reasons.

According to Kenworthy (1991), the word euphemism "is taken from Greek and means good speech" (p.20). Also, Abrams (1999) holds that "euphemisms are devices to replace unpleasant words or expressions by conventionally more acceptable ones" (p.83). Besides, Thomas (1989) believes that "euphemism can be figuratively called 'a whitewashing device' which is a mirror of morality, customs, lifestyle, and social psychology in everyday life" (p.103).

The relationship between euphemism and culture is also largely noticeable. Euphemism, as a cultural-linguistic product, displays its multiple mapping relations with culture (Rawson, 1995). Likewise, as a social tool, it is widely used to show courtesy; to help to fit to the proper context; and to express the ideas more politely (Allan & Burridge, 2007). Meanwhile, conducting investigations into the euphemisms in view of the pedagogical and socio-pragmatic implications can be noteworthy, as at the educational level, learning euphemisms well means more than merely mastering the pronunciation, words, and grammar (Alkire, 2002). In the same vein, learning euphemisms could mean learning to see the world as the native speakers of language see and understand it (Allan & Burridge, 1991).

In brief, though euphemism can be defined from varied perspectives (Allan & Burridge, 1991, 2007; Rawson, 1995; Alkire, 2002), the definitions share some features, as follows:

1. Euphemism is a kind of polite, roundabout, and gracious mode of expression.
2. Euphemism is used to mitigate the unpleasantness of reality.
3. The main purpose of euphemism is to shun directly speaking out the unpleasant or taboo reference like death, illnesses, and the supernatural.

Chronological aspects in the study of euphemisms

In a valuable legacy, Mencken (1936) explained why hundreds of euphemisms were born and popularized based on the historical and sociocultural backgrounds. Besides, Enright (1985) put forward a collection of essays providing clues for a comprehensive study on English euphemisms in various fields. Later on, Dingfang (1989) expanded the study scope of euphemisms and proposed distant, relevant, sweet-sounding, and self-defending principles. Alternatively, Allan and Burridge (1991) studied euphemisms from a pragmatic perspective, assuming that a perspective on the human psyche was gained from euphemisms as a protective shield against the disapproval of natural beings. On the other hand, Hodge and Kress (1993) investigated the dichotomy of 'euphemistic' and 'derogatory' and claimed it as one of the very effective techniques in naturalization of ideologies. More to the point, Rawson (1995) widely accounted for the characteristics, definition, classification, and scope of euphemisms. Also, Holder (1995) in the study of euphemisms endeavored to unmask the language of deceit and highlighted human tendency to use roundabout terms in preference to bluntly accurate words.

At the chime of the 21st century, Hong-hui (2000) indicated that euphemistic wording can meet the requirements and accomplish the communicative task. Alternatively, van Dijk (2004) resorted to social, cognitive and discourse analysis of the text to uncover ideology in discourse, and used 'euphemism' to elucidate 'positive self-representation' and 'negative other-representation'. Also, Ham (2005) studied euphemism formation by extracting examples from Austen's *Emma*, Lawrence's *Lady Chatterly's Lover*, and Walker's *Well Groomed*. Then, the rules by Warren (1992)'s model of classification were tested against euphemisms which transpired that improvements were required to account for deconstructing euphemisms.

In a more recent study, Jangjorn (2004) investigated the Internet users' techniques in avoiding impolite words on the Web boards, the most common ways of which were shown to be pausing, changing letters, clipping, spelling, employing loanwords, and using metaphors. Alternatively, Fernandez (2006) examined the euphemistic language on obituary pages from the 19th century, the results of which indicated a tendency to present sentimental obituaries in which the taboo of death could be accounted for by various conceptual metaphors. At the same time, Rahimi and Sahragard (2006) took van Dijk's framework in the analysis of euphemisms and investigated the discursive structures which lead to ideologically based prejudiced statements in emails addressing the death of the late Pope, John Paul II.

More recently, Hai-Long (2008) paid particular attention to the relationship between cross-cultural communication and euphemisms as well as the necessity of teaching euphemisms and argued that there were not enough instances of euphemisms in EFL textbooks and materials. In the same vein, MirzaSuzani (2009) paid attention to the translation of euphemism addressing issues of background, classification, and semantic equivalence, based on which euphemism study was not restricted to the lexicon, but extended to the level of sentence and discourse.

Grice's maxims of cooperative principle

Grice (1975) considered verbal exchanges as oriented to a set of purposes, for achieving which the participants should cooperate with each other. Also, he described cooperative principles as "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (1989, pp. 26-27). For further explanation of the CP, he proposed four maxims as follows:

- A. Maxim of Quantity: Give the right amount of information.
 - a. Make your contribution as informative as is required;
 - b. Do not make your contribution more informative as is required.
- B. Maxim of Quality: Try to make your contribution one that is true.
 - a. Do not say what you believe to be false;
 - b. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
- C. Maxim of Relation: Be relevant.
- D. Maxim of Manner: Be perspicuous and specific.
 - a. Avoid obscurity of expression;
 - b. Avoid ambiguity;
 - c. Be brief;
 - d. Be orderly.

For the most part, the CP accounted for the relationship between the literal and actual meanings, but it could not explain why people violate the maxims so as to express themselves in an indirect way, so Leech (1983) proposed the

PP from the pragmatic viewpoint based on which it was justified why speakers resort to such oblique methods as, for example, instead of saying tersely "Give me a light." they say "Could you give me a light?" He connected illocutionary acts with politeness in the verbal exchange wherein to be polite means to be tactful, modest and nice to others and the more indirect the illocution, the more polite it should be reevaluated.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Considering the semantic facet of euphemisms, a potential threat to the learners could be that they might be unenlightened about the implications of the shades of meanings of euphemisms when they are exposed to them, or when they are recognizing or producing discourse. This may be mainly due to an important feature of euphemisms called semantic opaqueness (or noncompositionality) defined by Moon (1997) as "the degree to which a multiple-word item cannot be interpreted on a word-by-word basis, but has a specialized unitary meaning" (p.44). Therefore, this study primarily aimed to probe into the semantic opaqueness as a part of the pragmatic function of euphemisms in English and investigate this feature through the maxims of CP. In this vein, it was also aimed to examine which maxims of CP might be flouted most and least via the use of euphemisms and euphemistic expressions. The results could provide the readers with a lucid idea about the euphemisms while flouting the CP maxims and pave the way for further studies at discursal and socio-pragmatic levels.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this study, the following research questions were made:

1. Do Iranian EFL graduates observe or flout the maxims of CP while using social euphemisms in English?
2. To what extent do EFL graduates observe or flout the maxims of CP while using social euphemisms in English?
3. Which maxims of CP are flouted most and least by Iranian EFL graduates?
4. Does Iranian EFL graduates' recognition of English euphemisms characterize the semantic opaqueness of social euphemisms in English?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

In the current study, the following null hypotheses were addressed:

1. EFL graduates may not observe or flout the maxims of CP while using social euphemisms in English.
2. At no time may EFL graduates observe or flout the maxims of CP while using social euphemisms in English.
3. There is no difference among CP maxims in terms of being flouted by EFL graduates.
4. The Iranian EFL graduates' recognition of English euphemisms may not characterize the semantic opaqueness of social euphemisms in English.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Following a quantitative research design, the data were collected from 100 participants ranging between 23 to 35 years of age in 2012. They comprised 100 MA and PhD students of TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz Branch and Fars Science and Research Branch. The nonrandom purposive selection of participants from the graduate programs was based on the assumption that in comparison with undergraduates, they should hold and carry higher experiences and analytic abilities in their judgment, as well as detailed familiarity with linguistic and pedagogical issues. It was also expected that participants from the graduate programs could develop their potential insights into more effective procedures related to the recognition and appreciation of euphemisms.

Materials

In this research, instances of euphemistic expressions were taken from *Rawson's dictionary of euphemisms and other double talks* (1995), and Allan and Burridge's *Euphemism and dysphemism* (1991). Likewise, Grice's maxims of CP (1975) in Logic and Conversation were employed as the frameworks for developing the questionnaire items. Also, some online data banks and relevant Internet sites were used, and for analyzing the data the SPSS software was employed.

Instruments

A questionnaire containing 60 items on euphemistic expressions in view of the CP maxims was designed and validated under the supervision of experts such as Professor Yarmohammadi (See Appendix 1). To improve the quality of the data, it was exceedingly attempted that the relevancy and clarity of the questions be taken into account. In the same vein, to demonstrate the internal consistency of the items, the Cronbach's alpha reliability was calculated

which yielded a reliability estimate of 0.86 for the questionnaire that was statistically satisfactory regarding the purpose of the study.

Data collection procedures and data analysis

To collect the data, a questionnaire comprising an inventory of 60 items on English euphemisms together with the maxims CP was employed. The participants were put in a relaxing atmosphere and the necessary instructions on the items of questionnaire were given. The participants' options were based on their recognition of the observance or flouting of the four-fold maxims of CP. They were required to decide on the matter of the observance or flouting of each expression, and tick one or more of the options in front of the respective item. Next, the participants' opinions were collected to investigate the mindset of the graduates about English euphemistic expressions in view of the observance or nonobservance of the CP maxims. The data gathered were sorted out and categorized and the results were analyzed.

FINDINGS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data analysis

Chi-square test was run to examine the significance of the differences between the frequencies of the *observance* or *flouting* of the multiple maxims of CP.

Observance and flouting of the maxims of CP

Concerning the first two research questions, Chi-square was used to examine the significance of the differences between the frequencies of the *observance* or *flouting* of the maxims of CP. Thus, the observed frequencies of the *observance* and *flouting* of the maxims of CP together with the expected values of the *observance* and *flouting* of the maxims were given. Also, the modified values, based on the correction factor proposed by Hatch and Farhady (1981), were calculated and provided to the different frequencies. Then the χ^2 value obtained for each participant was compared with the critical value to decide if the null hypothesis could be rejected. In Table 1, χ^2 and the results of the observance and flouting of the CP maxims are represented:

Table 1: Chi-square on the Observance and Flouting of the CP Maxims for Each Individual Participants

Participant No.	Freq. of CP Maxims Observed (OUT OF 60)	Value (Modified) Based on Correction factor	Value (Expected)	Freq. of CP Maxims Flouted (OUT OF 60)	Value (Modified) Based on Correction factor	Value (Expected)	χ^2 (Obtained)	χ^2 (Critical) P=0.05	Result (Null Hypothesis)
	OBS	+/-0.5	N/2	FLT	+/-0.5	N/2		df=1	+/-
1	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
2	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
3	5	5.5	30	55	54.5	30	40.01	3.84	-
4	28	28.5	30	32	31.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
5	37	36.5	30	23	23.5	30	2.81	3.84	+
6	32	31.5	30	28	28.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
7	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
8	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
9	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
10	10	10.5	30	50	49.5	30	25.35	3.84	-
11	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
12	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
13	4	4.5	30	56	55.5	30	43.35	3.84	-
14	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
15	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
16	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
17	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
18	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-

19	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
20	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
21	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
22	4	4.5	30	56	55.5	30	43.35	3.84	-
23	27	27.5	30	33	32.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
24	35	34.5	30	25	25.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
25	27	27.5	30	33	32.5	30	0.41	3.84	+
26	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
27	37	36.5	30	23	23.5	30	2.81	3.84	+
28	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
29	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
30	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
31	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
32	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
33	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
34	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
35	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
36	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
37	24	24.5	30	36	35.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
38	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
39	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
40	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
41	29	29.5	30	31	30.5	30	0.01	3.84	+
42	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
43	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
44	36	35.5	30	24	24.5	30	2.01	3.84	+
45	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
46	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
47	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
48	6	6.5	30	54	53.5	30	36.81	3.84	-
49	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
50	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
51	32	31.5	30	28	28.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
52	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
53	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
54	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
55	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
56	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
57	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
58	5	5.5	30	55	54.5	30	40.01	3.84	-
59	19	19.5	30	41	40.5	30	7.35	3.84	-
60	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
61	6	6.5	30	54	53.5	30	36.81	3.84	-
62	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
63	14	14.5	30	46	45.5	30	16.01	3.84	-
64	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
65	9	9.5	30	51	50.5	30	28.01	3.84	-
66	4	4.5	30	56	55.5	30	43.35	3.84	-
67	28	28.5	30	32	31.5	30	0.15	3.84	+
68	35	34.5	30	25	25.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
69	26	26.5	30	34	33.5	30	0.81	3.84	+
70	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
71	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
72	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
73	16	16.5	30	44	43.5	30	12.15	3.84	-
74	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
75	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
76	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
77	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
78	18	18.5	30	42	41.5	30	8.81	3.84	-
79	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
80	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
81	25	25.5	30	35	34.5	30	1.35	3.84	+
82	6	6.5	30	54	53.5	30	36.81	3.84	-
83	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
84	13	13.5	30	47	46.5	30	18.15	3.84	-
85	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
86	1	1.5	30	59	58.5	30	54.15	3.84	-
87	28	28.5	30	32	31.5	30	0.15	3.84	+

88	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
90	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
91	2	2.5	30	58	57.5	30	50.41	3.84	-
92	15	15.5	30	45	44.5	30	14.01	3.84	-
93	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
94	22	22.5	30	38	37.5	30	3.75	3.84	+
95	8	8.5	30	52	51.5	30	30.81	3.84	-
96	12	12.5	30	48	47.5	30	20.41	3.84	-
97	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
98	11	11.5	30	49	48.5	30	22.81	3.84	-
99	0	0.5	30	60	59.5	30	58.01	3.84	-
100	20	20.5	30	40	39.5	30	6.01	3.84	-
Total	1260	1259.5	3000	4740	4739.5	3000	2017.24	3.84	-

Since the critical value of χ^2 with 1 *d.f.* is 3.84 for the 0.05 level, so we can feel fairly confident that the null hypothesis claiming that the individuals may not observe or flout the maxims of CP is rejected. In other words, since there is a significant difference between participants in terms of their positions regarding observance and flouting of the CP maxims the data support the idea that the individuals may observe or flout the maxims of CP in specific occasions. To put it another way, in 81 cases out of 100 cases (i.e., 81%) the individuals held that the maxims of CP are either observed or flouted, and as a result, the difference between frequencies of observance and flouting appeared to be significant (since in 81% of the cases calculated, the value of Chi-square at the probability level of 0.05 was larger than the critical value). Alternatively, only in 19% of the cases the value of Chi-square at the probability level of 0.05 was smaller than the critical value. In Table 2, Chi-square and total frequency for observance and flouting of the CP maxims are illustrated:

Table 2: Chi-square and Total Frequency for Observance and Flouting of the CP Maxims

	Observed <i>f</i>	Expected <i>f</i>	<i>O-E</i>	$(O-E)^2$	$(O-E)^2 / E$
Maxim Observance	1260	3000	-1740	$(1260-3000)^2$	$(1260-3000)^2 / 3000$
Maxim Flouting	4740	3000	1740	$(1740-3000)^2$	$(1740-3000)^2 / 3000$

2017.24

Considering χ^2 in Table 2, the null hypothesis in a chi-square goodness-of-fit test states that the sample of observed frequencies supports the claim about the expected frequencies, so the bigger the calculated chi-square value is, the more likely the sample does not conform to the expected frequencies, and therefore we would reject the null hypothesis. Also, it could mean the data may deviate a large amount from the model or from what we thought. To verify the results obtained, the SPSS was employed to calculate the Chi-square for total frequencies, considering the number and opinion of the participants. The results are illustrated in Table 3 and Ta

Table 3: Chi-square Table from the Output (Number and Opinion)

		Opinion		Total
		1(OBS)	2(FLT)	
Number	1260.00	1260	0	1260
	4740.00	0	4740	4740
Total		1260	4740	6000

Table 4: Chi-Square Results for Number and Opinion

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6000.000 ^a	1	.000		
Continuity Correction ^b	5993.974	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	6167.480	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
N of Valid Cases	6000				

Table 3: Chi-square Table from the Output (Number and Opinion)

		Opinion		Total
		1(OBS)	2(FLT)	
Number	1260.00	1260	0	1260
	4740.00	0	4740	4740

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 264.60.
 b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

In Table 4, as $P < .05$, we can feel confident that the null hypothesis claiming that the individuals may not observe or flout the maxims of CP is rejected since the difference between frequencies of observance and flouting appears to be significant.

Flouting of the Maxims of CP

In regard with the last two research questions, particular attention was paid to the maxim of *manner* as it could be an illuminating factor in revealing the semantic opaqueness of euphemistic expressions. Likewise, due to the lack of mutual exclusivity in the participants' options as well as the existence of some overlaps in their options of flouting of the CP maxims, the application of Chi-square test was practically impossible that will be discussed later. Table 5 represents participants' comprehensive profile on the frequency of the flouting of the maxims of CP:

Table 5: Participants' Comprehensive Profile on the Frequency of the Flouting of the Maxims of CP

Participant No.	Freq. of the Type(s) of CP Maxims Flouted (OUT OF 60)				Result
	Quality (Ql)	Quantity (Qt)	Relation (R)	Manner (M)	
1	9	8	2	42	M>Ql>Qt>R
2	13	4	3	42	M>Ql>Qt>R
3	7	17	12	34	M>Qt>R>Ql
4	9	2	9	24	M>Ql=R>Qt
5	8	0	1	19	M>Ql>R>Qt
6	1	1	1	27	M>Ql=Qt=R
7	11	17	15	33	M>Qt>R>Ql
8	16	9	10	14	Ql>M>R>Qt
9	9	22	11	3	Qt>R>Ql>M
10	10	1	8	31	M>Ql>R>Qt
11	17	11	16	3	Ql>R>Qt>M
12	13	10	7	12	Ql>M>Qt>R
13	19	16	11	22	M>Ql>Qt>R
14	20	9	8	15	Ql>M>Qt>R
15	9	1	2	28	M>Ql>R>Qt
16	11	6	9	18	M>Ql>R>Qt
17	15	13	16	24	M>R>Ql>Qt
18	14	13	16	24	M>R>Ql>Qt
19	14	13	16	23	M>R>Ql>Qt
20	6	11	15	17	M>R>Qt>Ql
21	7	11	15	16	M>R>Qt>Ql
22	2	20	24	17	R>Qt>M>Ql
23	28	1	11	26	Ql>M>R>Qt
24	6	11	12	4	R>Qt>Ql>M
25	27	2	11	26	Ql>M>R>Qt
26	9	1	1	28	M>Ql>Qt=R
27	6	0	0	14	M>Ql>Qt=R
28	8	3	3	29	M>Ql>Qt=R
29	9	7	14	15	M>R>Ql>Qt
30	10	2	1	25	M>Ql>Qt>R
31	18	7	28	22	R>M>Ql>Qt
32	19	5	44	23	R>M>Ql>Qt
33	21	3	10	25	M>Ql>R>Qt
34	16	0	10	21	M>Ql>R>Qt
35	13	9	25	14	R>M>Ql>Qt
36	8	12	13	16	M>R>Qt>Ql
37	13	5	6	33	M>Ql>R>Qt
38	24	18	21	3	Ql>R>Qt>M
39	20	9	4	15	Ql>M>Qt>R
40	6	4	5	23	M>Ql>R>Qt
41	10	3	4	21	M>Ql>R>Qt

42	14	7	9	28	M>Ql>R>Qt
43	13	8	12	27	M>Ql>R>Qt
44	10	14	12	19	M>Ql>R>Ql
45	27	2	9	22	Ql>M>R>Qt
46	8	8	4	40	M>Ql=Ql>R
47	12	5	4	41	M>Ql>Qt>R
48	8	19	11	32	M>Qt>R>Ql
49	8	4	9	22	M>R>Ql>Qt
50	16	9	10	15	Ql>M>R>Qt
51	2	2	1	25	M>Ql=Qt>R
52	11	17	15	32	M>Qt>R>Ql
53	9	11	14	22	M>R>Qt>Ql
54	10	1	11	38	M>R>Ql>Qt
55	16	17	11	3	Qt>Ql>R>M
56	13	11	7	16	M>Ql>Qt>R
57	20	9	8	16	Ql>M>Qt>R
58	19	16	12	23	M>Ql>Qt>R
59	9	9	1	29	M>Ql=Qt>R
60	8	9	11	19	M>R>Qt>Ql
61	16	14	16	24	M>R=Ql>Qt
62	16	13	16	22	M>Ql>R>Qt
63	14	8	11	23	M>Ql>R>Qt
64	7	11	15	17	M>R>Qt>Ql
65	8	13	16	19	M>R>Qt>Ql
66	2	19	28	14	R>M>Qt>Ql
67	27	1	12	28	M>Ql>R>Qt
68	6	11	12	5	R>Qt>Ql>M
69	27	2	11	19	Ql>M>R>Qt
70	12	11	9	5	Ql>Qt>R>M
71	9	1	1	28	M>Ql>R=Qt
72	12	14	0	24	M>Qt>Ql>R
73	8	3	3	29	M>Ql>R=Qt
74	9	7	14	15	M>R>Ql>Qt
75	1	2	12	25	M>R>Qt>Ql
76	18	8	22	27	M>R>Ql>Qt
77	19	5	22	42	M>Ql>R>Qt
78	21	3	10	26	M>Ql>R>Qt
79	16	0	10	22	M>Ql>R>Qt
80	13	5	18	23	M>R>Ql>Qt
81	8	5	10	22	M>R>Ql>Qt
82	7	19	12	30	M>Qt>R>Ql
83	12	5	4	33	M>Ql>Qt>R
84	8	8	15	40	M>R>Ql=Qt
85	22	9	19	27	M>Ql> R>Qt
86	15	8	9	28	M>Ql> R>Qt
87	10	3	8	19	M>Ql>R>Qt
88	16	0	10	22	M>Ql>R>Qt
90	18	7	22	26	M>R>Ql>Qt
91	18	5	44	23	R>M>Ql>Qt
92	3	10	21	25	M>R>Qt>Ql
93	12	11	18	21	M>R>Ql>Qt
94	2	0	19	18	R>M>Ql>Qt
95	16	11	18	15	R>Ql>M>Qt
96	15	10	21	24	M>R>Ql>Qt
97	18	9	15	18	M=Ql>R>Qt
98	13	10	17	16	M>R>Ql>Qt
99	9	11	22	35	M>R>Qt>Ql
100	1	6	9	24	M>R>Qt>Ql
Total	1347	792	1193	2198	M>Ql>R>Qt

Based on the assumptions of χ^2 procedure, all the categories have to be considered mutually exclusive; that is, each observation could appear in one and only one of the categories in the table. For example, one participant could not concurrently give both a *Manner* and *Quality* answer for the CP maxims in the questionnaire survey. Nevertheless, as

many participants had selected two or more of the categories simultaneously, this condition made it impossible to go on with the χ^2 procedure. Therefore, it was decided to analyze the data simply based on the descriptive statistics, as shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the Flouting of the Maxims of CP

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Number	5530	792	2198	1572.53	535.036
Valid N (listwise)	5530				

The minimum occurrence of the flouting of the CP maxims is 792, which belongs to the quantity maxim, whereas the maximum occurrence is 2198, which belongs to the manner maxim. Figure 1, shows CP maxims and the percentage of the frequencies of flouting for each maxim.

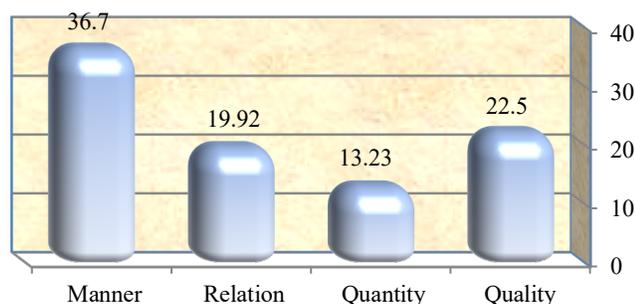


Figure 1: CP Maxims and Percentage of the Frequencies of Flouting

As shown above, the manner maxim ranks first in terms of flouting of the CP maxims, and 36.7% of the cases of flouting of the CP maxims allocate to this maxim. On the other hand, the quantity maxim with 13.23% ranks last among other maxims of CP. Also, it is noteworthy that due to Grice's (1975) four categories overlapping with each other, euphemisms may flout more than one maxim of the CP simultaneously, so when, say, the quantity maxim is flouted, the expression will be unclear by providing less or more information, and hence, the manner maxim is flouted immediately. From this view, almost all the examples cited above primarily flout the manner maxim when they are placed under the flouting of other maxims.

CONCLUSION

The current study aimed to probe into the semantic opaqueness of English social euphemisms as a central issue and scrutinize it in view of observance or flouting of the maxims of Grice's cooperative principle. To be more specific, the main aim of the current study was to investigate whether any maxim(s) of cooperative principle is/are observed or flouted during the use of euphemisms, and to what extent these *observances* or *floutings* may occur. Moreover, the study aimed to reveal which maxims of CP are flouted most and least by Iranian EFL graduates.

By analyzing the findings in the study, it was indicated that the maxims of CP cannot be observed by learners at all time, taking into consideration what people say is likely to maintain, enhance, or damage their own face, as well as taking into account the effect of their utterances on others. In the same vein, it was shown that it is not the case that the users' euphemistic utterances scrupulously follow the maxims of CP so that they could reduce the amount of interpretive work that recipients would have to do. In fact, in order to meet certain communicative needs, participants seldom speak by faithfully observing all four maxims of the CP. Hence, an intriguing way to deal with the maxims of conversation is to flout one of them. When a maxim is flouted, a speaker doesn't observe the maxim, but cannot be accused of violating it either, because the transgression is so flagrant that it is entirely obvious that the speaker knows s/he is not observing it and realizes everyone else in the conversation knows it too.

The results of the data analysis, moreover, proved to be in line with Grice's (1975) claim that people occasionally flout one or more of the maxims of the CP to meet a certain communicative need, and that there will be no

conversational implicature if people *always* follow the maxims of CP. What's more, in order to maintain effective communication, users of language may be supposed to do their best to preserve certain regulative goals, and if a speaker manifestly appears not to observe these precepts of good communicative behavior, then a reason may be that s/he intends the hearer to infer from his/her utterance some meaning(s) additional to the conventional sense of the words and other signals s/he has uttered.

With reference to the frequencies of the flouting of the CP maxims, the results indicated that the manner maxim ranked first in terms of flouting of the CP maxims while using euphemisms. That is, 36.7% of the cases of flouting of the CP maxims allocated to the manner maxim, which, by far, put it in the first rank in comparison to the other maxims of CP. On the contrary, the quantity maxim with only 13.23% ranked last among the CP maxims. Considering the supremacy of the manner maxim one point is noteworthy. Since flouting of the manner maxim, by definition, refers to giving obscure and ambiguous information, under particular communicative conditions, the speaker may say something obscure to avoid mentioning something unpleasant and embarrassing directly. Thus, the hearer should carefully infer the conversational implicature of the speaker and his/her real intentions, according to the specific context. This is the reason why many euphemisms might tend to flout the manner maxim so as to achieve the mild, indirect and pleasant-sound effects. From this view, almost all examples cited in the study primarily flouted the maxim of manner when they were placed under the flouting of other maxims, which could recurrently verify that EFL learners' recognition of euphemisms could characterize the semantic opaqueness of social euphemisms in English. Another point is that due to the maxims overlapping, euphemisms may flout more than one maxim simultaneously. For example, when flouting the quantity maxim, the expression would be unclear by providing less or more information, so the manner maxim would be flouted immediately.

Pedagogical implications

Considering semantic opaqueness as a central feature of euphemisms in the study, a potential threat to academic settings could be EFL learners' being unenlightened about the implications of the shades of meanings of euphemisms or lack of familiarity with them when they are exposed to them, or when they are recognizing or producing discourse. This is because the educators' lack of familiarity with euphemisms in language use and usage may create an academic lacuna which could result in a dearth of attention to the high levels of linguistic development.

Linguists, translators, teachers, and educators can benefit a lot from studies on euphemistic expressions as well as extensions of the multiple maxims of CP. The current study due to its concern with cultural qualities could provide readers with the ability to enhance comprehensiveness in detecting potential inculcations beyond idiomatic power of euphemistic expressions. Moreover, the semantic opaqueness feature of euphemisms can suggest criteria for classifying languages based on the strategies they provide for reality distortion. Another important insight gained is to unravel how language can be a strong device in distorting the unwelcome realities, and in covering social, cultural, and political taboos.

The findings of the study can also give some insights into the linguistic, pedagogical, and sociopragmatic factors which determine the strategies applied in translation. In this vein, there are a number of factors, including rhetoric, stylistic and contextual ones that affect the pragmatic inference of euphemism by its receiver and the expressive effect of it. Considering stylistic factor, translators should always remember the stylistic differences in rendering the same euphemism into different writing styles. With reference to rhetoric factor, one should try to employ the equivalent of euphemistic expression in target language. And concerning contextual factor, appropriateness to the occasion and contextual cohesion are major concerns to the translation of euphemisms.

Based on the above discussion the following pedagogical statements can be made:

1. Learners are advised to learn the contrast between the use of euphemism and direct expressions in language; they should also be able to distinguish the taboo subjects in English that give rise to most of euphemisms in language.
2. The students should recognize basic rules and principles of euphemisms' formation; likewise, they ought to identify different classifications of euphemisms based on the scope of source, scope of sense, and sphere of application.

3. Learners should learn euphemisms' chief properties including semantic opaqueness, beautification, politeness, and disguising; also, they should know why it is used, and what it connotes as compared to the original word it stands for.

4. EFL learners are advised to appreciate the use of CP in euphemistic and direct language as primary principles guiding people's communication to maintain the social equilibrium and the friendly relations between interlocutors.

5. As the field of translation would benefit from learners' awareness of euphemisms and the differences in SL and TL cultures, so it is evocative to put further emphasis on the cultural aspects of euphemisms in the translation works in future.

6. In order to develop their insights into effective learning techniques, learners are advised to become conscious of different aspects of the linguistic, historical and the cultural overtones in texts with euphemistic expressions.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study could set groundwork for further research on the linguistic, pedagogical, and sociopragmatic functions of euphemisms in EFL context. In this vein, more detailed research could be done on the related issues such as adopting strategies for translating euphemisms in particular genres, employing other pragmatic or theoretical frameworks, and investigating the impact of euphemisms on language awareness and acquisition. Besides, the study could raise some more challenging questions for the continued research such as the following:

1. What is the role of euphemisms in enhancing 'critical thinking' as an important indication of cognitive competency?

2. How can learners' awareness of euphemism be reflected in everyday use of language?

Additionally, the following topics and issues are proposed as further suggestions:

1. Conducting a comparative study can reveal similar and/or different aspects of English and Persian euphemisms in use, means of formation, and communicative functions.

2. By performing a comparative study the cultural differences or the national characteristics reflected by euphemisms in Persian and English could be disclosed.

3. A comparative study may uncover the effect of euphemisms on the EFL learners' awareness of the English language skillfully in cross-cultural communication.

It should be mentioned that the research made is indisputably open to further discussions and hence, it is hoped that it could evoke more attention on the recognition, perception, and interpretation of euphemisms and direct expressions.

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Appendix 1

No.	Direct Term in English	Term Used as Euphemistic Expression in Context	Maxim(s) of CP Flouted			
			Qt	Ql	R	M
1	<i>fat</i>	Liz looks <i>traditionally built</i> .				
2	<i>fired</i>	Some office workers had to be <i>rightsized</i> .				
3	<i>old age</i>	Bill is in his <i>golden years</i> .				
4	<i>poor nation</i>	The immigrants came from an <i>emerging nation</i> .				
5	<i>old</i>	Her flat is a year <i>new</i> .				
6	<i>poor students</i>	The conscientious teacher attempted to push the <i>underperformers</i> .				
7	<i>illegal worker</i>	He was working as an <i>undocumented worker</i> abroad.				
8	<i>genocide</i>	Some soldiers were accused of <i>ethnic cleansing</i> .				
9	<i>failed to</i>	The young man <i>fell short</i> to meet the required qualifications for job.				
10	<i>-She isn't pretty.</i>	-Do you think she is pretty? - <i>She is quite knowledgeable.</i>				
11	<i>clumsy</i>	Tom was <i>gravitationally challenged</i> in writing skills.				
12	<i>toilet paper</i>	Where could I find some <i>bath tissue</i> ?				
13	<i>cheating</i>	The dishonest guy had a constant tendency toward <i>peer homework help</i> .				
14	<i>-Your zip is down.</i>	<i>-Your fly is undone.</i>				
15	<i>simultaneous existence of mental and physical health issues</i>	The patient suffered from <i>co-morbidity</i> .				
16	<i>drug addiction</i>	Unluckily, he fell into <i>chemical dependency</i> .				
17	<i>war</i>	The <i>peace process</i> between the two opposing sides lasted for eight years.				
18	<i>torture</i>	He had to confess under <i>persuasion</i> .				
19	<i>garbage man</i>	For over 25 years, he has been working as a <i>sanitation engineer</i>				
20	<i>picky eater</i>	Mary is <i>specific about what she eats</i> .				
21	<i>cancer</i>	The doctors diagnosed her disease as <i>the big C</i> .				
22	<i>used cars</i>	He is interested in <i>pre-owned</i> .				
23	<i>garbage dump</i>	His main job is to work in a <i>sanitary landfill</i> .				
24	<i>killing of innocents</i>	The army officer banned soldiers from <i>collateral damage</i> .				
25	<i>having both mental illness and drug problems</i>	The patient was <i>dual-diagnosed</i> .				
26	<i>benefits and treatments in times of sickness</i>	The sick man enjoyed <i>wellness</i> .				
27	<i>having sex</i>	It was inconsiderate to show individuals <i>acting like rabbits</i> .				

28	<i>bribe</i>	He was provided with some <i>motivation</i> to do the job right away.				
29	<i>lesbian</i>	She is known to be a <i>woman in sensible shoes</i> .				
30	<i>short</i>	It didn't appeal to her to look so <i>vertically-challenged</i> .				
31	<i>ghetto/ slum</i>	The poor man had to live in <i>aculturally-deprived environment</i> .				
32	<i>torture</i>	The imprisoned man could no more resist against <i>enhanced interrogation technique</i> .				
33	<i>very poor/ bad</i>	The proposed suggestion was an <i>ill-advised</i> way to deal with the problem.				
34	<i>mental illness center</i>	He had to be kept in a <i>mental health center</i> for several years.				
35	<i>sex change</i>	It is startling that <i>gender reassignment</i> is on vogue in some communities.				
36	<i>divorced</i>	Jack met his <i>pre-loved</i> by accident.				
37	<i>attacking</i>	A new series of <i>active defending</i> was on track by military forces.				
38	<i>find a toilet</i>	Where can I <i>powder my nose</i> ?				
39	<i>vomit bags</i>	The passengers were informed how to use <i>motion discomfort bags</i> .				
40	<i>pregnant</i>	Bev's friends surprised when they heard she <i>was in the family way</i> .				
41	<i>lazy</i>	The newly-employed clerk proved to be <i>having a rather relaxed attitude to work</i> .				
42	<i>poor people</i>	Unfortunately, the number of <i>economically deprived</i> is increasing rapidly.				
43	<i>supporter of woman's having abortion</i>	The doctor was a <i>pro-choice</i> .				
44	<i>Blindness</i>	Braille was suffering from <i>visual impairment</i> .				
45	<i>-Some fruits are luscious, but others are not.</i>	<i>-Some fruits are luscious ,but others could be better.</i>				
46	<i>liar</i>	Don't be such <i>economical with the truth</i> .				
47	<i>pornographic movies</i>	The children were banned from watching <i>adult movies</i> .				
48	<i>unemployed/ jobless</i>	My cousin is presently <i>between jobs</i> .				
49	<i>disruptive</i>	She failed the test due to being <i>unable to concentrate</i> .				
50	<i>loud and arrogant</i>	Frank is <i>having strong opinions about everything and not being afraid to voice them</i> .				
51	<i>killed/ massacred</i>	The natives were <i>neutralized</i> .				
52	<i>spy</i>	He is acting as a <i>source of information</i> .				
53	<i>death penalty</i>	The murderer was sentenced to the <i>capital punishment</i> .				
54	<i>taxes</i>	The people protested against rising <i>user's fees</i> .				
55	<i>out of control</i>	She was so adamant that everybody knew her <i>above critical</i> .				
56	<i>burglary</i>	The police accused the thieves of <i>covert operation</i> .				
57	<i>official lying</i>	The president was well-known for his <i>plausible denial</i> .				
58	<i>cleaning dirty money</i>	Some people collect huge wealth through <i>launder</i> .				
59	<i>death insurance</i>	The employee was given <i>life insurance</i> .				
60	<i>has been dead</i>	John's mother <i>has gone the way of all flesh</i> for five years.				
Total						
Percentage (%)						

Pictures on Extrovert and Introvert EFL Learners Vocabulary Retention

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ABSTRACT

This study attempted to investigate the comparative effect of two different types of a vocabulary learning strategy, "vocabulary notebooks with definitions" and "vocabulary notebooks with pictures", on the vocabulary retention of extrovert and introvert EFL learners. To begin with, a group of 180 students took the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) from among 160 students were selected to take a piloted sample Proficiency Test of Key English Testing (KET) as a proficiency test to select homogeneous participants in terms of their English proficiency level. After that, 60 introvert and 60 extrovert students were selected to compromise the participants of the study. Each of these groups was divided into two classes with 30 participants (totally 4 classes). One extrovert and one introvert classes were going to implement the vocabulary notebooks with definitions and the other extrovert and introvert classes were going to implement vocabulary notebooks with pictures. Prior to the instruction, a piloted researcher-made vocabulary pretest was administered. After teaching the vocabularies in class, for homework the students used their vocabulary notebooks. Students in this group were to make notebooks to write just vocabulary definitions and use them in meaningful contexts. In case of the two other classes, the participants were to make the words' definitions visualized by paintings or cutting pictures from different sources and glue them in their notebooks. Two weeks after the end of the instruction, a piloted researcher-made post-test was administered to investigate the participants' retention of vocabularies. The outcome reveals that: There is a significant difference between the effect of keeping a vocabulary note book with definitions and a vocabulary notebook with pictures on extrovert EFL learners' vocabulary retention. The extrovert students keeping note books with pictures outperformed the extrovert students keeping note books with definitions on the post-test of vocabulary retention.

KEYWORDS: vocabulary notebook with definitions and pictures, extrovert, introvert, vocabulary retention

INTRODUCTION

Teachers and students of second and foreign languages agree that vocabulary acquisition is a major goal of language learning (Walters, 2004). Many scholars (Meara, 1980, 1982; Read, 2000; Stoffer, 1995) believe that not only the acquisition of a large number of vocabulary items but also retention of them may be considered as of the most difficult aspects of learning a second language for most L2 learners.

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002) retention of vocabulary does not necessarily mean memorizing but the ability to recall or remember vocabulary after an interval of time. Peter (2007) believed that when students want to learn new words, they need to notice unknown words and pay enough attention to them. Retention of new words is further determined by the way in which these words are processed, whereby deeper and elaborate processing results in better word retention. In spite of the fact that keeping a vocabulary notebook is listed as a single vocabulary learning strategy in Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy, it seems clear that the very act of keeping a vocabulary notebook will involve the practice of a variety of different vocabulary learning strategies (Walters & Bozkurt, 2009).

"Notebook with Definitions" is a student-made notebook which is totally non-pictorial and mainly focuses on definitions, in addition to other information in a dictionary. (Hall, 2004). Vocabulary Notebook with Pictures, as another type of vocabulary notebook in this research, is a student-made notebook mainly focuses on pictures made by students. Levine and Reves (1990) stated that "it seems to be easier to recall the visual image of the word even in the context of long term memory" (P. 40).

The students can use any sources to prepare relevant pictures for each single word (Edyburn, 2010). It can also be included in other information in a dictionary if the students like. In order to understand foreign language learning, it is necessary to examine not only the linguistic properties of the language but also the psychological, sociological characteristics and personality types of the learner (Falk, 1978, p. 353). One of the important facets of the affective domain of second language acquisition is the intrinsic side of affectivity: personality type within a person that contributes greatly in some way to the success of language learning. In recent thinking (Arnold, 1999; Dornyei & Skehen, 2003), there is no doubt at all about the importance of examining personality types in building a theory of second language acquisition. Extraversion/Introversion has attracted the most attention in L2 research (Dornyei, 2005, p. 26).

According to Dewaele (as cited in Gan, 2008), Extroversion /Introversion dimension has received widespread acceptance in the psychology community over the past several decades (p. 24). According to Eysenck (as cited in Gan, 2008), "Extroverts tend to be outgoing, sociable and risk-taking. They take chances and act on the spur of the moment and tend to be aggressive; introverts tend to be quiet, unassertive and seldom behave in an aggressive manner" (p. 25).

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Vocabulary Notebooks

In spite of the fact that keeping a vocabulary notebook is listed as a single vocabulary learning strategy in Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy, it seems clear that the very act of keeping a vocabulary notebook will involve the practice of a variety of different vocabulary learning strategies.

Fowle (as cited in Walters & Bozkurt, 2009) points out that learners may use multiple determination strategies to discover meaning and other aspects of unknown words: they may use monolingual or bilingual dictionaries, guess from context, or seek the help of teachers or classmates. Consolidation strategies are also used when adding to the information in the notebook, and when studying new words in the notebook. Use of the notebook in class work also supports the use of consolidation strategies, as students return to the notebook to retrieve words, use the words in classroom activities, and share their words with their classmates. Thus, vocabulary notebooks offer learners the chance to expand their repertoire of vocabulary learning strategies, and they have the potential to enhance vocabulary learning, perhaps more than any other single vocabulary learning strategy used on its own (p. 404).

Vocabulary Notebooks with Pictures

As mentioned before this study took place in elementary levels which most of the books contain too many concrete vocabularies, using pictures is really an interesting way to elicit meanings. There are many researchers such as Blessman and Myszczak (2001), and Marzano (2001) who have really advocated that pictures make an impact on students' learning.

Carter, Hardly and Hardly (as cited in Sams, 2011) reported that getting pupils to visualize vocabulary before testing improved scores. Sams (2011) also mentioned that "as a pupil, I used to draw and label vocabulary to help me learn" (p. 16). My research combines this practice with another visualization technique (the keyword strategy) as Nation (2001) discusses. This technique involves "linking a first language word which the unknown word sounds like with the meaning of the unknown word, by picturing an image involving both the first language word and the meaning" (p. 11).

Sams (2011) has Pointed to the fact that "It is experienced drawing or applying pictures roots the items in students' mind and one is more likely to be able to visualize and retain an image which has been personally created" (p. 17). These visual images also provide powerful cognitive prompts to vocabulary development as this task engages both sides of the brain (Edyburn, 2010, P. 23).

Vocabulary Notebooks with Definitions

Students can form notebooks to write just vocabulary definitions and use them in meaningful contexts. A dictionary can be an excellent source to use in discovering meanings of unfamiliar words, particularly for determining the appropriate meaning of words that have multiple, or specific, technical definitions. In line with the mention points, Obermeier (2008) stated that combining target and native languages in definitions proved to be significantly more helpful than the translations or monolingual definitions alone; it appears that the interaction of native and target languages might be a powerful factor to help learning.

Personality Traits

Individual differences in personality are important in predicting individuals' behavior in umpteen real world conditions (Eysenck, 2004). Traits represent implicit connection between noticeable behaviors and internal dispositions or preferences to act, these associations picture the individual's unchanging patterns of behavior and delineate differences between rather than within individuals, this in turn may lead to various types of feelings, thinking, and behaving in different ways and among different people (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2007).

The issue of personality types, including temperament, is as old as psychology. Eysenck's original research found two main dimensions of temperament: "Neuroticism/Stability and "Extroversion/Introversion" (Boeree, 2006).

Extroversion

Sharp (1987), held that extroversion can be defined by believing that they are fully interested in the external objects, responsiveness, and a ready acceptance of external happenings. They are flexible in a way that they can have effect and at the same time be affected by events taking place around them. They are tolerant of noise and crowd and also find it fascinating. Their attention is mostly on their friends and the world they live in.

Comparing to introverts, extroverts are harder to condition and the consistency of their conditioned responses are less likely to be seen. Consequently, they were more likely to be impulsive and punishment does not prove to have any effect on their learning (Zuckerman, 2005).

Introversion

People having introverted personality type are not willing to associate with groups. Some people suffer early traumatic experiences that for example cause them to act in the background as a defense mechanism. Whatever the reason, the interior forces that keep the person quiet can be very effective, while at the same time the situation in which you are situated may invite you to participate actively (Bergin, 2006).

In comparison with the extroverts, the introvert has weak inhibition, in case of trauma such as car crash their brains don't protect them fast enough so they won't forget easily. Instead, they are highly alert and learn well, and so remember everything that happened (Boeree, 2006).

Vocabulary Learning

The term vocabulary refers to a list or a set of words for a particular language or a list of words that individual speakers of a language might use. No one can learn a language without knowing its vocabulary (Hatch & Brown, 1995).

Decarrico (2001, p. 285) points out that "vocabulary learning is central to language acquisition whether it is a second, or a foreign language". Vocabulary learning is a vital element for being able to communicate whether in first or foreign language. Vocabulary is basic to communication and often seen as the greatest source of problems by second language learners. "When students travel, they don't carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries" (Krashen, cited in Lewis, 1993).

Vocabulary is what makes the essence of a language, without it speakers cannot convey meaning and communicate with each other in a particular language (Laufer, 1986). Lexical problems frequently interfere with communication; moreover, communication breaks down when people do not use the right words (Allen, 1983). Moreover, McCarthy (1990, p. 12) points out, "no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful ways".

Vocabulary Retention

Wei (as cited in Jenpattarakul, 2012, p. 443) stated that nowadays long-term retention has received wide attention as one of the greatest problems in learning new words. Quinn and Irvings (1997) mentioned that the hardest way to learn the new words is to try to memorize a list of unrelated words and their meanings. The students need not only learn a lot of words, but to remember them.

Khabiri and Pakzad (2012) stated that as it is obvious in the domain of vocabulary learning, the problem is not just in learning second language words; rather in remembering them. Bahrick (1984) stated that how well people remember something depends on how deeply they process it.

Craik and Lockhart (1972), Craik and Tulving (1975) (cited in Nemati, 2009, p. 15) mentioned that according to "Depth of Processing Hypothesis", the more cognitive energy a person exerts when manipulating and thinking about a word, the more likely it is that they will be able to recall and use it later. This hypothesis implies that it is not important how recently learners have learnt something. What is of more importance in learning is, in fact, the depth of processing; in other words, students must be taught on how to process information deeply. Such implications extend to pedagogy as well, suggesting that exercise and learning strategies which involve a deeper engagement with words should lead to higher retention compared to shallow activities. Rubin (1987), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) (as cited in Marefat & Ahmadi Shirazi, 2003) stated that "Language learning strategies are any set of actions, plans, tactics, thoughts or behaviors that the learners employ to facilitate the comprehension, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (p. 47).

Retention Techniques in Vocabulary Notebooks as a Strategy

Out of different vocabulary retention techniques by which students use to store vocabularies in long-term memory and recall or retrieve easily, some techniques such as following are examined:

1. *Pronouncing the word correctly* refers to figuring out the pronunciations of the new words and speaking aloud and consistently.
2. *Using word study and context* refers to remembering the new words or expressions from collocation, word family or derivation, idiom usage, breaking down the new words, and context where the words are located.
3. *Making visual picture* refers to either mental or actual picture of what has been heard or read. For example, to remember "taciturn" which means speaking very little and unfriendly, the students have to create the picture of their friends who have this characteristic, and whenever they see this word, they will close their eyes and make a mental picture of those friends. Another example is that when the students want to remember "pinnacle" which means the highest point, they will close their eyes and think of the picture of the mountain especially its top.
4. *Repeating and reviewing* refer to rehearsing and practicing the learned words by saying, listening, speaking and writing several times over spaced intervals until the students reach the stage of automatic use (Lenier and Maker, 1984; Nemati, 2009; Oxford, 1990; Thornbury, 2008; cited in Jenpattarakul, 2012, P. 445).

Impact of Context on Vocabulary Retention

Engelbar and Theuerkauf (1999) mentioned that various studies in previous years have shown that explaining the meaning of words in context is a very good method for learning vocabulary and this has been proven to be more successful than other methods, such as learning from lists. Already in the early 1980s Doye (1980) points out, using the new word in a semantically typical linguistic context is an excellent way for working out the meaning of a word.

Chern (cited in Walters, 2004, p.243) described four types of context cues available to readers: sentence-bound cues, parallelism cues, forward cues and backward cues. Sentence-bound cues are also labeled local cues, while the remaining three are labeled global cues. Parallelism cues point to grammatical relationships and semantic similarity between words. Forward cues help in understanding an unknown word in the following text, while backward cues aid understanding of an unknown word in the preceding text.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. There is no significant difference between the effect of keeping a vocabulary notebook with definitions and a vocabulary notebook with pictures on extrovert EFL learners' vocabulary retention.
2. There is no significant difference between the effect of keeping a vocabulary notebook with definitions and a vocabulary notebook with pictures on introvert EFL learners' vocabulary retention.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

To fulfill the objective of this study, 120 female elementary EFL learners with the age range of 12-15 studying in Alvand Language School (Tehran, Iran) were selected. These participants were non-randomly selected and homogenized through a KET which is suitable at elementary level among 160 learners. The participants whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected.

They were divided into two experimental groups, each group contains 60 participants. (60 extroverts in one group and 60 introverts in the other one) and then into four classes (30 introvert learners and vocabulary notebooks with definitions, 30 extrovert learners and vocabulary notebooks with definitions, 30 introvert learners and vocabulary notebooks with pictures, 30 extrovert learners and vocabulary notebooks with pictures).

Before administrating the KET and vocabulary pre and post-tests, a group of 30 students with almost similar characteristics to the target sample were used for the piloting of these tests.

Instrumentation

Proficiency Test of Key English Testing (KET)

The English language proficiency test used in this study was a sample of the Key English Test (KET) adopted from *KET practice tests* by "Capel and Ireland" (2008), Oxford University Press.

The KET test covers two skills reading, writing. It also measured the subjects' vocabulary and grammar level. It consisted of 55 questions in 9 parts and each question carried one mark. The reading section (in parts 4 and 8) consisted of 12 questions including multiple choice and completion. In part 5, there was a cloze test with 8 multiple choice questions. In the writing section (in part 9), the participants were presented with some kind of information in terms of postcard. They were supposed to write a paragraph of 23-35 words.

The KET Test was already piloted with 30 students of the same level and almost similar characteristics to the subjects of the study. The reliability, item facility, and also choice distribution of the test were checked.

Analysis of the results showed that ten malfunctioning items were found. After omitting these ten items the KET has 55 items. The administration of the whole test took 1 hour. It should be mentioned that the listening and speaking parts of KET was not administered because of not having permission from institute officials to perform these parts.

Vocabulary Pretest

Prior to the instruction, a researcher-made test including 30 multiple-choice items was administered. The test content is based on those vocabularies which are going to be taught during the instruction. The purpose of pretest is to make sure that participants are not familiar with these vocabularies. Furthermore, the result of the pretest was compared with the result of the post-test at the end of the treatment.

The test was already piloted with a group having almost similar characteristics to the target group and after running item analysis no item was discarded. The reliability of the test was also estimated.

Vocabulary Post-test

At the end of the treatment, with a 15-day interval a piloted researcher-made post-test (the parallel form of pretest) was administered in order to investigate the students' retention of vocabularies. It was similar not identical to the pretest. Like the pretest, the test included 30 four-option items. The test was already piloted with a group having almost similar characteristics to the target group and after running item analysis no item was discarded. The reliability of the test was also estimated.

Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI)

The EPI is a questionnaire to assess the personality traits of a person. It was devised by the German psychologists Hans Jürgen Eysenck and his wife Sybil B.G. Eysenck initially conceptualized personality as two, biologically-based categories of temperament which include: "Extroversion/Introversion" and "Neuroticism/Stability". This test consists of 57 Yes/No items and is scored based on the EPI rating scale. Those who fill out the EPI receive three different kinds of scores: the E score which is related to how much extrovert a person is, the N score measuring the neuroticism, and the Lie score which tries to measure how socially desirable a person has wanted to prove to be. The E score is computed out of 24 since it consists of 24 items, the N score is out of 24, and the Lie score is out of nine.

The Yes/No answers should be given based on the usual way of acting or thinking of an individual. This instrument is originally written in English. To avoid any linguistic confusion and misunderstanding, the translated Persian version of the questionnaire by "Seena Institute of Behavioral Sciences and Research" was used in order to make sure of the participants' full comprehension. The answer key and the standard rating scales were also provided in the battery.

Scale reliabilities are robust, and confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated good factor structure (D' Apollonia, Galley, & Simpson, 2001). In addition, the instrument shows reasonable predictive validity to the actual course performance of students (Barker & Olsen, 1995, 2002; Garcia & Pintrich, 1994). The test was piloted and its reliability was calculated by SPSS (0.81 on Cronbach's Alpha).

Let's Go (5) Textbook

All of the subjects in this research study, received instruction based on "Let's Go 5", by "Nakata, Frazier, Hoskins, and Graham", Oxford publication (2008). This textbook is used in Alvand Language School for elementary learners which contains 8 units and mainly focuses on vocabulary, grammar, at an elementary level. This book has a pertinent CD to practice the pronunciation and repeat the sentences and also a workbook. For the purpose of this study, students dealt with all six units of this book.

Longman Elementary Dictionary and Thesaurus

Longman Elementary Dictionary and Thesaurus (2010, Pearson Publications) was used by "vocabulary notebooks with definitions" group. Students in this group had to form notebooks with vocabulary definitions and use the definitions in meaningful contexts.

The dictionary was used as a source in discovering meanings of unfamiliar words, particularly for determining the appropriate meaning of words that have multiple, or specific, technical definitions. The dictionary also provides example sentences which is an important segment in vocabulary presentation, because it increases information processing loads. It helps learners effectively to elaborate relevant syntactic information, and thus the target words can be restored in the long-term memory in more complete forms, which leads to a better access to them (Obermeier, 2008).

Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of the study the following procedure was pursued:

To begin with, a group of 180 students took the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) from among 160 students (80 on extrovert side and 80 on introvert side) were selected as those who merited more features on the extroversion and introversion.

Following the administration of the Eysenck Personality Inventory, the 160 students which were selected took a sample KET as a proficiency test in order to enable the researcher to select homogeneous participants in terms of their English proficiency level. The sample test had already been piloted using 30 students with almost the same characteristics as the target sample before the actual administration and Cronbach α was run in order to make sure that the test had appropriate reliability and thus, was suitable for the target sample. After calculating item facility, item discrimination, and choice distribution ten items were shown to be malfunctioning. Thus, they were discarded from the test battery.

It should be mentioned that the listening and speaking parts of KET was not administered because of not having permission from institute officials to perform these parts. After administration of the KET, 120 students' scores fell between one standard deviation below and above the mean, from among 60 introvert and 60 extrovert students were selected to compromise the participants of the study.

The 120 subjects were divided into two groups: one extrovert (60 participants) and one introvert (60 participants). Since 60 is too large a number for the students in one class, two classes of 30 and 30 for each group was used. This means that, each of these groups was divided into two classes with 30 participants (totally 4 classes). One extrovert and one introvert classes were going to implement the vocabulary notebook with definitions and the other extrovert and introvert classes were going to implement vocabulary notebook with pictures.

Prior to the instruction, a researcher-made test including 30 multiple-choice items was administered as pretest. The test content was based on those vocabularies which were going to be taught during the instruction. All the participants were taught using the same material and they received the same amount of instruction. The course

consisted of 18 sessions of 90 minutes spanning over a period of six weeks. For the purpose of this study, students dealt with six units of Let's Go (5).

It should be mentioned that Let's Go (5) consists of 8 units the 2 remainder units were not considered in this study to allow a two-week time span between the instruction and administrating the post-test. A six-week schedule for the implementation of the vocabulary notebooks were drawn up, adapted from Schmitt and Schmitt (1995). Fifty words were highlighted and singled out from six units which were presented to the students and to be recorded in the notebooks, along with some aspect of the words knowledge.

The participants in both groups were taught how to organize a vocabulary notebook. As mentioned before, 50 target words were chosen from the course book that was to be covered during 12 sessions. For teaching these 50 words, the researcher followed the usual routines in vocabulary teaching classes, which generally consisted of arranging words in a hierarchical order from easy to difficult, writing the target words on the board, explaining the meaning of words, and writing their parts of speech. This process is followed by making example sentences using the words, sometimes by the students, and sometimes by the teacher.

After teaching the vocabularies in class and making sure about participants' understanding, for homework the students were going to use their vocabulary notebooks. The participants of both groups could also be enriched with some of other aspects of word knowledge, for example its pronunciation, synonyms.

Vocabulary Notebooks with Definitions

Students were going to look the words up in a Longman Elementary Dictionary and thesaurus. Students in this group were to make notebooks to write just vocabulary definitions and use them in meaningful contexts.

The "Longman Elementary Dictionary and Thesaurus" is a source to discover meanings of unfamiliar words and to provide example sentences as an important segment in vocabulary presentation and increases information processing loads. It also helps learners to elaborate relevant syntactic information, and thus the target words can be restored in the long-term memory in more complete forms, which leads to a better access to them (Obermeier, 2008, p. 418).

Vocabulary Notebooks with Pictures

In case of the two other classes, the participants were to make the words' definitions visualized by paintings or cutting pictures from different sources and glue them in their notebooks, (everything except writing the exact definitions). As mentioned before, this study took place in elementary levels in which most of the book contains concrete vocabularies, so using pictures is really an interesting way to elicit meaning of unknown words (Blessman & Myszczyk, 2001; Marzano, 2001).

The implementation schedule also included activities for incorporating the notebooks into classroom activities. Each week, time set aside for students to share the information in their notebooks with their classmates, and to test each other on the notebook words.

At the end of each week of treatment, the teacher collected the notebooks and checked if the students added the assigned information such as, arranging pictures. The relevancy of pictures in the other groups the information which was copied from dictionary and correctness and also relevancy of the sentences as examples for each vocabulary were checked.

The notebooks would be returned to the students on the following session. Students were totally aware that their notebooks would be graded as part of their final score. Two weeks after the end of the instruction, a piloted researcher-made post-test consisted of 30 multiple-choice items based on those 50 vocabularies presented during the instruction was administered to investigate the participants' retention of vocabularies. The time allocated to this test was 15 minutes and range of scores was from 15.

The data obtained from the post-test were analyzed in order to study the impact of two independent variables (keeping notebooks with definitions and keeping notebooks with pictures) and two moderator variables (extrovert and introvert) on the dependent variable (vocabulary retention) of this study.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Tables 1 to 11 are presented to address and discuss the research questions, respectively. Following the piloting of the KET on 30 subjects with almost similar characteristics to the target group, the mean and standard deviation were calculated and were found out to be 25.23 and 9.71, respectively. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the KET in the pilot phase.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the KET Piloting

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SCORE	30				
Valid N (listwise)	30	8	42	25.23	9.71

The reliability of the test scores gained in the KET piloting phase. The Kuder-Richardson 20 formula (K-R 20) was employed for this purpose and an acceptable reliability of .81 was calculated. After deletion of the 10 malfunctioning items, the reliability of the test shifted to .88.

Descriptive Statistics of KET Administration

After the procedure of piloting the KET test, it became an instrument to homogenize the students for this study. On the whole, 160 students participated in the test administration. After the administration of the test, descriptive statistics were conducted just as was done in the piloting phase. Table 2 shows these statistics with the mean of 22.26 and the standard deviation of 7.06.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the KET Main Administration

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TOTAL	160				
Valid N (listwise)	160	8	38	22.26	7.06

The reliability of the KET in this actual administration for homogenization of the subjects was calculated too (Table 3). An index of .85 reassured the researchers of the reliability of this test.

Table 3: Reliability of the KET Administration

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.85	45

Dividing the Learners into the Two Groups

From among the 160 students who took the test, 120 students' scores fell between one standard deviation below and above the mean, from among which 60 introvert and 60 extrovert students were selected to compromise 120 participants of the study.

Checking the Normality

Four assumptions should be met before one decides to run parametric tests. The data should be measured on an interval scale; the subjects should be independent that is to say none of them participates in more than one group, the data should enjoy normality distributions and the groups should have homogeneous variances (Field, 2009). The present data are measured on an interval scale and none of the subjects participate in more than one group. The assumption of normality is also met. As displayed in Table 4 the values of skewness and kurtosis are within the ranges of +/- 2.

Table 4: Normality Test

Groups		N	Mean	Variance	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Extrovert Definition	Pretest	30	8.35	7.416	.506	.427	-.807	.833
	Posttest	30	16.42	8.277	-.878	.427	-.168	.833
Introvert Definition	Pretest	30	7.53	6.947	-.350	.427	-.817	.833
	Posttest	30	16.57	6.530	-.999	.427	1.140	.833
Extrovert Picture	Pretest	30	8.03	10.154	-.214	.427	-.795	.833
	Posttest	30	22.17	10.829	-.910	.427	.489	.833
Introvert Picture	Pretest	30	7.42	10.208	.219	.427	-.845	.833
	Posttest	30	15.30	13.907	-.621	.427	-.149	.833

The assumption of homogeneity of variances will be discussed when reporting the results of the one-way ANOVA.

Vocabulary Pretest

Prior to the instruction, a researcher-made test including 30 multiple-choice items was administered as pretest. The test content was based on those vocabularies which were going to be taught during the instruction. The test was already piloted with a group having almost similar characteristics to the target group and after running item analysis no item was discarded. Table 5 shows descriptive statistics of vocabulary pretest piloting.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of Vocabulary Pretest Piloting

Vocabulary Test	Participants	N	Mean	Std.	Minimum	Maximum
				Deviation		
Pre-test	30	30	6.66	8.606	1	4

This study includes four groups; extrovert students and introvert students who keep vocabulary note books with definitions and extrovert students and introvert students who keep vocabulary note books with pictures. A one-way ANOVA is run to compare the four groups' means on the pretest of vocabulary in order to prove that they were homogenous in terms of the vocabulary knowledge prior to the main study.

As displayed in Table 6 the results of the one-way ANOVA ($F(3, 116) = .65, P = .58 > .05; \omega^2 = .009$ it represents a weak effect size) indicates no significant differences between the mean scores of the four groups on the pretest of vocabulary. Based on these results it can be concluded that the four groups were homogenous in terms of the vocabulary knowledge prior to the main study.

Table 6: One-Way ANOVA Pretest of Vocabulary by Groups

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.117	3	5.706	.657	.580
Within Groups	1007.050	116	8.681		
Total	1024.167	119			

Table 7 displays the means of the four groups on the pretest of vocabulary.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics Pretest of Vocabulary by Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Extrovert Definition	30	8.35	2.723	.497	7.33	9.37	4	14
Introvert Definition	30	7.53	2.636	.481	6.55	8.52	2	12
Extrovert Picture	30	8.03	3.187	.582	6.84	9.22	2	13
Introvert Picture	30	7.42	3.195	.583	6.22	8.61	2	13

Post-test of Vocabulary Retention

At the end of the treatment, with a 15-day interval a piloted researcher-made post-test (the parallel form of pretest) was administered in order to investigate the students' retention of vocabularies. It was similar not identical to the pretest. Like the pretest, the test included 30 four-option items. Table 8 shows descriptive statistics of vocabulary post-test.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of Vocabulary Post-test Piloting

Vocabulary Test	Participants	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Post-test	30	30	6.73	8.433	3	30

A one-way ANOVA is run to compare the four groups' means on the post-test of vocabulary in order to investigate the effects of personality types of extrovert and introvert and teaching vocabulary through definitions and pictures on the retention of vocabulary items by Iranian EFL learners.

As displayed in Table 9 the results of the one-way ANOVA ($F(3, 116) = 28.94, P = .000 < .05; \omega^2 = .41$ it represents an almost strong effect size) indicates significant differences between the mean scores of the four groups on the post-test of vocabulary.

Table 9: One-Way ANOVA Post-test of Vocabulary by Groups

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	858.356	3	286.119	28.942	.000
Within Groups	1146.750	116	9.886		
Total	2005.106	119			

Table 10 displays the means of the four groups on the post-test of vocabulary.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics Post-test of Vocabulary by Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Extrovert Definition	30	16.42	2.877	.525	15.34	17.49	10	20
Introvert Definition	30	16.57	2.555	.467	15.61	17.52	10	20
Extrovert Picture	30	22.17	3.291	.601	20.94	23.40	14	27
Introvert Picture	30	15.30	3.729	.681	13.91	16.69	6	20

Although the F-value of 28.94 denotes significant differences between the means of the four groups on the post-test of vocabulary retention the post-hoc Scheffe's tests should be run to compare the means two by two in order to probe the two research questions raised in this study.

Testing the Hypotheses

Based on the results displayed in Table10 it can be concluded that:

A: There is a significant difference between the effect of keeping a vocabulary note book with definitions and a vocabulary notebook with pictures on extrovert EFL learners' vocabulary retention (Mean Difference = -5.75; P = .000 < .05). The extrovert students keeping note books with pictures (Mean = 22.17) outperformed the extrovert students keeping note books with definitions (Mean = 16.42) on the posttest of vocabulary retention. Thus the first null-hypothesis **is rejected**.

B: There is not any significant difference between the effect of keeping a vocabulary note book with definitions and a vocabulary notebook with pictures on introvert EFL learners' vocabulary retention (Mean Difference = 1.26; P = .49 > .05). Thus the second null-hypothesis **is supported**. The mean scores for the introvert students keeping note books with definitions and pictures are 16.57 and 15.30 respectively.

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Extrovert Definition	Introvert Definition	-.150	.812	.998	-2.45	2.15
	Extrovert Picture	-5.750*	.812	.000	-8.05	-3.45
	Introvert Picture	1.117	.812	.597	-1.19	3.42
Introvert Definition	Extrovert Picture	-5.600*	.812	.000	-7.90	-3.30
	Introvert Picture	1.267	.812	.490	-1.04	3.57
Extrovert Picture	Introvert Picture	6.867*	.812	.000	4.56	9.17

*.The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 11: Post-Hoc Scheffe's Tests Posttest of Vocabulary Retention by Groups

DISCUSSION

Through the analysis of the data, it was found that the subjects in the four groups of the study showed some vocabulary gains but it was revealed that the significant improvement occurred in the vocabulary retention of the extrovert learners received vocabulary notebooks with pictures, in comparison to extrovert using vocabulary notebooks with definitions and the two introvert groups of learners.

Using pictures fixed the meaning of the words in the minds of learners, as Monroe (as cited in Robinson, 2011) says, "When students create or use their own pictures, they participate actively and process ideas themselves". She also acknowledges that drawing or using pictures are effective tools for students to refer back to what they have previously learned.

These visual images also provide powerful cognitive prompts to vocabulary development as this task engages both sides of the brain (Edyburn, 2010).

As Sams (2011) claims "It seems logical that this process of longer-term memory through visualization worked because pupils were creating their own personal connection with the vocabulary". Carter, Hardly and Hardly (as cited in Sams, 2011) reported that getting pupils to visualize vocabulary before testing improved scores. Nation (2001) pointed that "This strategy (using pictures) has two strengths; firstly, it provides a bi-directional link with the unknown word since it aids recall of the meaning if given the word and vice versa, and secondly, it provides a highly personalized and therefore memorable method of recall.

Sams (2011) has Pointed to the fact that "It is experienced drawing or applying pictures roots the items in students' mind and one is more likely to be able to visualize and retain an image which has been personally created". These visual images also provide powerful cognitive prompts to vocabulary development as this task engages both sides of the brain (Edyburn, 2010).

Though extrovert learners in this research were better performers, Hutchinson and Gul (1997) found that extrovert students with the desire to participate in group learning situations more are not always those who can really outperform introverts. They also concluded that while the personality traits of introvert students are not considered by the teacher, the innate competence and ability of the students will be mostly hindered and they will not act as they can really do. This is while they concluded that using a proper and convenient method by the teacher can help the introvert students to stick to their real competence and try their best in learning situations.

CONCLUSION

The outcome of the post-test and pretest analysis clarified that keeping vocabulary notebooks with pictures had a significant effect on extrovert EFL learners' vocabulary retention.

Since all learners were homogenized with respect to their English reading and writing proficiency and then randomly assigned to the four groups prior to the treatment, the final significant difference among the achievement post-test could be attributed to the difference in the types of vocabulary strategy they used.

Also, the extrovert students keeping notebooks with pictures outperformed the extrovert students keeping notebooks with definitions on the post-test of vocabulary retention. According to Ones, Dilchert, Viswesaran, and Judge (2007), hundreds of the primary studies and many of the meta-analyses conducted since the mid-1980s have indicated high support for using personality measures in staffing decision. Further, they maintained that personality conducts can predict and explain attitudes, behavior, performance, and other outcomes in organizational settings.

Therefore, while personality characteristics affect performance in many fields, it seems logical to claim that the teaching/learning profession is not an exception. They concluded that using a proper and convenient method by the teacher can help the introvert students to stick to their real competence and try their best in learning situations.

It is worth mentioning at the end, the rules and restrictions which exist in some language schools in Iran did not allow the teacher –herself being a female– to have male learners in her classes as well as female learners. Hence, the

results of this research cannot be necessarily generalized to male EFL learners. Furthermore, since the participants under study were young adults, the results may not be generalized to older learners.

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ABSTRACT

This study was an attempt to carefully analyze the subject of test bias. Different sources of bias have been mentioned by different scholars, to be taken into consideration while constructing and administering a test. The most comprehensive account of these sources has been given by Bachman (1990:pp.271-278). He considers cultural background, background knowledge, cognitive characteristics, native language, ethnicity, sex, and age as different sources of bias. In this study, the researcher went through two of these sources of bias namely the impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles and sex, and by providing two null hypotheses attempted to find out the effect of these sources of bias on the test takers' performance on a multiple – choice test. After collecting data by the use of a TOEFL test and Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire, two t-tests were run to confirm whether the difference between the means of different groups (i.e. male, female, on the one hand, and impulsive / reflective, on the other hand) is statistically significant or not? The statistics and results showed the rejection of the first null hypothesis and the acceptance of the second one. The first null hypothesis being rejected indicates that the impulsivity -reflectivity cognitive styles of test takers influence on their performance on multiple – choice items test. The second null hypothesis, being accepted, indicates that test takers' sex does not affect their performance on multiple-choice items test.

KEYWORDS: Test bias, Cognitive style, Impulsivity, Reflectivity, Gender, Multiple – choice Test.

INTRODUCTION

The historical background of all the trends of testing including the essay – translation, discrete – point, integrative, and communicative approach show that the main concern in all of these trends has been to assess one's true language or communicative ability. However, this task cannot be accomplished easily. And this is largely due to the factors other than communicative language ability which affect performance on language tests. Such a challenge has been described by Bachman (1990) as follows: "Performance on language tests is affected by a wide variety of factors and an understanding of these factors and how they affect test scores is fundamental to the development and use of language tests" (p.81). In order to interpret test scores as indicators of a given language ability, a language testing specialist must be sure that they are influenced as much as possible by that ability. Any factors other than the ability being tested that affect test scores are potential sources of error that decrease both the reliability of scores and the validity of their interpretations. Therefore; it is essential that we be able to identify these sources of error and estimate the magnitude of their effect on test scores. Bachman (1990: 146) classifies these sources of error into three broad categories: (1) test method facets; (2) attributes of the test taker that are not considered part of the language abilities we want to measure, and (3) random factors that are largely unpredictable and temporary. The second category in this classification (i.e. attributes of individuals that are not related to language ability) include individual characteristics such as cognitive style, knowledge of particular content area, and group characteristics such as sex, race, and ethnic background. The individual attributes are likely to affect test scores (Hansen & Stansfield, 1981; Stansfield & Hansen, 1983; Hansen, 1984; Chapelle & Roberts, 1986). Test scores may also be affected by group characteristics such as sex (Clearly, 1968; Cole, 1973; Swinton & Powers, 1980; Farhady, 1982). These attributes are systematic in the sense that they are likely to affect a given individual's test performance. To the extent that an individual test score is affected by test method facets, attributes other than the abilities we want to measure, and

random factors, any inference we make about his/her level of language ability on the basis of his / her test score will be in error to some degree.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Tests as devices to reinforce learning and to motivate students are usually constructed as a means of assessing students' performances (Heaton, 1988: 24). However, students' performances are affected by different factors including individual characteristics such as impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles and group characteristics such as sex. The purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which test performance is influenced by factors (i.e. the impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles and sex) other than language ability. In fact the exact purpose of this study is to find out how and to what extent the impulsivity-reflectivity cognitive styles and sex affect performance on one of the most common testing techniques namely multiple – choice test.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A problem related to measurement theory is that of determining the extent to which test performance is influenced by test method and test takers' characteristics. If studies demonstrate that these extraneous factors influence learners' performance on language tests, then language test developers need to take into consideration the effects of these factors while developing tests or interpreting learners' test scores. As this study is an attempt to investigate the extent to which test takers' impulsivity-reflectivity cognitive styles and sex can affect performance on multiple-choice items, its findings would no doubt help those involved in testing to minimize the effects of the factors, and thus make a fairer assessment of the learners' true language ability. This would help language teachers as well in that any development or advancement in language testing would never let language teaching go unaffected. As Upshur (1971: 435–42) noted several years ago, there is an intrinsic reciprocal relationship between research in language acquisition and developments in language teaching on the one hand, and language testing on the other. That is, language testing both serves and is served by research in language acquisition and language teaching.

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Test Bias

Introduction

Problems related to bias were among the very first to be addressed in the emerging field of language testing (Bachman 1990: 272). A lot of studies have been carried out to investigate the nature and potential sources of test bias, but there still remains a lot unknown about it. This problem has been articulated by Oller (1979) as follows: "Part of the difficulty is the lack of adequate data. For instance, until recently (Oller & Perkins, 1978) there was no data on the relative importance of language variety bias, or just plain language bias in educational testing in general. There was always plenty of evidence that such a factor must be important to a vast array of educational tests, but how important?" (p.85).

What is Test Bias?

Bachman (1990) defines test bias as "the possible systematic differences in test performance that are the result of differences in individual characteristics, other than the ability being tested of test takers, are defined as test bias." (p. 271). Angoff (1993) reviewed the literature on item bias and summarized various definitions as follows: "an item is biased if equally able or proficient individuals, from different groups, do not have equal probabilities of answering the item correctly" (p.4). Angoff quotes Shepard et al. (1981) who viewed biased items from a social perspective and defined it as "a kind of invalidity that harms one group more than another" (p.318). Scheuneman (1975) discussed normal items and believed that "an item is unbiased if, for all individuals having the same score on a homogenous subtest containing the item, the proportion of individuals getting the item correct is the same for each population group being considered." (p.2)

Item response theory which is also known as latent trait theory and item characteristic curve theory was developed to explain how and why certain items favor particular groups (i.e. are biased). Khodadady (1999: 132) contends that due to the influence of external factors such as the gender and ethnicity of test takers on item functioning, item response theory was introduced (Lord & Novick, 1968). The theory tries to estimate item difficulty and other item characteristics without "being affected by the sample of students responding to the items" (Roid & Haladyna, 1982: 216). Lord (1980) explicates the underlying assumption of the item response theory (which accounts for the distinction between biased and unbiased items) as follows: "If each test item in a test had exactly the same item response function in every group, then people of the same ability or skill would have exactly the same chance of getting the item right, regardless of their group membership. Such a test would be completely unbiased. If, on the

other hand, an item has a different response function for one group than for another, it is clear that the item is biased "(p.212)

Cognitive Style (Learning Style) as a source of bias:

Cognitive style has been defined in many ways. Some of the definitions are as follows: The term "learning style refers a person's general approach to learning and problem solving" (Reid, 1995: 1997). Learning styles are "relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment" (Keef, 1979: 4). They are "the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior" (Cornett, 1983: 9). "Learning style is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching wonderful for some and terrible for others" (p. 3).

Brown (1994: 104) contends " the way we learn things in general and the particular attack we make on a problem seem to hinge on a rather amorphous link between personality and cognition; this link is referred to as cognitive style". Witkin et al. (1977: 10) define the term "cognitive style" as "characteristic self-consistent mode of functioning which individuals show in their perceptual and intellectual activities." Ausubel (1968: 170) defines cognitive style as "self-consistent and enduring individual differences in cognitive organization and functioning." Ellis (1990: 114) defines cognitive style as "a term used to the manner in which people perceive, conceptualize, organize, and recall information." He (1994: 499) also states that "the idea of learning style comes from general psychology. It refers to characteristic ways in which individuals orientate to problem – solving." Shumin Kang (1999), discussing the topic of learning style, mentions that: "Learning styles are internally based characteristics of individuals of the intake or understanding of new information (Reid, 1995). All learners have individual attributes relating to their learning processes. Some people may rely heavily on visual presentation, others may prefer spoken language, still others may respond better to hands-on activities. It is evident that people learn differently and at different paces because of their biological and psychological differences (Reiff, 1992).

Impulsivity VS Reflectivity

It is common for us to show in our personalities certain tendencies toward reflectivity sometimes and at other times impulsivity. Psychological studies have been conducted to determine the degree to which, in the cognitive domain, a person tends to make either a quick or gambling (impulsive) guess at an answer to a problem or a slower, more calculated (reflective) decision (Brown, 1994).

Impulsive and reflective cognitive styles are considered to be an individual's different style of forming concepts, solving problems, and thinking. They are ways in which individuals select hypotheses and process information. R/I describes the disposition to reflect on the solution to a problem where several alternatives are possible and there is high uncertainty over which is correct (see Kagan, Rossman, Day, Albert, and Phillips (1964) for the initial development of R/I). As Kagan (1966) explained, the "impulsives" reach decisions and report them very quickly with little concern for accuracy. Others, of equal intelligence, are more concerned with accuracy and consequently take more time to reach a decision. These are "reflectives."

As a cognitive style impulsivity is a dimension of fast, spontaneous and unplanned performance in cognitive tasks (Kagan 1965). According to Gilpin and Larsen (1981), Kagan (1965) and Porteus (1942) impulsives in psychological literature are described as those easily carried away by new and exciting ideas, and by the prospects of immediate gratification. They tend to act quickly without thinking through the consequences of planning ahead. Reflectives, on the other hand, like to stand back to ponder experiences and observe them from many different perspectives. They tend to postpone reaching definite conclusions for as long as possible. They are thoughtful people who like to consider all possible angles and implications before making a move. Moreover, they tend to adopt a low profile and have a slightly distant, tolerant unruffled air about them (cited in Pirouznia 1994). According to Fontana (1995), reflective children tend to make fewer errors than impulsive ones particularly on challenging and difficult tasks, since they show a strong desire to be right first time, and seem able to tolerate the ambiguity, say, of a long silence in front of the class while they think out the right answer before responding. Impulsive children on the other hand, adopt a "shotgun" approach, firing off answers in the hope that one will be right and that in any case errors will provide appropriate feedback from the teacher to help them to get nearer to the solution next time.

Impulsivity / Reflectivity and Information Processing:

People process information in various ways. The majority of the research literature tends to favor some factors related to information processing behaviors as the likely antecedent (s) of R/I. In a number of studies analytic and global processing has been the main concern.

Zelnicker and Jeffry (1976) state that reflective children by attending to the detailed information of a stimulus tend to process information analytically. On the other hand, impulsive children tend to process information globally by attending to a stimulus as a whole. This result was revealed in a series of experiments. In the first, reflective children recalled significantly more detailed information from five sentences than the impulsive ones. In the second, a variant of the Matching Familiar Figures Test was given which included stimuli that could be processed either analytically or globally. Again reflectives were better at analytic processing while impulsives were better at global processing. In the final experiment, impulsive children used a large number of dimensions (global processing) as a first hypothesis in a concept attainment task. However, reflective children were more likely to focus on a single dimension (analytic processing).

Loper and her colleagues (1982) in another study administered a conceptual style task with a modification in which children were reinforced specifically for either global or analytic processing. The results indicated that both impulsive and reflective children were capable of offering either a global or an analytic hypothesis under appropriate reinforcement. Inductive reasoning as a means of processing information, in a study was found to be more effective with reflective persons (Kagan, Person, and Welch, 1966), suggesting that generally reflective persons could benefit more from inductive learning situations. Perhaps the success of inductive teaching methods therefore varies depending on the I/R index of individual students.

Other Studies on I/R

It has been found that children who are conceptually reflective tend to make fewer errors in reading than do conceptually impulsive children (Kagan, 1965; Messer, 1976). However, impulsive persons are usually faster readers than the reflective ones, and eventually master the “psycholinguistic guessing game” (Goodman, 1970) of reading in a way that their impulsive style of reading may not necessarily deter comprehension.

A study conducted at the University of Michigan (Doron, 1973) sought to examine the relationship between R/I and reading proficiency in students of English as a second language. Kagan’s Matching Familiar Figures test was used to measure R/I in a sample of ESL student; Doron then administered reading tests of comprehension and speed to the same subjects to determine the correlation between R/I and reading. She discovered that reflective students were slower and more accurate than impulsive students, and suggested that this fact be taken into account in the teaching of reading in ESL (Brown, 1974). Pirouznia’s study (1994) provides continuing evidence for the positive relationship between reflectivity and EFL reading comprehension. In her study, reflective students were perfect and error detection and the mean differences between reflective and impulsive students across grade levels were significant.

Native Language, Ethnicity, Sex, and Age as other sources of Test Bias

Ethnic, sex, and age biases in the use of tests for selection decisions have been extensively discussed in the measurement literature (for example, Clearly, 1968; Cole, 1973; Linn, 1973; Flaughher, 1976). These factors, along with native language background, have also been the focus of research in language testing (Bachman, 1990: 278). In studies examining native language background as a factor in performance on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Swinton and Powers (1980) and Alderman and Holland (1981) both found differential performance across different native language groups. Swinton and Powers found different factor structures for European and non-European language background groups on the structure, written expression, reading, and vocabulary sections of the old five-part TOEFL. Alderson and Holland compared the performance on individual TOEFL items of individuals whose total TOEFL scores were comparable, and found significant differences across different native language groups. Several studies have examined the effects of multiple background characteristics on language test performance. Farhady (1982), for example, found significant relationship between sex, university status, academic major, and nationality, and performance on several measures of language ability. Similarly, Spurling and Ilyin (1985) found that age, language background, and high school graduation have small but significant effects on cloze, reading, and listening test.

In this study, gender and sex refer to the condition of being male or female. In the classification of different sources of test bias, it was mentioned that one of these sources is sex. Though few studies have been carried out on actual foreign or second language performance of males and females, those that exist show the superiority of one sex (i.e. male or female) on specific types of tasks, and for the other sex having superiority on some other tasks. Some SLA studies that have reported sex-related differences are as follows:

Farhady (1982) found that female subjects significantly outperformed male subjects on a listening comprehension test. Eisenstein (1982) also showed that females performed significantly better than males on a dialect discrimination task and in the extent to which they could recognize dialects of greater or lesser prestige. Maccoby and Jacklins (1974) authoritative survey of all extent researches in the area showed that where a gender difference is found, it is nearly always girls who are ahead. To straighten this position, Jespersen, in a section on the "volubility of women", quotes examples from research done on reading speed which found that women tended to read a given passage faster than men and to remember more about the passage after reading it (Jespersen, 1972: 252). Shipman (1971; Stanfor research Instate ,1972) found girls clearly ahead on a number of language measures. These studies are representative of the many that have been carried out on child language and show that at any given age, girls will be found to be superior in terms of comprehension, size of vocabulary, reading ability, and handling of complex expressions, etc.

Multiple – Choice Items

Multiple choice items are said to be the simplest type of fixed response objective item (Hudson , 1973), the most commonly used short answer format (Tuckman, 1975) , the most popular form of test item (Popham, 1990) , and the most highly regarded objective test item (Mehrens & Lehman, 1991) in measurement and evaluation. Multiple choice items are utilized in almost all pure and applied fields of knowledge ranging from literature and fine arts to medicine. The widespread application of multiple choice item tests stems from their capacity to address the most important processes of cognition and their practicality to be put to almost all educational and non-educational purposes: diagnosis, placement, proficiency, selection, awards, certification, licensure, and employment (Haladyna, 1994). Brown (1976) stated that multiple choice items can be used to measure complex "intellectual" or "reasoning" skills as did Anderson (1972).

Khodadady (1999: 1-3) states that multiple choice items are used in almost all fields of knowledge to measure the mental process of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Multiple choice items are not the product of measurement and evaluation per se. Whatever is done , thought , felt , seen , etc.,by human beings has a multiple choice format in real life. For example , the underlying reason behind a person's preference , to study a book, to write about a topic, to speak with a certain person, to attend a particular meeting and to eat a certain dish can be identified by recognizing his interests, attitudes and aptitudes. Hypothetically speaking, the person's favorite book can be regarded as the best book for him selected among an infinite number of books rivaling as alternatives within the context of his interest. Similarly, selecting a particular dish among all other possible alternatives mentioned in a menu can be justified in terms of that person's tastes. Farhady et al. (1995: 92-93) contend that multiple choice form items are probably the most widely used types of items. They are applicable to a wide variety of skills. Multiple choice items can measure simple learning outcomes more effectively that true-false or matching item can.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims at answering the following research questions:

1. Do the test takers' impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles affect their performance on multiple – choice items?
2. Does test takers' sex affect their performance on multiple –choice items? If so, to what extent?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants in this study were 82 graduate and undergraduate students from different fields of study who took the placement test for TOEFL preparation classes held at Tehran University. They were all within the age range of 19-33. First, on the basis of sex, they were divided into two groups: males with 42 and females with 40 subjects. Then, on the basis of their grades on Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire,

they were divided into two groups of reflective and impulsive personality made up of 47 and 35 participants respectively.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used in this study:

Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire: A questionnaire prepared by Eysenck (1975) to assess the participants' degree of impulsivity / reflectivity. It includes 30 items and in front of each item three answers including 'Yes', 'No', and '?' are presented. The participants are instructed to answer each item by putting a circle around the 'Yes' or the 'No' as quickly as possible. If they find it impossible to decide one way or the other for any reason, they are asked to put a ring around the '?'. The key for scoring this questionnaire is given in table 1.

Table 1: The key for scoring Impulsivity – Reflectivity questionnaire

1,	-	11,	-	21,	+
2,	+	12,	-	22,	+
3,	+	13,	+	23,	+
4,	-	14,	+	24,	-
5,	+	15,	+	25,	-
6,	-	16,	+	26,	+
7,	+	17,	+	27,	-
8,	+	18,	+	28,	+
9,	+	19,	+	29,	+
10,	-	20,	-	30,	+

In this key, the numbers refer to the item numbers in the questionnaire and the sign tells whether it is a 'Yes' or 'No' answer that should be given a point. As an example, consider question 1: "Do you like planning things well ahead of time?" Because there is a minus sign after the number 1 in the key, you give the subject a point if s/he answered with a 'No'. If s/he answered 'Yes', s/he scores nothing; if s/he responded with a '?' s/he scores 1/2. The second question is reverse scored: 'Do you usually make up your mind quickly?' This time, because the sign is a plus, it is the 'Yes' which scores 1 and the 'No' which scores zero; the '?' again scores 1/2. To summarize then: if there is a plus sign the 'Yes' scores 1, if there is a minus sign the 'No' scores 1. In either case a '?' is scored 1/2. As there are thirty items in this questionnaire, so the possible range of scores is 0 to 30. To assess the participants' degree of impulsivity reflectivity, Eysenck (ibid: 66) provides the following scale:

AVERAGE

I 30 29 28 27 26 25 24 23 22 21 20 19 18 / 17 16 15 14 13 12 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 R

In this scale, those who score 17 or less are considered as reflective and those who score 18 or more are considered as impulsive. The score 17.5 indicates that the subject is in the average domain (i.e. not being a true impulsive nor a true reflective).

TOEFL test: As this study was an attempt to find out how and to what extent the impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles and gender affect performance on multiple – choice items, and as all the items of a TOEFL (IBT) are in the form of multiple – choice, a TOEFL test (1998) was used as the second instrument of this study.

Design

The study was conducted on the basis of the ex post facto design (Best 1977), as all the requirements for such a design were fulfilled:

1. There is no treatment.
2. There is no control over the independent variable.
3. The relationship between the variables is not a cause – effect relationship.

Procedure

Data collection

The procedures applied to collect the data are as follows:

Phase (1): Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire was administered to 105 participants to assess their degree of impulsivity- reflectivity. As 23 of these participants failed to fulfill the requirements of participating in this study, (i.e. not being a university graduate or undergraduate, and concerning I/R, falling in the average domain, i.e. scoring

17.5) they were excluded from the rest of the study. The answers given by the 82 remaining participants were scored and 47 participants fell in the reflective domain (i.e. scoring 17 or less) and 35 in the impulsive (i.e. scoring 18 or more). Before the main questionnaire, there were some personal questions about sex, age, and field of study. It turned out that out of 82 participants, 42 were male and 40 were female.

Phase (2): To assess the participants' performance on a multiple-choice test, a TOEFL test was employed. 105 participants took the test, and again for the abovementioned reasons, 23 of them were excluded from the study.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data, in addition to descriptive statistics, t – test was also used as the appropriate statistical test to confirm whether the differences between the scores are statistically significant or not. To be more exact, first, on the basis of TOEFL scores, the mean of each group (i.e. male, female, impulsive, and reflective) was calculated. Then, to confirm whether the differences between the means are statistically significant, two t – tests were conducted (the first one to compare the means of males and females and the second one to compare those of the impulsive and reflective groups).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Testing the first null hypothesis comprised of a comparison between the performance of the impulsive and reflective participants on the aforementioned multiple – choice items test. These statistics are given in table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the impulsive and reflective groups

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Reflective	47	397.2340	73.6827	10.7477
Impulsive	35	342.2857	65.7126	11.1075

As it can be seen in this table, the mean of the 47 participants who form the reflective group is 397.23. And the mean of the other 35 participants forming the impulsive group is 342.28. To see whether the difference between the means of the groups is significant or not, a t-test was run. The statistics obtained are $t=3.49$, $df= 80$, $p<.001$ (2-tailed).

Table 3: Descriptive statistics for the impulsive and reflective groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tail)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
Mark Equal Variances assumed	.602	.440	3.496	80	.001	54.95	15.72	23.67	86.23	
Equal Variances not assumed			3.555	77.352	.001	54.95	15.46	24.17	85.72	

As mentioned before, the level of significance in this study was determined at the 5% (0.05) level of significance. This means that if p (the probability that the result occurred due to chance factors) is 0.05 or smaller, the result is said to be significant, i.e. the result is unlikely to have occurred by chance and is likely to be repeatable. If p is greater than 0.05, the result is said not to be significant. Therefore, it can be concluded that the result of this test is highly significant indicating that the difference between the means of the two groups was due to the independent variable (i.e. the impulsivity- reflectivity cognitive styles). The above-mentioned statistics and results demonstrate that the first null hypothesis of this study is rejected; implying that the performance of test takers on a multiple – choice test is affected by their impulsivity / reflectivity cognitive styles. Testing the second null hypothesis comprised of a comparison between the performance of males and females on the aforementioned multiple – choice test. The descriptive statistics for each group were obtained. These statistics are given in table 4.

Table 4: Descriptive statics for males and females

sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	42	371.1905	79.4555	12.2603
Female	40	376.5000	71.2003	11.2578

As shown in table 4 the mean of the male group with its 42 participants is 371.19 and the mean of the female group with its 40 participants is 376.50. Table 5 summarizes the statistics obtained from the t-test. Since the p value of this test (sig (2-tailed) = .751) is greater than our level of significance. (0.05), it can be concluded that the result of this test is not significant indicating that the difference between the means of the two groups was likely (a.75 probability) to be due to chance factors rather than the independent variable (i.e. gender). So the second null hypothesis of this study is accepted, i.e. test takers' gender does not affect their performance on multiple – choice tests.

Table 5: T- test for the performance of males and females

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tail)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Mark	.871	.354	-.318	80	.751	-5.31	16.69	-38.5	27.90
Equal Variances assumed			-.318	79.712	.751	-5.31	16.64	-38.4	27.82
Equal Variances not assumed									

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Conclusions

The results of this study confirm the effect of cognitive characteristics (as one source of test bias) on the performance of test takers on M.C test. The great difference between the means of the two groups (i.e. impulsive and reflective) and the low P value (a.001 probability) encourage the researcher to claim that this result was just due to the independent variable. Concerning the first hypothesis, the researcher came to the conclusion that reflective participants performed better than the impulsive ones on the multiple – choice test. Several reasons might account for this. The most tangible and important reasons are the features of each style and also the nature of multiple – choice tests. Having characteristics of impulsive – reflective and features of multiple – choice items, it can be concluded that the result of the present study was somehow predictable; that is, answering a multiple choice item just requires the psychological process of recognition, and in responding to such an item, there is no “obstacle” (utilizing other psychological processes) to the hurried and premature decisions of impulsive examinees. Thus, in this type of test item, the speed with which the impulsive examinees take a decision is very high and this adds to the probability of having more mistakes. However, this is not the case with reflective subjects. As they always think before making a decision, so the presence or absence of this “obstacle” makes no (or little) difference.

Concerning the second null hypothesis, a difference was noticed between the means of the two groups (i.e. male and female), but it was not statistically significant enough to reject the hypothesis. So, the researcher couldn't find enough evidence to confirm the effect of gender on the test takers' performance on multiple –choice tests. However, this is not to say that this factor undoubtedly doesn't have any influence on the performance of test takers on M-C test in particular and language test in general, and this area (i.e. gender as a source of test bias) is open to further research. A different or larger sample will perhaps show other results.

Implication

The findings of this study can be useful for English teachers (involved in language testing) in that their judgment about students' scores on difference types of test including multiple – choice items should not be merely attributed to their language ability, but factors such as the impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles of test takers should be taken into consideration. The findings may also be of many uses to curriculum developers, syllabus designers, and test developers. Taking insights from such studies, they will be able to justifiably change the linguistic approaches to both language teaching and testing. In that case, psycholinguistic approaches would be the focal point of language teaching syllabuses and language testing materials. The results of such studies can help ESL / EFL professionals deepen their understanding of the nature of human differences in learning, so that they can use more effective

procedures in teaching and testing different groups of learners. In the researcher's opinion, the ultimate goal of such studies will be individualized teaching and testing, i.e. each learner or group of learners with the same learning style must be taught and tested through their individual characteristics.

To make ESL / EFL learning / teaching successful, educators must understand and respect individual's diverse learning styles and make efforts to create optimal learning environment for learners. Testing is, no doubt, one part of learning / teaching process, so here again individuals' different characteristics such as the impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles, sex, age, background knowledge, etc (as different sources of test bias) must be taken into consideration, otherwise tests will be biased for or against various test takers.

Delimitation

The first limitation of this study is its confinement to just one of testing techniques (i.e. multiple – choice test). Another limitation is that the researcher limited himself to the test takers' impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles and sex without taking into consideration the other sources of bias including age, background knowledge, cultural background, ethnicity, and native language.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the English language needs of Medical students at Tehran University of Medical sciences. Analysis of the needs took place for three groups: 320 undergraduate students, 30 postgraduate students and 20 university instructors. A triangulation approach to collect data was used in which a combination of the quantitative (using the questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews) methods was employed. The questionnaire was slightly modified version of the one used by Farhady (2007). Interviews were held with randomly selected 10 participants in each groups. The obtained data from the questionnaires were analyzed through a variety of descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. Comparisons across the groups were then made through inferential statistics such as ANOVA. The findings revealed that Instructors gave highest importance to all four categories: current language skills, current academic skills, future academic skills, and future career skills. Undergraduate students basically rated all four kinds of skills as moderately important. As such, the postgraduate students group can be seen to diverge completely from ratings given by the Instructors and Undergraduate students in the current language and academic skills categories, and to a lesser degree as it relates to future career and academic skills. The results of interviews indicated that Instructors regarded English language as important in medical fields and Undergraduate students stated that the general English books courses were dissatisfied but Postgraduate students indicated that Language skills and specialized skills importance were also top priority for all Undergraduate students.

KEYWORDS: Needs Analysis, Needs Assessment, English for specific purposes ESP courses, Medical Students, IRAN

RESEARCH STUDIES IN NEEDS ANALYSIS

Typically, needs analysis is done on language programs serving adults in academic and professional programs. The following overview provides a sampling of recent studies in needs analysis conducted in different parts of the world. This overview will first present studies conducted within the field of medical English and then present other studies in English for specific purposes. Boshier (2002) conducted a needs analysis study to determine why many ESL students enrolled in a nursing program were not succeeding academically. Interviews, observations, and questionnaires were used to gather information about the objective needs of students. The findings indicated that communicating with clients and colleagues in the clinical setting was perceived as the greatest difficulty. Based on the needs analysis, a course on Speaking and Listening in a Health-Care Setting was developed to respond to what was identified as students' area of greatest difficulty. The content of the course was divided into four units: assertiveness skills, therapeutic communication, information-gathering techniques, and the role of culture in health-care communication. A variety of methods and materials drawn primarily from sources for developing health-care communication skills was used to develop the curriculum.

Mazdayasna and Tahririan (2008) investigated the foreign language learning needs of undergraduate medical sciences students studying in faculties of nursing and midwifery in Iran. A total of 681 undergraduate students as well as 168 subject-specific instructors and 6 EFL instructors participated in the study, which was designed on a qualitative-quantitative survey basis using interviews and questionnaires. Extensive qualitative and statistical analysis of the data revealed that most of the students perceived that they needed to master the foreign language before they attended their specialized courses because they needed to use Persian and English sources to study their subject. Over one-third of the students expressed their dissatisfaction with the number of students in each class, with the teaching methodology used, the method of evaluation, and the amount of foreign culture taught in the class and

content of the textbook. Equally, the subject-specific instructors' responses revealed total dissatisfaction with their students' language skills. It can be inferred that this course does not fully prepare the students to embark on their studies because it does not sufficiently take into account their (1) learning needs, (2) present level of foreign language proficiency, (3) objectives of the course, (4) resources available in terms of staff, materials, equipment, finances and time constraint, (5) the skill of the teachers and the teacher's knowledge of the specific area.

Salehi (2010) investigated the English language needs of Engineering Students. The purpose of the study was three-folds: to evaluate students' needs, to evaluate the psychometric qualities of the developed questionnaire, and to explore the possibility of writing a textbook based on the insights gained from the study. To evaluate the students' needs, wants, and lacks (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), a questionnaire was administered to 225 students at Sharif University of Technology when they took their final exams. Students' scores were made use of with respect to one dimension of the questionnaire which dealt with students' self-assessment of themselves most of which correlate positively with their final scores. Another purpose of the study was to evaluate the questionnaire itself in terms of its statistical properties. In other words, a construct validation study was conducted. There were distinct parts to this questionnaire. A confirmatory factor analysis using Principal Components Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was applied to see if different needs were neatly delineated by the questionnaire. Having applied a CFA with PCA using a three-factor solution, it was seen that items loaded on the expected factors with high loadings. In terms of students' needs, here are the findings: Translation was not deemed appropriate. Note taking was not considered important in their future careers. Technical writing was considered to be very important. Unfortunately, the skill has been totally ignored in the English curriculum in the university. Eslami (2010) investigated the English language needs for Academic Purposes (EAP) in Iran. She believes EAP plays a highly important role in countries where English is used mainly for academic purposes. However, EAP programs have been developed without conducting a systematic needs analysis from both the students' and instructors' perspective. The purpose of this study is to describe the perception that EAP students and instructors have of the problematic areas in EAP programs. A total of 693 EAP students majoring in different academic fields and 37 instructors participated in this study. Survey information included respondents' perception the importance of problematic areas in EAP programs. The results show discrepancy between the perceptions of EAP learners in different academic fields and between learners and instructors. The study has implications for curriculum design and instructional delivery of EAP courses for college level students.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The researcher formulated the following research questions:

1. What are the specific English language needs of Iranian medical students?
2. What language skills do medical students need to develop in high level of education?
3. What language skills and sub-skills students' vocational future lack?

METHODOLOGY

To obtain more reliable data from the participant via different sources, a triangulation approach to collect data was used in which a combination of the quantitative (using the questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews) methods was employed. Triangulation is a procedure long used by researchers, for instance, ethnographers, to work within a tradition to help validate their data and thereby, eventually, to increase the credibility of their interpretations of those data (Long, 2005). The process involves the researcher to compare two or more different sources, methods, investigators or theories, and sometimes combinations thereof (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Long 2005). In this study, the data sources are of two kinds: one is the language instructors and the other is the students. By triangulating these sources and methods of collection of data, the obtained information would be more reliable and as put forward by Jick (1979) would depict a more complete, holistic and contextual portrayal of the unit(s) under study. In the present study, interviews were done with 30 that were randomly selected from each of the three levels at the Medical University of Tehran (i.e., Instructors, postgraduate students, and undergraduate students). The methodology underlying the research was both quantitative (through the implementation of the questionnaire) and qualitative (the interviews).

Participants

The required data were collected through two channels: semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire. The questionnaire was slightly modified version of the one used by Farhady (2007) and is applied by the researcher and it was developed in three versions, one for the Undergraduate students and the other for the instructors and, one for postgraduate students.

All the items of the questionnaires categorized into three main parts: 1) the undergraduate students' present status in terms of their English language proficiency and educational level; 2) the perceived needs of postgraduate students in academic context and 3) the perceived needs of the future of students in the occupational context. All the items in the questionnaires were in Likert-scale form within the range of not important, fairly important, just important and very important.

The questionnaire used in this study was originally developed in three different versions to be used with the instructors, the undergraduate students, and the postgraduate students of three faculties in Medical University of Tehran and related hospitals. The questionnaires were piloted in the second semester of the academic year 2013. The reliability of the questionnaire according to the present context and situation was calculated by piloting the questionnaire with a population of 15 numbers from the Tehran Medical Sciences University. The participants gave the questionnaires during their final exam and gave enough time to complete them. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with a sub sample of the participants. Interviews were held with randomly selected 30 undergraduate students and 30 postgraduate students and 30 Instructors at Tehran University of Medical Sciences. Semi-structured interviews lasted 45-60 minutes, conducted in order to elicit their perception about language skills at the university. Interview questions addressed what they thought about academic listening, writing, requirements for their writing, how they get about writing a paper, how they solved their writing difficulties and so on. Questions asked were not in a fixed order, nor were they asked by repeating exact phrasing for each question. They were asked and answered in Persian, the participants' mother tongue. All interview data was later transcribed into English, with each participant given a pseudonym. The interviews were semi-structured and the main theme of the questions based on the items in the questionnaire in order to elaborate on some of the issues and gather some supportive data to clarify the already mentioned aspects in the questionnaire. The interview participants were 30 numbers in each group (Instructors, postgraduate students, Undergraduate students). The main goal in interviewing the graduate students was to find out which areas of the English language skills they are in need of more, hence predicting the most necessary subject matters to be included in the syllabus of undergraduate ESP courses. During the interviews, the participants could have the questionnaire with themselves which help them elaborate on their ideas which they had already expressed in the questionnaire. The questions of the interview were the required skills and knowledge of students about language skills.

Questionnaire Development

The following steps were taken to the development of the questionnaires: The questionnaire used in this study was the adaptation and modified version of one used by Farhady (2007). A few items from the original study were deleted and some background questions were added to obtain more information about the participants. To ensure the appropriateness and comprehensibility of the questionnaire items, four instructors and four postgraduate students were consulted. The questionnaires were piloted in the second semester of the academic year 2013. The reliability of the questionnaire according to the present context and situation was estimated after piloting the questionnaire within a population of 20 students. Then, the items were translated into Farsi. After checking the translation for accuracy, they were evaluated by 20 students attending their ESP classes at Tehran Medical Sciences University and some of their opinions were considered while preparing the last draft in Farsi. A total of 320 undergraduate students and 30 postgraduate students and 20 instructors majoring in TUMS were selected through purposive sampling. The students were taking ESP as a compulsory course during their university studies at Tehran university of Medical Sciences. The questionnaires were used in forms of three groups of participants: one for the instructors, another for undergraduate students and the other for the postgraduate students of the Medical University of Tehran.

Interviews

The interviews asked students about the language skills needs about ESP course and their teachers' attitudes. To search for the rival explanation, interviews were performed with randomly selected instructors, as well. They were asked about English level of students and language skills at university and vocational future. The students from the Medical University of Tehran list were called individually in an attempt to obtain the permission to conduct in-person interviews.

Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with a sub sample of the participants. The interview participants were 10 that were randomly selected from each of the three levels at the Medical University of Tehran (i.e., Instructors, postgraduate students, and undergraduate students) total 30 participants. These Semi-structured interviews, each lasting 45-60 minutes, were conducted in order to elicit their perceptions about language skills at the university levels. The constituting questions addressed what they thought about academic listening, writing, requirements for their writing, how they get about writing a paper, how they solve their writing difficulties and so on. The questions asked were not arranged in a fixed order, nor were the students asked through repeating exact phrasing for each question. The questions were asked and answered in Persian, the participants' mother tongue. The main theme of the interview questions was developed on the basis of the questionnaire items in order to elaborate on some of the issues raised in such quantitative data, also to gather supportive data that can clarify the already mentioned aspects in the questionnaire. All interview data were then later transcribed into English, with each participant given a pseudonym. Both the students from the TUMS list as well as their instructors were called individually in an attempt to receive their consents and permission to conduct in-person interviews.

Procedures

The first questionnaire was distributed among 20 university instructors at Tehran University Medical sciences and second questionnaire was distributed among 30 postgraduate students at Tehran university medical science and the third questionnaire developed to probe the language skills of the subjects was distributed among 320 undergraduate students at Tehran Medical Sciences University who made copies. The researcher called the officials at the hospitals and explained to them the nature of the study and informed them that his assistant would hand them the questionnaires. When the assistant went to each selected hospital, he also explained orally to the heads of Human Resources at each hospital the nature of the study. The cover page of the questionnaire also contained written explanation about the nature of the study. The researcher and the assistant made daily follow up phone calls to each hospital in order to ensure the maximum possible response rate. As mentioned, there were over 320 undergraduate students, 20 university instructors and 30 postgraduate students participating in this study. All the undergraduate students studied at Tehran University medical science consisted of different proficiency levels. This variance was due to the fact some of the undergraduate students might had English courses apart from the ones needed for university. This discrepancy was useful, because in this way researcher could had a collection of ideas from different viewpoints around the same subject. In TUMS all the students from all language proficiency levels had to pass the same course, therefore, there might be sharply different attitudes about the course among the students. TUMS has been placed among the best universities in Iran; to enter this university, the candidates passed the national university entrance exam with the highest rankings possible.

Data analysis

The data obtained through the data collection phase were of two distinctly different types; one was the numerical data gathered via the questionnaire and the other one was the qualitative data gathered during the interviews. Analyzing the data of these two sources requires different analysis approaches. The obtained data from the questionnaires were analyzed through a variety of descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations since the nature of this part of study was descriptive. Comparisons across the groups were then made through inferential statistics such as T-Tests. All the data obtained from the quantitative phase were analyzed using SPSS software. Analyzing the qualitative data was a time-consuming task which required plenty hours of close scrutiny. Content analysis was followed in order to extract the underlying themes of the datasets produced by the interviewees. In this way, first the categories of data were developed from the interviews transcriptions and notes and then each category was further analyzed to determine major themes. Open and selective codings were thus used as the major procedures for data analysis.

RESULTS

The main objective of the questionnaire was to find out about the participants' perception of the purpose of English language future communicative needs of Tehran Medical Sciences University students in medical fields. Information about the four skills was important to compare and contrast their usage in the medical field. The data showed in total, 55 % of participants in the study were females and 45 % were males.

The findings of the Research Questions

Questionnaire Analysis

Q1: What are the language needs of the medical students of TUMS in the undergraduate level in terms of skills and language areas?

Table 1: One-Sample Test (Instructors' views)

	Test Value = 2.5	
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		Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
Groups	var							Lower Upper
Instructors (20 samples)	Language skills requirement(current)	3.27	0.53	6.49	19	.000	.7687	.521 1.016
	educational skills(current)	2.90	0.56	3.21	19	.005	.4000	.139 .6604
	Language skills requirement(future career)	3.19	0.61	5.00	19	.000	.6875	.400 .9750
	Specialized skills(future career)	3.18	0.52	5.77	19	.000	.6767	.431 .9220
	Reading and Writing Text spices(During the study)	2.85	0.77	2.03	19	.056	.3500	-.0092 .7092
	Reading and Writing Text spices(future career)	3.04	0.85	2.85	19	.010	.5444	.145 .9431

The data on Table 1 showed t-test on Instructors' views. Since t-test calculated for all components in comparison with the t-test table (1.96) is larger. Therefore, it can be concluded with 95% confident level Instructors mean views on language needs students studying the language skills they learn, assuming the mean (2.5), there are significant differences($p < 0/05$).

Table 2: One-Sample Test (Postgraduate Students views)

		Test Value = 2.5							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Groups								Lower Upper	
Postgraduate Students (30 samples)	Language skills requirement (In studying)	1.86	0.69	-5.111	9	.000	-0.64	-0.90 -0.38	
	Specialized skills	1.78	0.67	-5.874	9	.000	-0.72	-0.98 -0.47	
	Relationship with cases (Except in special field)	2.03	0.54	-4.847	9	.000	-0.48	-0.68 -0.27	
	Language skills importance (in career situation)	2.82	0.73	2.375	9	.024	0.32	0.04 0.59	
	Specialized skills importance(in career situation)	2.66	0.68	1.282	9	.210	0.16	-0.10 0.42	

The data on Table 2 showed the results of the test statistics on Postgraduate Students views. Since test statistics calculated for all components in comparison with the test statistics table (1/96) is larger. Therefore, it can be concluded with 95% confident level Postgraduate Students mean views on language needs students studying the language skills they learn, assuming the mean (2/5), there are significant differences($p < 0/05$).

Table 3: One-Sample Test (Undergraduate students' views)

		Test Value = 2.5							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95 Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Groups								Lower	Upper
Undergraduate students (320 samples)	Individual assessment of English language ability	2.62	0.55	3.992	319	.000	.1228	.0623	.1833
	Language skills importance	3.02	0.64	14.622	319	.000	.5227	.4523	.5930
	Specialized skills importance	2.92	0.70	10.738	318	.000	.4207	.3440	.4974
	Language skills importance (in career situation)	3.06	0.63	16.019	318	.000	.5631	.4939	.6322
	Specialized skills(future career)	2.97	0.64	12.896	318	.000	.4653	.3943	.5363

The data on Table 3 showed the results of test statistics on Undergraduate students' views. Since test statistics calculated for all components in comparison with the t-test table (1.96) is larger. Therefore, it can be concluded with 95% confident Undergraduate Students mean views on language needs students studying the language skills they learn, assuming the mean (2.5), there are significant differences ($p < 0/05$).

Q2: Do the current ESP courses offered at this university meet the needs of the students in the higher levels of education?

Table 4: Frequency distribution answers of Instructors to Medical students need language skills (career future)

Improving Language skills	Not important		fairly important		just important		very important	
	Freq	Percent	Frequency	Perce	cy	Per cent	Frequ	Perce
1. Listening and comprehension(general)	1	5.0	2	10.0	8	40.0	9	45.0
2. Listening and comprehension(proficiency)	2	10.0	4	20.0	7	35.0	7	35.0
3. Speaking (general)	1	5.6	1	5.6	10	55.6	6	33.3
4. Speaking(proficiency)	1	5.6			6	33.3	11	61.1
5. Reading and comprehension(general)			4	20.0	7	35.0	9	45.0
6. Reading and comprehension(proficiency)			3	15.0	7	35.0	10	50.0
7. Technical Writing (general)			2	10.0	9	45.0	9	45.0
8. Technical Writing(proficiency)			2	10.0	9	45.0	9	45.0
MEAN(Percent)		3.28		11.33		40.49		44.93

The data on table 4 revealed that 44.93% of the Instructors submitted that the Improving Language Skills were very important needs of Students in their career future; 40.49% was of the view that Improving Language Skills were just important items; 11.33% of the Instructors said that Improving Language Skills were fairly important while; 3.28% of the Instructors claimed that they were not important. This result indicated that more than 84% of the Instructors agreed that Improving Language Skills were high needs of Medical Students in their career future

Table 5: Frequency distribution answers of Instructors to specialized skills (career future)

Improving specialized skills	Not important		fairly important		just important		very important	
	Fr equenc y	Percent	Freq uenc y	Percent	Freq uenc y	Percent	Frequ ency	Percent
9. Web Search			1	5.0	11	55.0	8	40.0
10 . comprehension graphs and tables			3	15.0	7	35.0	10	50.0
11. Taking notes from texts			3	15.0	10	50.0	7	35.0
12. Lecture notes			1	5.0	10	50.0	9	45.0
13. Summary writing			3	15.0	9	45.0	8	40.0
14. Translation			5	25.0	9	45.0	6	30.0
15. Writing Scientific Articles			2	10.0	9	45.0	9	45.0
16. Technical Letter writing	1	5.0	2	10.0	9	45.0	8	40.0
17. Preparation of career reports			2	10.0	11	55.0	7	35.0
18. Resume Preparation			5	25.0	5	25.0	10	50.0
19. comprehension film and tape	1	5.0	5	25.0	5	25.0	9	45.0
20. Preparing research proposals	1	5.0	3	15.0	7	35.0	9	45.0
21. Preparation of the Bulletin catalog and brochure etc	1	5.0	10	50.0	5	25.0	4	20.0
22. Marketing and Commercial Affairs			6	30.0	8	40.0	6	30.0
23. Papers presented at conferences	1	5.0	3	15.0	9	45.0	7	35.0
MEAN(Percent)		1.67		18.00		41.33		39.00

The data on Table 5 revealed that 39.00% of the Instructors submitted that Improving specialized skills were very important needs of students in their career future; 41.33% was of the view that improving specialized skills was just important items; 18.00% of the Instructors said that Improving Language Skills was fairly important while; 1.67% of the Instructors claimed that they were not important. This result indicated that more than 80% of the Instructors agreed that Improving specialized skills were high needs of Medical Students in their career future.

Q3: Do these courses meet the needs of the students' vocational future?

Table 6: Frequency distribution of Postgraduate students to language skills importance (Career and Academic Future)

	Not important		fairly important		just important		very important	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1. Listening and comprehension(general)	10	3.1	58	18.2	162	50.9	88	27.7
2. Listening and comprehension(proficiency)	12	3.8	44	13.8	148	46.4	115	36.1
3. Speaking (general)	13	4.1	54	17.1	139	44.0	110	34.8
4. Speaking(proficiency)	17	5.4	47	14.8	152	47.9	101	31.9
5. Reading and comprehension(general)	10	3.1	41	12.9	165	51.7	103	32.3
6. Reading and comprehension(proficiency)	10	3.2	32	10.1	148	46.7	127	40.1
7. Writing (general)	11	3.5	81	25.6	150	47.3	75	23.7
8. Writing(proficiency)	18	5.7	61	19.2	140	44.2	98	30.9
MEAN(Percent)		3.99		16.46		47.39		32.19

The data on Table 6 revealed that 32.19% of Postgraduate students submitted that Improving Language skills were very important needs of Students in their career and academic future; 47.39% was of the view that Improving specialized skills were just important items; 16.46% of Postgraduate students said that Improving Language Skills were fairly important while; 3.99% of Postgraduate students claimed that they were not important. This result indicated that more than 79% of Postgraduate students agreed that Improving Language skills were high needs of Medical Students in their career and academic future.

Table 7: Frequency distribution of Postgraduate students to specialized skills importance (Career and Academic Future)

specialized skills (Career and Academic Future)	Not important		fairly important		just important		very important	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
9. Web Search	5	1.6	35	11.0	165	51.7	114	35.7
10. comprehension graphs and tables	9	2.8	63	19.8	156	49.1	90	28.3
11. Taking notes from texts	13	4.1	53	16.6	156	48.9	97	30.4
12. Lecture notes	10	3.1	79	24.8	135	42.5	94	29.6
13. Summary writing	17	5.4	70	22.1	140	44.2	90	28.4
14. Translation	12	3.8	45	14.2	148	46.7	112	35.3
15. Writing Scientific Articles	15	4.7	49	15.4	139	43.6	116	36.4
16. Technical Letter writing	15	4.7	52	16.4	139	43.7	112	35.2
17. Preparation of career reports	21	7.4	65	22.9	119	41.9	79	27.8
18. Resume Preparation	18	5.8	53	16.9	141	45.0	101	32.3
19. comprehension film and tape	11	3.5	60	19.0	160	50.8	84	26.7
20. Preparing research proposals	21	6.7	60	19.2	142	45.4	90	28.8
21. Preparation of the Bulletin catalog and brochure etc	28	8.8	89	28.1	124	39.1	76	24.0
22. Marketing and Commercial Affairs	37	11.7	96	30.4	110	34.8	73	23.1
23. Papers presented at conferences	23	7.3	48	15.1	118	37.2	128	40.4
MEAN(Percent)		5.43		19.46		44.31		30.83

The data on Table 7 revealed that 30.83% of Postgraduate students submitted that specialized skills were very important needs of Students in their career and academic future; 44.31% was of the view that Improving specialized skills were just important items; 19.46% of Postgraduate students said that Improving Language Skills were fairly important while; 5.43% of Postgraduate students claimed that they were not important. This result indicated that more than 74% of Postgraduate students agreed that Improving Language skills were high needs of Medical Students in their career and academic future.

Table 8: Comparison of the frequency responses and the percentage of Instructors, Postgraduate Students and Undergraduate Students required Skills of Medical Students at university and vocational status

Groups	Required Skills of Medical Students	Not important	fairly important	just important	very important
Instructors	Improving Language skills(current)	2.50	13.75	38.13	45.63
	Improving Academic Needs(current)	15.71	12.21	36.09	35.97
	Improving Language skills(Career future)	3.28	11.33	40.49	44.93
	Improving Specialized skills(Career future)	1.67	18.00	41.33	39.00
Postgraduate Students	Improving Language skills(at University)	42.33	33.44	19.65	4.59
	Improving Academic Needs (at University)	41.53	39.66	15.93	2.91
	Improving Language skills(job status)	10.03	23.91	39.29	26.76
	Improving Specialized skills(job status)	12.69	34.61	33.62	19.05
Undergraduate Students	Improving Language skills	5.16	17.61	45.66	31.56
	Improving Academic Needs	6.01	22.69	44.99	26.27
	Improving Language skills (career future)	3.99	16.46	47.39	32.19
	Improving Academic Needs (Career and Academic Future)	5.43	19.46	44.31	30.83

The data on Table 8 are analyzed in discussion section.

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

After analyzing the data, the needs of the Postgraduate Students and Undergraduate Students were determined as well as the extent of the relationship among these needs and their Instructors' perception of them. This study set out to explore Medical students' needs of English. Based on Perceived importance of required second language skills of medical students among university Instructors, Postgraduate students and Undergraduate students, when compared in terms of frequency responses varies considerably. The most marked difference among the three groups of raters (Instructors, Postgraduate students and Undergraduate student is due to the Postgraduate students' ratings. Postgraduate students rated current language skills, current academic skills as unimportant, future academic skills as important, and future career skills as moderately important. As such, the post graduate students group can be seen to diverge completely from ratings given by Instructors and Undergraduate students, in the current language and academic skills categories, and to a lesser degree as it relates to future career and academic skills. The postgraduate students marked Language and specialized skills as equally important for success in their current academic studies and their future jobs. The chance to improve certain language skills and specialized skills were a top priority for all postgraduate students. They had a marked preference for being trained on issues involving 'Language skills 'and specialized skills' in career situation. Language skills and specialized skills importance were also top priority for all Undergraduate students. Required Skills of Medical Students by Instructors marked Improving Language skills (current) and career future and Improving Academic Needs (current) as top priority. In contrasts, the postgraduate students group can be seen to diverge completely from ratings given by Instructors and Undergraduate students, in the current language and academic skills categories, and to a lesser degree as it relates to future career and academic skills. Also postgraduate students' interviews expressed fully that the role of Instructor is to draw on students' knowledge of the content to generate communication in the classroom and to help students develop academic language skills which are useful in the study of their disciplines rather than to help them acquire knowledge of their subjects. Postgraduate students' interviews also revealed that the Instructors' objective is to help learners use English effectively in the study of their major disciplines in medical sciences. The discipline-based English books should be developed with a future perspective and with demonstrative practical functions for vocational careers. The Postgraduate Students' assessments of the most difficult specialized skills implies the necessity of directing attentions to those areas in which Medical students have more problems in career and academic future. Including Translation, Writing Scientific Articles, Technical Letter writing may be one solution to this problem. In general all Postgraduate Students were disagreeing on language lessons were learned and to improve further steps should be taken to achieve

a high level language. While the degree of importance was lower for undergraduate students group; nonetheless, undergraduate students basically rated all four kinds of skills (current language skills, current academic skills, future academic skills, and future career skills) as moderately important, just like the Instructor group, albeit, as just stated, to a lesser degree. This implies the necessity of making the ESP Medical students conscious of the part language and specialized skills may play in their career achievements. The results also indicated that, according to Undergraduate students' perceptions, they need knowledge of language in their future career, more than half of the Undergraduate Students agreed that Improving Language skills and Improving Academic Needs were high needs of Medical Students at university, the most important academic English language skill for the Undergraduate students' study is web search, followed by Writing Scientific Articles, and then Translation. It also has an implication for course designers or authors to reconsider the current lack of emphasis on the development of Improving Language and academic skills. Some insights into postgraduates' students, undergraduate students and Instructors' expectations and needs were provided through interviews, which complemented the findings of the questionnaires.

The results of Instructors' interviews indicated that Instructors regarded English language as important in medical fields because science is changing and developing and English is the lingua franca of medical sciences. The results of Undergraduate Students' interviews revealed that the general English books courses were dissatisfied. Nearly all English classes are Instructor-led tutorials in which Undergraduate students are passive. This implies reconsidering the kinds of teaching approaches used in such classes. To sum up, the current study explored Instructors, Postgraduate Students and Undergraduate Students' perceptions about the importance and use of English language skills for the students' academic and career needs in the context of teaching English. Since the Instructors' views did not match the Postgraduate student's self-perceptions of their language abilities, need for doing further research in a wider scope with a larger population is felt in order to investigate the match between Instructors and subjects' views regarding the difficulty of different aspects of language for ESP students. This may enable course designers or material developers to focus their attentions more on those aspects of the language with which the subjects have more problems.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The results of the current study might be treated with circumspection with regard to the following de(limitations): The following limitations might somehow influence the values of the reliability, validity and correlation coefficients of the tests, and the generalizable extent of the results of the research to other situations and participants.

1. The size of the statistical population of this study (20 university Instructors and 30 Postgraduate Students participating in this study except Undergraduate Students) among Instructors and Postgraduate Students are too small to generalize the findings.
2. The effect of the participants' gender on the results of the research has been ignored.
3. There were not enough sources regarding the issues such as language skills ,academic skills and Specialized skills in career and Academic Future .

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INVESTIGATING THE WORD ASSOCIATION BEHAVIOR OF PERSIAN SPEAKERS: THE CASE OF IRANIAN CHILDREN AND ADULTS

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ABSTRACT

Throughout the years, word association methods have established themselves as valuable resources for gaining knowledge in various domains of research. This study, therefore, was an attempt to compare and contrast the word association behavior of children and adults in Persian language. To this end, 24 four to six-year-old children recruited from a day care center and 23 undergraduates studying at an institute of higher education in Shiraz, Iran were given a single-response free word association test. The analysis of the responses to the word association test revealed that both age groups had an inclination towards generating syntagmatic responses, and the concrete stimulus words elicited more syntagmatic responses than the abstract words; Moreover, in all word class types under scrutiny (e.g., nouns, adjectives, and verbs), syntagmatic responses outnumbered the other three types of responses. The findings of this study bring into question the generality of the syntagmatic/paradigmatic shift phenomenon for a language like Persian.

KEYWORDS: word association, syntagmatic responses, paradigmatic responses, free word association task

INTRODUCTION

Word associations, initially used for investigation of human thought and personality (Koff, 1965), are renowned from the field of psychology (Wettler, Rapp, & Feber, 1993, cited in Rapp, 2002). In essence, knowledge about words and word associations (i.e., their relationship to one another) is crucial to various domains of research.

The significance of word association methods in experimental psychology is well documented. Computer-based psychological research has taken advantage of word association methods in the creation and investigation of word association networks (De Deyne & Storms, 2008), semantic networks (De Deyne, Navarro, & Storms, 2012), knowledge organization systems (Peters & Weller, 2008), and other related studies (Altarriba, Bauer, & Benvenuto, 1999; Rapp, 2002; Eakin, 2010).

Word associations have also been used in the study of deaf children (Frick, 1966), mental retardates (Keilman & Moran, 1967), and, recently, children with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) and Language Impairment (McGregor et al., 2012).

These are not the only disciplines that have shown a keen interest in word association methods. Cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics, and applied linguistics are disciplines that have found word association tests quite useful in gaining insights into the very nature of human cognitive system and semantic knowledge. The sizable number of word association studies conducted in the above-mentioned disciplines does not allow us to list them all here; however, a few lines of research pertinent to the current study are going to be presented below after summarizing the rudiments that seem necessary for a better understanding of the discussion that follows.

Wolter (2001) identified three categories of word associations: paradigmatic, syntagmatic, and phonological or 'clang' responses" (Khazaenezhad & Alibabae, 2013, p. 108). Paradigmatic responses, which reflect within-category associations (e.g., dog- cat), are the same part-of-speech as the stimulus word; therefore, we can substitute one of the two words in the association for the other one without affecting the grammaticality of the sentence (Rapp,

2002). Syntagmatic responses, on the other hand, show thematic or within-event associations (e.g., dog-bone) and are not necessarily the same part-of-speech as the prompt word. Syntagmatic responses often appear within a phrase or in a syntactic structure (Rapp, 2002; Rahimi & Haghghi, 2009). Phonological responses, also called clang responses are "semantically unrelated but similar-sounding words" (Khazaenezhad & Alibabae, *ibid*). Clang responses also include orthographical responses, which are associations based on the spelling or physical form of the word. McCarthy (1990), as cited in Rahimi and Haghghi (2009), speaks of another type of responses called encyclopedic responses, which have to do with the respondent's personal experience or knowledge about a given word.

It is evident from earlier studies (Woodrow & Lowell, 1916; Brown & Berko, 1960; Ervin, 1961) that the word association responses of children differ consistently from the association responses of adults. Children have shown a general inclination towards syntagmatic responses, while adults are more likely to produce paradigmatic responses. This developmental change within word association responses has come to be known as the syntagmatic-paradigmatic (S-P) shift. It is assumed that the shift is largely due to schooling and an increasing mental age (Cronin et al., 1985).

Some scholars conceive of the differences in the associative responses of children and adults as being semantic in nature (Brown & Berko, 1960). According to these scholars, "children are said to give more 'contiguity' responses and more 'whole-part' responses while adults are said to give more 'coordinate', 'contrast', and 'similarity' responses (Brown & Berko, 1960, p. 2). In addition to these differences, children's associations are heterogeneous-by-part-of-speech, yet adults' associative responses are homogeneous-by-part-of-speech (Brown & Berko, 1960).

The present study, therefore, aims at investigating the word association behavior among Iranian children and adults in order to come up with the differences that exist between the two populations in the type of associative responses.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The word association studies carried out to date have been conducted, for the most part, in English or other European languages. It is, therefore, of great interest to investigate the word association behavior in a language structurally and culturally different from languages already studied (Sharp & Cole, 1972). Moreover, the very few studies conducted on this issue in Iran have focused solely on Iranian undergraduate EFL learners (Rahimi & Haghghi, 2009; Mohammadi, Alavinia, & Pouyan, 2012; Khazaenezhad & Alibabae, 2013). No published studies have been reported on word association behavior among young children in Iran as compared with adults; consequently, this study is the first one to be conducted on both children and adults in Iran, and it is of particular significance as a developmental study.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study was an attempt to seek answers to the following research questions:

- 1) Are there any differences between the associative responses of children and adults in Persian language?
- 2) Does concreteness affect the type of elicited responses?
- 3) Do different word class forms (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) elicit different response types?
- 4) Is the syntagmatic/paradigmatic shift phenomenon generalizable to the Persian language?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants for this study were 24 four to six-year-old children (13 girls, and 11 boys) recruited from Bachehaye Emrooz Day-care Center located in a middle-class residence area of Shiraz, Iran, and 23 freshmen (18 females, and 5 males) studying at Zand Institute of Higher Education. The freshmen, aging from 18 to 46, were in the second semester of their studies.

The gender variable was not controlled for the present study owing to the fact that previous studies had not shown any significant differences in the response behavior of male and female participants. Among children of different age groups, this study showed particular interest in the investigation of four to six-year-olds due to the fact that according to Lenneberg (1964), as cited in Keilman and Moran (1967, p. 42), "in the normal child, language is said to be essentially established by the age of four".

Instrumentation

Free word association tests have proved to be "the most direct and immediate reflection of human understanding behind the linguistic forms or semantic meanings" (Yuping, 2010, p. 75); in addition, they are time efficient and easy to administer.

Therefore, a single-response free word association test was adopted for the present study, wherein the participants are generally asked to respond to every stimulus word presented to them with the first word coming to mind.

The researchers have chosen to administer a twelve-item word association test. The stimulus words for the test were taken from children's association frequency tables formulated by Woodrow and Lowell (1916). One advantage of Woodrow and Lowell's stimulus list is that 90 of its stimuli were taken from Kent and Rosanoff's (1910) adult frequency tables; therefore, it is appropriate for both age groups specified in this study as it has taken into consideration both children and adult populations. Besides, it has been applied in earlier studies yielding distinctive differences between the associative responses of children and adults.

The stimulus words selected for the present study belong to three different word class forms (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) and two concreteness categories (concrete and abstract). The stimuli appeared in a constant order for all the participants. Table 1 represents the stimulus words and the order in which they were presented.

Table 1: Stimulus words classified by concreteness and word class

Stimulus Word	Concreteness	Word Class
table	Concrete	noun
laugh	concrete	verb
red	concrete	adjective
mountain	concrete	noun
eat	concrete	verb
black	concrete	adjective
illness	abstract	noun
dream	abstract	verb
thirsty	abstract	adjective
anger	abstract	noun
wish	abstract	verb
beautiful	abstract	adjective

Procedure

For children, the test was administered in the form of an interview, in which the first author acted as both the interviewer and the experimenter. The children were interviewed individually outside their classroom in the corridor. Prior to the interview, the interviewer gave each individual a set of oral instructions in Persian, the English translation of which is as follows: "we are going to play a game. I am going to show you 12 picture cards one at a time. Look at each card and tell me the first word that you think of". After providing two examples, as practice words, and ensuring that the participants have understood the game, the interviewer immediately started the test. The responses for each child were recorded by the interviewer on separate response sheets. The interview time was ten minutes per person, and the picture cards were presented in a constant order for all the children.

As for the adult participants, the written-written method of data collection for word association tests (Wolter, 2001, cited in Rahimi & Haghghi, 2009) was adopted. The adult participants were tested in their classroom. They were informed that they were taking part in a study. After giving oral instructions in Persian, the participants were provided with a sheet of paper with written instructions on the top and a list of 12 stimulus words with slots to provide the answers. The participants were asked to jot down the first word that came to mind for each stimulus word. The participants were told not to contemplate deeply or too long on the stimulus words or not to go back to previous stimuli. Also, they were asked not to discuss the responses with their classmates. The time allotted for the

test was approximately ten minutes.

Data Analysis

For the sake of data encoding, the elicited responses were classified into association types based upon traditional models of word association tests. Therefore, the associative responses in this study were classified into four types: paradigmatic responses, syntagmatic responses, clang-other type responses, and encyclopedic responses.

Paradigmatic responses belong to the same word class as the stimulus word and can be further classified into synonymy (x has the same meaning as y, e.g., happy-glad), antonymy (x is the opposite of y in meaning, e.g., cold-hot), hyponymy or subordination (x is a kind of y, e.g., dog-pet), hypernymy or superordination (x incorporates y as one of its kind, e.g., pet-dog), co-hyponymy or coordination (x and y are kinds of z, e.g., cat-dog), and meronymy (x is part of y, e.g., kitchen-house).

Syntagmatic responses, which bear a collocational or sequential relationship with the stimulus word, are, in turn, classified into lexical, grammatical, and restricted collocations. In lexical collocations, lexical items play a significant role in forming repeated patterns. Grammatical collocations, on the other hand, rely on syntactic structures such as prepositional or verb particles (e.g., buckle up), and restricted collocations are lexico-grammatically restricted in a way that very few words can co-occur with them (e.g., auburn is only used to describe hair color).

In clang responses, associations are often made based on the form of the word rather than its meaning. Clang responses are of two types: phonological (associations made based on sound play or rhymes, e.g., think-thank, up-cup), and orthographic (associations based on the spelling or the physical appearance of the word, e.g., there-three, beat-beet). On the other hand, other-type responses incorporate unrelated responses, blank and 'I don't know' responses, anecdotal responses, and responses that are repetition of the prompt word.

Finally, encyclopedic responses are associated with one's personal knowledge about the word. For instance, if the word *fire* is elicited in response to the stimulus word *disaster* just because the respondent reminds his/her house catching fire as a child, the response can be considered as encyclopedic (Pigott, 2006).

However, classification of the elicited responses into paradigmatic/syntagmatic types is more complicated than it might appear at first glance as we often encounter ambiguous responses and we have no further access to the participants to ask for clarification. Therefore, in order to maintain consistency in our paradigmatic/syntagmatic classification, the elicited responses were classified as paradigmatic if their lexical class was the same as the stimulus word and as syntagmatic if their lexical class was different, yet the responses were classified as syntagmatic when they could form a syntactic string with the stimulus word (e.g., telegraph office).

In addition, the following lemmatizations were made to keep consistency in classification:

- 1) Inflected forms were regarded as the repetition of the stimulus word and were, therefore, classified as clang-other type responses.
- 2) Derived forms (e.g., dwell-dweller) were regarded as words separate from the stimulus word rather than the repetition of the stimulus word.
- 3) In case of multiple responses, only the first response was considered and others were excluded.
- 4) In multi-word responses, which appear in the form of phrases, only the head word was taken into consideration (e.g., 'single males' was counted as *males*).

After classifying the elicited responses, the frequency of each association type was calculated. Chi-square analysis was also administered to determine whether the observed differences between the associative response types were statistically significant at .05 probability level ($P < .05$). The data were further analyzed in terms of stimulus words' quality (concreteness vs. abstractness) and word class forms (nouns, verbs, and adjectives), the results of which were tabulated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2: Frequency of association responses as a function of age

Association Age	Syntagmatic			Paradigmatic						Encyclopedic	Clang					
	L	G	R	S	A	HO	HE	M	C		P	O	B	U	RE	AN
Children	128	0	0	3	7	1	0	1	38	78	0	0	9	15	2	6
Adults	155	0	0	6	2	3	1	2	21	82	0	0	1	2	1	0

- L: Lexical collocation
 G: Grammatical collocation
 R: Restricted collocation
 S: Synonymy
 A: Antonymy
 HO: Hyponymy
 HE: Hypernymy
 M: Metonymy
 C: Coordination
 P: Phonological association
 O: Orthographic association
 B: Blank response
 U: Unrelated response
 R: Repetition
 A: Anecdotal

As Table 2 demonstrates, for both children and adults, a consistent pattern was detected for all the four association response types. In both age groups, syntagmatic responses had the highest frequency of occurrence (adults: 155, children: 128), encyclopedic responses had the second highest frequency of occurrence (adults: 82, children: 78), paradigmatic responses came third (adults: 35, children: 50), and clang-other type responses had the lowest frequency of occurrence (adults: 4, children: 32). The Chi-square test revealed that the significance for *P* value was less than .05 ($P < .05$), indicating that the differences in the frequency of association responses of the children and adults were statistically significant (see Table 3).

Table 3: Chi-Square Tests for association responses as a function of age

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	26.858 ^a	3	.000
Likelihood Ratio	29.876	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.998	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	564		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.62.

It follows from Table 2 that, among the syntagmatic responses, all the elicited responses belonged to the category of lexical collocations, yet there were no instances of grammatical or restricted collocations. This might be justified in two ways: first, grammatical collocations and particularly restricted collocations are not very frequent in the Persian language; second, the particular choice of stimulus words in this study might have elicited certain types of association responses in preference to others. As demonstrated in Table 2, among the paradigmatic responses, coordination was dominant in both age groups (adults: 21, children: 38). This is in accordance with Atchinson's (2003) view, as cited in Rahimi & Haghghi's (2009), that coordination has proved to be the commonest type of pragmatic response. As for the clang-other type responses, there were no instances of phonological associations observed. This is, of course, in line with Rahimi & Haghghi's (2009) view who maintain that phonological responses are not very frequent. Among the elicited responses, orthographic associations were not observed either. This is probably due to the very nature of the oral-written method of test administration often adopted for children in which orthographic responses are less activated in the absence of visual stimuli (Rahimi & Haghghi, 2009). However, unrelated responses were more frequent than their counterparts in both age groups (adults: 2, children: 15). (see Table 2).

Table 4: Frequency of association responses based on stimulus word class and quality

	Quality		Word Class		
	Concrete	Abstract	Noun	Adjective	Verb

	Ch	A	Total												
Syntagmatic	74	84	158	54	71	125	46	58	104	43	53	96	37	48	85
Paradigmatic	29	11	40	21	24	45	17	13	30	22	11	33	13	11	24
Encyclopedic	21	40	61	57	42	99	23	18	41	21	37	58	36	28	64
Clang	17	2	19	15	2	17	13	3	16	9	0	9	11	0	11

As far as the stimulus word quality (abstractness/concreteness) is concerned, the analysis of responses revealed that concrete words elicited more syntagmatic responses (adults: 84, children: 74) than did abstract words (adults: 71, children: 54). This is while abstract words elicited more paradigmatic responses (adults: 24, children: 21) than concrete words (see Table 4). The result from the Chi-square test indicated a significance difference in the response types elicited by concrete vs. abstract stimuli (see Table 5 below).

Table 5: Chi-Square Tests for association responses based on stimulus word quality

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.167a	3	.004
Likelihood Ratio	13.261	3	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	7.863	1	.005
N of Valid Cases	564		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.74.

Finally, the elicited responses were analyzed from the stimulus word class perspective (nouns, adjectives, verbs) in order to determine if there are any significant differences in the response frequencies. The results of the analysis revealed that the nouns elicited the highest number of syntagmatic responses, followed by the adjectives, followed by the verbs in both children and adults (see Table 4). However, the Chi-square test suggested that the differences in the frequency of the responses elicited by the stimuli belonging to different word class families were not statistically significant ($P > .05$), implying that the observed differences might be due to chance alone (see Table 6).

Table 6: Chi-Square Tests for association responses based on stimulus word class

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.450 ^a	6	.107
Likelihood Ratio	10.585	6	.102
Linear-by-Linear Association	.007	1	.935
N of Valid Cases	571		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.60.

These findings, together, highlight that, in Persian language, syntagmatic associations take priority over paradigmatic ones, the very fact which assumes the possibility for the existence of a language-specific acquisition route for word association knowledge that is typical of Persian speakers and a highly specified organizational pattern for their mental lexicon. However, further studies are required for a better understanding of the hidden depths of this consistency in the elicited responses. Moreover, a closer investigation of the developmental changes in the type of association responses from childhood to adulthood sounds necessary. A comparison of association responses elicited from speakers of other languages could be of great help in this regard (Yuping, 2010).

CONCLUSION

The present study aimed at exploring the differences in the word association responses of Iranian children and adults and the influence of the stimulus word class and quality (concreteness/abstractness) on the elicitation and type of association responses. To this end, four research questions were posed.

In reference to the first research question, it must be pointed out that despite the existence of statistically significant differences in the frequency of children and adults' responses, both age groups are likely to follow a consistent pattern in their word association behavior in Persian, i.e., syntagmatic responses > encyclopedic responses > paradigmatic responses > clang-other type responses. This general tendency towards syntagmatic responses is in line with Rahimi and Haghghi's (2009) conclusion that Iranian students tend to respond syntagmatically to word association tests.

In response to the second and third research questions, it is worth mentioning that all the word quality and class types seem to elicit the same types of responses, mainly syntagmatic ones. The very fact that concrete and abstract nouns,

verbs, and adjectives elicit similar types of association responses in Persian, may lead us to conclude that concreteness and word class types do not influence the type of association responses that much.

As for the fourth question, the results of the study points to a consistent pattern of responding, i.e., a tendency towards syntagmatic associations in both age groups under scrutiny in Persian. This is, of course, in accordance with the view that for non-native speakers of English, association responses are often syntagmatic rather than paradigmatic (Deigan et al, 1996, cited in Rahimi & Haghighi, 2009). This very fact casts doubt on the generality of the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift phenomenon emphasizing the need for re-evaluation of the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift for non-native speakers (Wolter, 2001, cited in Khazaenezhad & Alibabae, 2013).

Why this study revealed such a consistent response pattern for the Persian language, might have been affected by the choice of stimulus words or methods of test administration or there might have been educational, cultural, societal, or linguistic reasons for it (Rahimi & Haghighi, 2009), the investigation of which is beyond the scope of this study. In fact, this study focused, for the most part, on the 'what' aspect of the issue rather than the 'why' aspect. Therefore, while we have to exercise extreme caution in drawing absolute conclusions about Persian language simply based on the findings from the present study, the results of this study could be illuminating and might have various pedagogical implications.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Several factors might have imposed limitations upon the present study which are going to be enumerated below:

1. Due to the absence of children and adults' frequency tables in Persian language, the stimulus words chosen for this study were taken from Woodrow and Lowell's (1916) children's association frequency tables formulated basically for English language, the very fact that might have influenced the results from this study.
2. For time considerations, a short word association test consisting of merely 12 items was administered for this study. More precise results might have been gained if the number of stimulus words could be expanded.
3. Finally, the relatively small number of participants in this study might have limited the results. If the researchers had not been pressed for time, they could have interviewed a larger number of participants, which would add to the accuracy of the obtained results.

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ABSTRACT

Web 2.0 refers to web sites that use technology beyond the static pages of earlier web sites allowing for creating, collaborating, editing and sharing user-generated content online. With the emergence of Web 2.0 tools, a large body of societies has embraced the new wave of technology. One of these affected sections is education in general, and language pedagogy in particular. Accordingly, in this era of fundamental changes, it is necessary to rethink the effective use of Web 2.0 tools in language learning and teaching. Accordingly, the present study investigated the Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes towards implementing Web 2.0 tools in teaching various language skills and components in Iranian EFL context. In so doing, a questionnaire was distributed among 112 Iranian EFL teachers. The main focus of the questionnaire was on the most important Web 2.0 tools, namely Blogs, Social networks, Emails, Podcasts and vodcasts, and Wikis. The findings showed that Iranian EFL teachers had positive attitudes towards the use of such tools in English language classrooms. Implications are discussed.

KEYWORDS: Language pedagogy, Web 2.0 tools, EFL teachers' attitudes, Iranian context

INTRODUCTION

As Web-based technology evolved from Web 1.0 to Web 2.0, everyday lives have increasingly integrated with Web-based tools. Web 2.0 tools have become a vehicle of innovation in different areas of education, as a part of life. Consequently, the traditional methods of education are gradually shifting toward web-based educational methods. This new paradigm provides new and effective dimensions in education, and language pedagogy as well. The large body of literature on the incorporation of Web 2.0 tools in education (Beldarrain, 2006; Grosseck, 2009; Usluel & Mazman, 2009; Chong, 2010; Grosseck & Holotescu, 2010; Arnold & Paulus, 2010; Lai & Eugenia, 2011; Chandra & Watters, 2011; Gokcearslan, & Ozcan, 2011; Brown, 2011), and in language pedagogy (Heift & Schulze, 2003; Palfreyman, 2006; Yang & Chen, 2007; Bran, 2009; Küfi & Özgür, 2009; Pop, 2010; Baltaci-Goktalay & Ozdilek, 2010; Girgin, 2011; Abdous, Facer & Yen, 2011; Eyyam, Meneviş & Doğruer, 2011, Kovacic, Bubas & Coric, 2012) indicates the effectiveness of these tools in education in general, and in language pedagogy in particular. Bran (2009) referred to the authentic contexts provided by the use of Web 2.0 tools in language learning environments as a beneficial feature for the students to create, collaborate, and connect with other people all around the world with no limit in time and place. According to Pop (2010), implementing Web 2.0 tools in language pedagogy resulted in higher levels of motivation, confidence, and disposition which are crucial factors in communicative foreign language learning. Yang and Chen (2007) also believed that Web 2.0 based language learning program helped enhance students' knowledge of computer, increase their interest in learning, improve their English language abilities, and provide a broad learning range and possibilities.

In addition to the literature concerning the effectiveness of Web 2.0 tools in language learning and teaching, assessing the stakeholders' attitude towards implementing Web 2.0 tools in language pedagogy as an important issue that has been addressed in foreign language learning research. According to Küfi and Özgür (2009), students had positive attitudes towards interactive web environment use in learning English. In contrast, Girgin (2011) found that despite learners' pleasure in using web 2.0 tools in their English classrooms, they were more comfortable with the face to face traditional methods of teaching in gaining language competence. Positive attitudes of teachers toward using web 2.0 tools play a crucial role in implementing these tools in education. Baltaci-Goktalay and Ozdilek (2010) found pre-service teachers' positive attitudes and high level of acceptance of web 2.0 tools in education. According to Eyyam, Meneviş and Doğruer (2011), teachers mostly used some well-known web 2.0 tools such as

Wiki, Social Networks and Instant Messaging Software in their classrooms, but they were not eager to use some other useful but less known tools. On the other hand, there still exists some misperception about the Web 2.0 tools. Brown (2011) argued that having too many tools and not enough time to use them makes student confused.

Teachers' epistemological beliefs, their views about the nature of knowledge and learning, and the effectiveness of Web 2.0 tools may affect their teaching approaches. It worth mentioning that different Web 2.0 tools address diverse needs of English language learners, and each may be suitable for tasks of different complexity. They can be implemented to organize the learning content, support learning activities, and address different learning styles (Kovacic, Bubas & Coric, 2012). Despite the numerous research on the effectiveness of Web 2.0 tools in language pedagogy and also positive attitudes of teachers towards using Web-based tools in language learning classrooms, still there are some controversies about the implementation of Web 2.0 tools in English language learning environments in Iran. The field seems to lack a unified theory of the use of Web 2.0 tools in language pedagogy and the scope within which such tools can be applied. On the other hand, due to social and cultural constraints, much needs to be done to see how such factors affect the success or failure of the use of such tools in different cultures and languages. To this end, this study is going to investigate Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward implementing web 2.0 applications in teaching various language skills and components in Iranian EFL context.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

A researchers-made questionnaire was distributed among 112 English language teachers teaching in different private language institutes and universities in Iran. The sample included 80 females and 32 males, with B.A and M.A degrees. Their age ranged between 26 to 46 years, with 1 to 27 years of experience.

Instruments

To achieve the objectives of this study a researchers-made questionnaire was used. The main focus of the questionnaire was on the main Web 2.0 tools, namely blogs, social networks, podcasts, vodcasts, and wikis. The questionnaire comprised of two parts; the extent to which teachers were familiar with the mentioned Web 2.0 tools, and the extent to which teachers would agree or disagree with statements about learning English through using Web 2.0 tools in foreign language classrooms. It is presented in the appendix.

Procedure and Data Analysis

To achieve the goals of this study, a questionnaire comprising of a list of the most studied Web 2.0 tools in the literature was designed and piloted among 15 EFL teachers with M.A degree. They were asked to identify the tools with which they were the most familiar. According to the data gleaned from the pilot questionnaires, five tools – blogs, wikis, social networks, emails, and podcasts and vodcasts- were the most familiar to the participants. The main questionnaire consisting of 34 items was prepared based on Bachman's (1991) Framework of Communicative Language Ability, in winter 2012. The questionnaires were distributed among the participants in spring 2012, they were asked to answer the questionnaire considering the five mentioned tools. (The reliability of the questionnaire was estimated at 0.92).After collecting the data, certain statistical techniques were run, which are presented and discussed at length in the following section.

RESULTS

The questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively to calculate percentage of familiarity of the participants with these tools, and X^2 value, df, and level of significance of each item to recognize the participants' attitudes towards implementing these tools in language teaching.

3.1. Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes towards implementing Web 2.0 tools

Table 1: Percentage of the participants' familiarity with Web 2.0 tools

	Very little%	Little%	Average%	Much%	Very much%
Blogs	0	13.4	37.5	33	16.1
Emails	0	0	15.2	40.2	44.6
Social networks	7.1	14.3	8	25.9	44.6
Podcasts & Vodcasts	0	12.5	40.2	27.7	19.6
Wikis	0	8	33	29.5	29.5

As Table 1 shows, the participants were familiar with emails and social networks more than the other four tools. Blogs were also the least known Web 2.0 tools to the participants. Wikis were recognized as the third most known Web 2.0 tool to the participants, followed by podcasts and vodcasts respectively.

3.2. Iranian EFL teachers' attitude toward teaching and learning different skills and components of language by the use of Web 2.0 tools

Table 2: The Pearson chi-square test results for the items concerning language skills and components.

Web 2.0 tools help our students	X ²	df	Asymp.Sig
enhance their textual knowledge.	78.071	3	.000
enhance their sensitivity to dialect.	102.821	4	.000
enhance their sensitivity to social register.	17.357	3	.001
enhance their sensitivity to cultural norms.	47	3	.000
enhance their reading comprehension skill.	121.482	4	.000
enhance their speaking skill.	54.214	3	.000
enhance their writing skill.	104.429	3	.000
enhance their listening skill.	99.786	4	.000
increase their vocabulary knowledge.	109.929	3	.000
improve their knowledge of grammar.	22.357	3	.000
have coherence and organization in their writings.	80.786	3	.000
enhance their communicative competence.	721.929	3	.000
become familiar with the differences between the target and the native culture.	46.214	3	.000
achieve an acceptable level of language proficiency.	76.786	3	.000
develop their foreign language pragmatic competence.	43.357	3	.000

As the results of the above table shows, participants agreed that Web 2.0 tools have positive effect on learning different components and skills of language. As it is evident, it is believed that these tools are much more helpful enhancing vocabulary knowledge, and reading comprehension skill, writing skill, sensitivity to dialect, and communicative competence.

Table 3: The Pearson chi-square test results for the items to which Web 2.0 tools can be tailored.

Web 2.0 tools and activities can be tailored to	X ²	df	Asymp.Sig
the students' personality traits.	52.929	3	.000
the students' learning strategies.	88.357	3	.000
the students' needs.	48.714	3	.000
the students' affective features.	20.696	2	.000
the teachers' teaching strategies.	11.375	2	.003

As is evident from the above table, the participants agreed that Web 2.0 tools are highly compatible to the students' learning strategies and personality traits.

Table 4: The Pearson chi-square test results for the items concerning affective factors.

Classes using Web 2.0 tools and activities	X ²	df	Asymp.Sig
make students feel more motivated in learning the foreign language.	41.375	2	.000
reduces the students' anxiety.	43.357	3	.000
are more interesting to the students than the traditional ones.	58.196	2	.000
are more interactive than the regular classes.	35.589	2	.000
are authentic.	48.714	3	.000
have fixed but dynamic Curriculum.	46.357	3	.000

As the table 4 shows, classes using Web 2.0 tools and activities seem to be more interesting, interactive and authentic. These classes can be more motivating and less stressful to the students than the regular ones.

Table 5: The Pearson chi-square test results for the items concerning tasks and activities.

Tasks and activities designed by the use of Web 2.0 tools	X ²	df	Asymp.Sig
are more challenging.	38.786	3	.000
are more meaningful to the students.	41.786	3	.000
have more information gaps.	41.929	3	.000
are authentic, personalized, and learner-driven.	62.643	3	.000

As it can be inferred from the above table, tasks and activities designed by the use of Web 2.0 tools include the essential features of a communicative language classroom. Authentic, personalized, and learner driven tasks and activities were the most agreed features from the participants' points of view.

Table 6: The Pearson chi-square test results for the items concerning the students' performance.

In classes using Web 2.0 tools, students	X²	df	Asymp.Sig
become more creative.	49.143	2	.000
receive more feedback from teachers and peers.	11.643	2	.003
collaborate more with each other.	21.714	2	.000
Can design the materials based on their needs.	7.196	2	.027

The results of the above table shows that most of the participants agreed that students can collaborate more with each other so that they become more creative and can even cooperate in designing their learning materials.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this section, the results of the study are discussed at length. Before that, however, the summary of the findings are presented in 5.1.

Summary of the findings

The results from Table 1 showed that the participants were highly familiar with the Web 2.0 tools including blogs, social networks, wikis, emails, and podcasts and vodcasts. Among the mentioned tools, emails and social networks were the most known to the participants. The results attained from Tables 2 showed that the participants believed Web 2.0 tools could help students in learning the four macro skills, namely reading comprehension, writing, listening, and speaking. They agreed that these tools could also help students enhance their vocabulary knowledge and sensitivity to dialect the most. Looking at Table 2, one could easily figure out that among the four macro skills, development of reading comprehension skill seemed to be more in line with the features of the so-called tool. On the other hand, Web 2.0 tools should be tailored to the needs and personality traits of the students both from a linguistics perspective as well as an educational direction if they are expected to be effective. As illustrated by Table 3, most of the teachers agreed that these tools could be tailored to students' learning strategies, and personality traits. This may result in classes which respect all students with different learning styles and personality traits. Moreover, affective factors as a critical aspect of language learning and teaching have always been important to the curriculum developers. As it is evident from the results demonstrated by Table 4, the participants agreed that using these tools makes the classrooms more interesting, authentic and dynamic which would result in a more effective learning. Participants also agreed that these tools have a positive effect on the foreign language classrooms' atmosphere, tasks and activities and on the students' cooperation in the classrooms. From the results of table 5 and 6, it can be inferred that using Web 2.0 tools motivates students to collaborate in designing their own tasks and activities which results in more authentic and personalized tasks, and makes students more creative.

Discussion and Conclusion

As it was stated earlier, though Web 2.0 potentials in Education and Language pedagogy has been highlighted (Palfreyman, 2006; Yang, 2007; Bran, 2009; Pop, 2010; Abdous, 2011; Girgin, 2011), there are still some controversies about the implementation of these tools in language pedagogy. Since Web 2.0 tools have not been originally designed for education, lack of an adequate design for the appropriate use of these tools in language pedagogy turns to be one of the major constraints. Accordingly, the aim of this study was to investigate the Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes towards implementing these tools in English language classrooms and to see how this constraint can be overcome.

Web 2.0 technology prepares more effective environments on interactive and collaborative cooperation of the students, though not designed especially for practical educational aims. Moreover, this technology is important to the studies of teaching and learning for quality learning in education about the efficacy of technology, significance of active participation, critical thinking, social interaction, collaborative learning and two way communications (Beldarrain, 2006). Language pedagogy as a subset of educational system can benefit from these technologies if these tools are designed in a way compatible to learning language skills and components. Since the most important features of these tools are social interaction, collaboration, creativity, information sharing, and authenticity, they can be easily compatible to Communicative Language Ability models, e.g. Canale and Swain (1980), Bachman (1991).

Canale and Swain (1980) suggested a set of three competences which combine to produce communicative competence. The first, grammatical competence, included “knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar semantics and phonology”. The second competence was sociolinguistic competence, comprising of “sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse”. The third competence was strategic competence, which related to “verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence”. Bachman (1991) defined authenticity as the appropriateness of a language users’ response to language as communication. Because this definition was too broad, Bachman and Palmer (1996) divided it into two parts; one relates to the target language use which refers to authenticity, and the other relates to learners’ involvement to the test. They defined interactiveness as “the extent and type of involvement of the test taker’s individual characteristics in accomplishing a test task” (p.25). On the basis of these definitions, Web 2.0 tools can be served as potential authentic and interactive tools in communicative language learning and teaching. Furthermore, the most Web 2.0 tools enjoy features which are highly in line with both instructional and situational authenticities delineated by Bachman (1991).

Finally, as displayed in Tables 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 and emphasized in previous sections, Web 2.0 tools each may enjoy potentials more compatible for the development of certain language skills and components and for certain ages and personality traits under conditions and in certain contexts. These besides the constraints on the way of using these tools in English language Education should be taken into considerations in the justification, development, and implementation of any task, test, and activity for the language classrooms.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Like any other researches, there are some limitations for this study. As it was stated earlier, web 2 tools enjoy intrinsic cultural and social constrains that call for a cautious use in educational contexts in general and language teaching and learning contexts in particular. Furthermore, a few of web 2 tools were investigated in this study. Further tools might divulge the potentials and possible constraints of web 2 tools more. Finally, this study was carried out in Iranian EFL context. Any generalization about the findings of this study should be limited to the given context.

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Appendix

Please put a check mark in the appropriate box.

- Gender: male female
- Age:.....
- Degree of education: Bachelor M^{er} Ph.D
- Years of experience:.....

1. To what extent are you familiar with the following internet tools in EFL teaching?

Tool \ Degree	None	Very little	Little	Average	Much	Very much
Blogs						
Podcasts						
Social networks						
Vodcasts						
Wikis						

2. Do you agree or disagree with the statements about learning English using web 2.0 tools?

(Strongly disagree (SD) Disagree (D) Neutral (N) Agree (A) Strongly agree (SA))

Statements	SD	D	N	A	SA
Web 2.0 tools help our students					
1 enhance their textual knowledge.					
2 enhance their sensitivity to dialect.					
3 enhance their sensitivity to social register.					
4 enhance their sensitivity to cultural norms.					
5 enhance their reading comprehension skill.					
6 enhance their speaking skill.					
7 enhance their writing skill.					
8 enhance their listening skill.					
9 increase their vocabulary knowledge.					
10 improve their knowledge of grammar.					
11 have coherence and organization in their writings.					

12	enhance their communicative competence.					
13	become familiar with the differences between the target and the native culture.					
14	achieve an acceptable level of language proficiency.					
15	develop their foreign language pragmatic competence.					
	Web 2.0 tools and activities can be tailored to					
16	the students' personality traits.					
17	the students' learning strategies.					
18	the students' needs.					
19	the students' affective features.					
20	the teachers' teaching strategies.					
	Classes using Web 2.0 tools and activities					
21	make students feel more motivated in learning the foreign language.					
22	reduces the students' anxiety.					
23	are more interesting to the students than the traditional ones.					
24	are more interactive than the regular classes.					
25	are authentic.					
26	have fixed but dynamic Curriculum.					
	Tasks and activities designed by the use of Web 2.0 tools					
27	are more challenging.					
28	are more meaningful to the students.					
29	have more information gaps.					
30	are authentic, personalized, and learner-driven.					
	In classes using Web 2.0 tools, students					
31	become more creative.					
32	receive more feedback from teachers and peers.					
33	collaborate more with each other.					
34	Can design the materials based on their needs.					

THE ARCHETYPE OF THE HERO'S JOURNEY IN ODYSSEY

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ABSTRACT

The Odyssey is a classic representation of an epic in literature. With that understood, it is no surprise that the main character of the story helps to define an epic hero. A character must express certain virtues to be considered such. Strength, courage, and nobility are almost prerequisites. Cleverness is an added bonus. Odysseus possesses many characteristics and virtues that make him a true representation of an epic hero. The Hero's Journey is never an easy one. This particular journey, as detailed in Homer's The Odyssey, is one of struggle, loss, heartache, pain, growth and triumph. It is comprised of many steps that Odysseus has to overcome and battle through in order to achieve his final goal of reaching his home and his loved ones, from the Call to Adventure to the Freedom or Gift of living.

KEYWORDS: archetype, Odyssey, hero's Journey, Jung, Campbell

INTRODUCTION

Carl Jung and Joseph Campbell are two of the most prominent explorers of the psycho analytical and mythological origins for human and social behavior.

Carl Jung expanded the unconscious mind to emphasize the mythological forces working within the individual to shape his or her personality. Jung formed the concept of archetype and collective unconscious to explain the commonality of dream images and situations found in all people. Jung believed individual and social behavior and thought have their roots in a common palette of characters and situations the mind retains from early human consciousness development. To Jung, the archetypal hero represents the psyche's quest for individuation, the process that makes each person unique (Jung, 1959).

Joseph Campbell built on Carl Jung's concept of the collective unconscious to encompass all the world's mythologies. Campbell studied the world's religions, art, and stories and discovered common threads throughout all, including the hero. Campbell believed that mythology is the collective "dream" of mankind, the "song of the universe." (Campbell,1970) . Campbell's work highlights mankind's common search, both personally and socially, for meaning and truth through the ages.

THE ARCHETYPE

An archetype is a recurring pattern of character, symbol, or situation found in the mythology, religion, and stories of all cultures. In the context of archetypes, Campbell defined his work as a search for "the commonality of themes in world myths, pointing to a constant requirement in the human psyche for a centering in terms of deep principles." (Campbell, et al 1988). Jung defined his concept of the archetype as a formula that is the result of "countless experiences of our ancestors. They are, as it were, the psychic residue of numberless experiences of the same type " (Strauch, 2001). Both men felt that the experience of being human can be examined collectively across time, space, and culture, and that our commonality can be traced to the most primitive origins of the human consciousness, where the archetypal themes originate in modern men and women.

Archetypes can be thought of as the precursor to conscious thought, existing in the unconscious mind as expressions of psychic happenings, but without a basis in the physical world. Humans didn't "invent" archetypes, but they do express archetypes in the conscious world of art, literature, and religion (Dundes, 1984).

Unconscious energies are given form in this way. Therefore, the hero is not someone "out there" in the world; he is all of us and our need to grow and mature.

The following paragraphs describe several of the archetypal characters that can occur in the stories, myths, etc.

EXAMPLES OF ARCHETYPES

Outsider-The outsider archetype also takes the form of the rebel (Preminger and Brogan, 1993). This is the character which, by virtue of what he or she is or thinks, is an outsider to the community. The character often displays an attitude of radical freedom, a feeling of powerlessness, or anger over perceived injustice. This frequently results in behavior that can be viewed by the community as outrageous or rebellious. The classic Italian folk tale about the puppet named Pinocchio presents the outsider archetype in the form of the misfit. Another example might be the character often played by Clint Eastwood in his early Western movies. In that case, the outlaw archetype is often combined with the rescuer, or hero, archetype.

Innocent-The archetypal character named innocent represents something beyond simply "one who isn't guilty" (Rasmussen, 1998). The innocent is one whose purity has not (or at least not yet) been compromised by knowledge of the world and its evils. Thus, the innocent can take the form of the child, the naive youth, the saint, or the mystic. This character usually carries the symbolism of optimism, simplicity, goodness, or faith. An example of this archetype might be Beatrice, one of Dante's guides in the Divine Comedy. Another example, much more recent and probably more familiar to most of you, would be Dorothy from the movie The Wizard of Oz. (Note that Dorothy also represents another archetype -- the explorer. Just like Odysseus, she's in search of a way home.)

Ruler-The ruler archetype also appears as the leader, the commander, the boss, or the manager. The ruler strives to be in control of the circumstances, assumes responsibility, and/or shows leadership. The objective of the ruler archetype is usually order, harmony, and control. Gilgamesh is an instance of the ruler archetype. So is Priam, from the Iliad, even though he's an older, more defeated version of the ruler (Tallman, 2005).

Trickster-The trickster archetype can also be called (or appear as) the jester, the clown, the comedian, or the fool (in the Shakespearean sense of the fool (Garry and Shamy, 2005)). The trickster is one who relies on his or her wits and is willing to cross boundaries, break taboos, or say the unmentionable. Typically, this transgression of barriers is executed using humor, sarcasm, or irony, all of which are heavily dependent on language and its openness to multiple or ambiguous meanings. Odysseus is a trickster character: in the Odyssey, he relies on his wits and cleverness to get him out of one tight spot after another; and, in the Iliad, it was he who proposed the idea of the Trojan Horse, the ruse by which the Greeks were able to defeat the Trojans. A contemporary example of the trickster archetype would be Axel Foley, the character played by Eddie Murphy in the Beverly Hills Cop movies.

Magician-The magician archetype can also appear as the healer/shaman, the sorcerer, the visionary, or the innovator. This is the character that has much knowledge of the physical world, and knows how to use it to forge solutions to problems. (This knowledge will sometimes be portrayed as magical in the sense of fantastical, but it can also be magical in the same sense that electricity or magnetism is magical (natural forces that are unseen and sometimes difficult to understand.)) The magician also will frequently act on hunches or intuitions. The sorcerer king Soumaoro from the tale of Sundiata is an example of the magician archetype, but so is Faust from the poem by Goethe.

Sage-The sage archetype can also appear as the oracle, the teacher or mentor, or the expert. This character is usually portrayed as knowledgeable and/or understanding, the source of wisdom or the guardian of truth. Frequently the sage will appear as an old man or old woman, whose years symbolize his or her wisdom. Utnapishtim, from the Epic of Gilgamesh, is an example of the sage archetype: Gilgamesh seeks him out to learn the secret of immortality, and Utnapishtim instead tries to teach him a different kind of wisdom. The figure of Virgil as used by Dante in the Divine Comedy can also be seen as a sage. (Kostera, 2012)

Protector-The protector archetype can take the form of the caregiver, the helper, the altruist, or the parent figure. The protector usually displays the qualities of compassion, generosity, and/or protectiveness. This archetype appears to have a need to meet the needs of others. You could probably consider Beowulf as an example of the protector

archetype, at the same time that he is also an instance of the warrior. The protector also frequently appears in stories in the guise of a mother figure or a father figure, each of which can also be thought of as archetypal characters in themselves (Jung, 1990).

Explorer-The explorer archetype can also come in the form of the seeker or the pilgrim. This character is usually on some kind of quest or in search of something: a way home, self-knowledge, a key to happiness or wisdom, or a "better way," whatever that might be. The narrator/protagonist in Dante's Divine Comedy is a primary example of the explorer archetype. In that case, the archetype takes the form of the seeker of spiritual revelation. Odysseus, from the Odyssey, is also an explorer, on a quest to get home, but as you saw above he also represents another important archetype, the trickster (Plotkin, 2008).

Creator-The creator archetype also comes in the form of the artist or the inventor. This archetype is usually recognized by its importance in the generation of life and fertility, or in its creativity, imagination, and deliverance of something new or of enduring value. The creator archetype often acts out of inspiration or even out of dreams or fantasies. Examples of the creator archetype would include any of the gods or goddesses who are described as taking part in the creation of the world in the various creation myths in your textbook. Also, any of the fertility deities, such as Isis or Inanna or Ceres, would be ongoing examples of the creator archetype. A different kind of example might be Sundaia or Aeneas, each of whom are said to have created new empires (Knapp, 1986).

Warrior-The warrior archetype can also take the form of the rescuer, the hero, or the crusader for a cause. This character is usually notable for his or her courage, competence, and sense of self-worth or self-reliance. The warrior archetype (and its variations) is quick to respond to a challenge or to aid those in distress. Because the warrior is willing to commit violence to achieve his or her task, this character exists somewhat outside the mainstream of the community. However, the community is generally willing to accept the warrior's violent capacities, as long as they don't begin to present a problem for the community. Achilles, from the Iliad, is an obvious example of the warrior archetype, as is Roland (McGonagle, 1996).

Intimat-The archetype can take the form of the best friend, the lover, the spouse, or the connoisseur (Isaac, 2008). This is the character that finds satisfaction and fulfillment through intimacy or a passionate commitment of some kind a bonding with someone or something else. While the object of devotion is often another creature (human or animal), it can also be something like food, to whom the gourmand, for instance, is passionately devoted. Examples of the intimate archetype would be Enkidu, who becomes Gilgamesh's fast friend, or Patroclus, bosom friend of Achilles whose death drives Achilles to fight.

Martyr-The martyr archetype can also appear as the scapegoat who is usually reborn or resurrected in some way (Knapp, 2010). This is the character whose individual sacrifice (whether of life or of something else having great value and importance) purchases something of even greater value to the community as a whole or to the central character of the story. In this sense, Enkidu can be seen as a martyr, since his death serves eventually as an impetus to a greater wisdom for Gilgamesh (and, by implication, for all of humankind). The Egyptian god Osiris can be seen as a martyr in the guise of the dying god. The story of his death, the scattering of his dismembered body in the waters of the Nile, and his reconstitution and resurrection through the efforts of his wife, Isis, symbolically represent the gift of fertility that comes from the waters of the Nile, upon which Egypt has always depended for its survival.

ARCHETYPAL LITERARY CRITICISM

Archetypal criticism argues that archetypes determine the form and function of literary works that a text's meaning is shaped by cultural and psychological myths. Archetypes are the unknowable basic forms personified or concretized in recurring images, symbols, or patterns which may include motifs such as the quest or the heavenly ascent, recognizable character types such as the trickster or the hero, symbols such as the apple or snake, or images all laden with meaning already when employed in a particular work.

Archetypal critics find New Criticism too atomistic in ignoring inter textual elements and in approaching the text as if it existed in a vacuum. After all, we recognize story patterns and symbolic associations at least from other texts we have read, if not innately; we know how to form assumptions and expectations from encounters with black hats, springtime settings, evil stepmothers, and so forth. So surely meaning cannot exist solely on the page of a work, nor can that work be treated as an independent entity.

Archetypal images and story patterns encourage readers (and viewers of films and advertisements) to participate ritualistically in basic beliefs, fears, and anxieties of their age. These archetypal features not only constitute the intelligibility of the text but also tap into a level of desires and anxieties of humankind (Sugg, 1992).

THE HEROIC ARCHETYPE

The heroic archetype is a literary or movie character that is all-round good. He or she will save people, do the right thing, protect that which is good and will fight any monster that comes his or her way. They are one of the basic paradigms in tales and mythology from across the world, but particularly in European culture. Such examples of the hero archetype range from Achilles to Beowulf via superheroes like Superman and 1980s action heroes (Simon, 2007).

The roots of the hero archetype go back to ancient Greece and the beginnings of many polytheist and animist religions. They are based, like many other archetypes, on folktales linked to Gods and ancestors. Over time, the attributes and deeds of these ancestors have changed as the stories are repeated down the generations. These social developments are linked to Carl Jung's ideas on archetypes and collective dreams (Wood, 2005).

There are a number of basic characteristics for the hero archetype. Traditionally, the hero is strong of both physique and moral character. They may have special fighting or intellectual skills that allow them to function as a hero. This runs from martial arts skills to weapon knowledge. They are moral and do good. They do not have to be intellectual giants, but they are skilled and resourceful while doing the right thing.

Types of heroes include action heroes and superheroes. The action hero does not have to be special, but fights his or her way to defeating the main villain (Aylestock, 2009). There are also types of the hero archetype that deviate away from the traditional mold. Other variations on the hero archetype include the wannabe hero and the anti-hero. The wannabe hero is a wide-eyed idealist who, due to a lack of skills or the wrong circumstances, fails to become a hero. He or she often looks up to the main hero. The wannabe hero often dies heroically trying to emulate the hero. Examples include Don Quixote (Tallman, 2005).

The anti-hero is a character lacking many of the good qualities of the hero. They often do the right thing eventually, but their lives and personal back stories are more dubious and less wholesome than that of Superman or Spiderman. The anti-hero is often morally compromised. In a monomyth, the hero begins in the ordinary world, and receives a call to enter an unknown world of strange powers and events. The hero who accepts the call to enter this strange world must face tasks and trials, either alone or with assistance. In the most intense versions of the narrative, the hero must survive a severe challenge, often with help. If the hero survives, he may achieve a great gift or "boon." The hero must then decide whether to return to the ordinary world with this boon. If the hero does decide to return, he or she often faces challenges on the return journey. If the hero returns successfully, the boon or gift may be used to improve the world. The stories of Osiris, Prometheus, Moses, Gautama Buddha, for example, follow this structure closely (Campbell, et al, 2003).

Campbell describes 17 stages or steps along this journey. Very few myths contain all 17 stages—some myths contain many of the stages, while others contain only a few; some myths may focus on only one of the stages, while other myths may deal with the stages in a somewhat different order. These 17 stages may be organized in a number of ways, including division into three sections: Departure (sometimes called Separation), Initiation, and Return. "Departure" deals with the hero's adventure prior to the quest; "Initiation" deals with the hero's many adventures along the way; and "Return" deals with the hero's return home with knowledge and powers acquired on the journey.

STEPS OF MONOMYTH

The Call to Adventure-The hero begins in a mundane situation of normality from which some information is received that acts as a call to head off into the unknown.

Refusal of the Call-Often when the call is given, the future hero first refuses to heed it. This may be from a sense of duty or obligation, fear, insecurity, a sense of inadequacy, or any of a range of reasons that work to hold the person in his or her current circumstances (Campbell, 1949).

Supernatural Aid- Once the hero has committed to the quest, consciously or unconsciously, his guide and magical helper appear, or become known. More often than not, this supernatural mentor will present the hero with one or more talismans or artifacts that will aid them later in their quest.

The Crossing of the First Threshold-This is the point where the person actually crosses into the field of adventure, leaving the known limits of his or her world and venturing into an unknown and dangerous realm where the rules and limits are not known (Packer, 2010).

Belly of the Whale-The belly of the whale represents the final separation from the hero's known world and self. By entering this stage, the person shows willingness to undergo a metamorphosis (Smith, 1997).

The Road of Trials-The road of trials is a series of tests, tasks, or ordeals that the person must undergo to begin the transformation. Often the person fails one or more of these tests, which often occur in threes (Rochelle, 2001).

The Meeting with the Goddess-This is the point when the person experiences a love that has the power and significance of the all-powerful, all encompassing, unconditional love that a fortunate infant may experience with his or her mother. This is a very important step in the process and is often represented by the person finding the other person that he or she loves most completely (Monaghan, 2011).

Woman as Temptress- In this step, the hero faces those temptations, often of a physical or pleasurable nature, that may lead him or her to abandon or stray from his or her quest, which does not necessarily have to be represented by a woman. Woman is a metaphor for the physical or material temptations of life, since the hero-knight was often tempted by lust from his spiritual journey (Jobling, 2010).

Atonement with the Father-In this step the person must confront and be initiated by whatever holds the ultimate power in his or her life. In many myths and stories this is the father, or a father figure who has life and death power. This is the center point of the journey. All the previous steps have been moving into this place, all that follow will move out from it. Although this step is most frequently symbolized by an encounter with a male entity, it does not have to be a male; just someone or thing with incredible power (Salla, 2002).

Apotheosis-When someone dies a physical death, or dies to the self to live in spirit, he or she moves beyond the pairs of opposites to a state of divine knowledge, love, compassion and bliss. A more mundane way of looking at this step is that it is a period of rest, peace and fulfillment before the hero begins the return (Leeming, 1998).

The Ultimate Boon-The ultimate boon is the achievement of the goal of the quest. It is what the person went on the journey to get. All the previous steps serve to prepare and purify the person for this step, since in many myths the boon is something transcendent like the elixir of life itself, or a plant that supplies immortality (Indick, 2004).

Refusal of the Return-Having found bliss and enlightenment in the other world, the hero may not want to return to the ordinary world to bestow the boon onto his fellow man.

The Magic Flight-Sometimes the hero must escape with the boon, if it is something that the gods have been jealously guarding. It can be just as adventurous and dangerous returning from the journey as it was to go on it (Okum, 2009).

Rescue from Without-Just as the hero may need guides and assistants to set out on the quest, oftentimes he or she must have powerful guides and rescuers to bring them back to everyday life, especially if the person has been wounded or weakened by the experience (Bartle, 2004).

The Crossing of the Return Threshold-The trick in returning is to retain the wisdom gained on the quest, to integrate that wisdom into a human life, and then maybe figure out how to share the wisdom with the rest of the world.

Master of Two Worlds-This step is usually represented by a transcendental hero like Jesus or Gautama Buddha. For a human hero, it may mean achieving a balance between the material and spiritual. The person has become comfortable and competent in both the inner and outer worlds (Ellwood, 1999).

Freedom to Live-Mastery leads to freedom from the fear of death, which in turn is the freedom to live. This is sometimes referred to as living in the moment, neither anticipating the future nor regretting the past.

The phrase "the hero's journey," to describe the monomyth, first entered into popular discourse through two documentaries. The first, released in 1987, *The Hero's Journey: The World of Joseph Campbell*, was accompanied by a 1990 companion book, *The Hero's Journey: Joseph Campbell on His Life and Work* (with Phil Cousineau and Stuart Brown). The second was Bill Moyers's series of seminal interviews with Campbell, released in 1988 as the documentary (and companion book) *The Power of Myth*. The phrase was then referenced in the title of a popular guidebook for screenwriters, released in the 1990s, *The Writer's Journey: Mythic Structure For Writers*, by Christopher Vogler. Though they used the phrase in their works, Cousineau, Moyers, and Vogler all attribute the phrase and the model of *The Hero's Journey* to Joseph Campbell (Leeming & Sader, 1997).

THE HOMERS ODYSSEY

Odyssey is one of the most popular classic epic poems in the field of socio-cultural development. Its narration gains credit in the way to attain the means of structuring and restructuring the life of Greece as whole. The concept of Odyssey is an amalgamation of cultural entities and diversified mythological representation. The elements of myth and cultural depiction are very clear by the elaborative description of Odysseus. The dominance of cultural entity and mythical elaborations are the basis for understanding the character of Odysseus

THE 12 STAGES OF A HERO'S JOURNEY IN ODYSSEUS

Ordinary World- In the case of Odysseus in the "Odyssey", our hero's ordinary world can not wholly be defined or looked at as "ordinary". However, for this book and tale of Odysseus, it is the closest thing to fit for this segment of the journey. His ordinary world is living on the island of Ogyia, retained by the goddess Calypso, who ever tries to win over his heart, and never does (Breyfogle & Grene, 1999).

Call to Adventure- Odysseus' call to adventure takes place while he is still in his ordinary world. Hermes travels from Mt. Olympus to tell Calypso that Zeus has declared that Odysseus is to be set free from her detainment of him. She assents to what her fellow immortal has told her, and she grudgingly relates the news to Odysseus that he is at liberty to finally leave her (Houston, 2009).

Refusal of the Call- When Odysseus is told this; he reacts to her in a very stubborn and pessimistic view of things. He talks about how he does not trust her devious mind and suspects her of hatching some trick against him, for he does not believe that she would ever willingly let him go without making sure something bad were to befall him. So with this he for a time refuses her statement that he is emancipated from Ogyia (Leeming, 1998).

Mentor- Odysseus' mentor figure is perhaps the single most significant factor of the lengthy poem that Homer writes for us. For the King of Ithaca mentor and helper throughout his journeys, from the beginning of the Trojan War until he finally returns to Ithaca to reclaim his throne, is the bright-eyed goddess, Pallas Athena. She prompts him to have the courage to be able to act in many situations, she knows all and often uses this omnipotence to aid Odysseus, and she is the one who also aids his son, Telemachus, first by providing the impetus for him to search for news of his father around Achaea in the very first books of the "Odyssey". Throughout Odysseus' heroic journey, the immortal Athena plays a major role in the events that occur, by taking on the look of Mentos and other people along the journey of Odysseus (Dimock, 1989).

First Threshold- The mighty Odysseus' first threshold is agreeing to leave the island of Calypso, after he has collected her binding oath, and as he sets sail homeward bound for Ithaca. The strong and just Prince begins his voyage home with the thought in mind of stopping off at some benevolent land and making friends and peace with those people, who will then help him furnish a ship and crew to finally assist him in his voyage home. This period of beginning to sail for home, after a long period of stagnation and frustration at not being able to get back to his homeland, comprise what is Odysseus' crossing the 1st threshold of his heroic journey (Miller, 2006).

Tests, Allies, Enemies- Odysseus' tests, allies, and enemies segment of his journey does not consist of many events. Although he faces many enemies and feats that he must overcome throughout his struggles getting home from Priamis city of Troy, at this point he faces only one major foe that definitely provides a non-superficial test for him to pass, and only one entity, being the Phaeacians, as his ally. As he begins his journey, Odysseus travels safely for

many days; however the immortal curse bestowed upon him by the relentless and unforgiving Poseidon, god of the seas and earthquakes, is yet to befall him. At around the 29th day into the story of the "Odyssey", Poseidon is seething up on high about the release of Odysseus from the caption of Calypso, and still infuriated by the transgression that the hero waged against his son Polyphemus the Cyclops, he wrecks his raft and Odysseus drifts to the shores of Scheria. This is the island of the Phaeacians, and after meeting the King of these peoples' daughter, Naussica, he is welcomed by King Alcinous and Queen Arete. After he stays at this great land which Homer portrays as being like the perfect utopian society, relating all of his past adventures and stories to the royal court and palace of Phaacia, he is given a great many gifts and set off in a great ship of these people to sail him quickly home. He finally reaches Ithaca with these great oarsmen rowing him on in their own ship, and finds that he faces another challenge on coming home, perhaps even more trying than all the previous perils that he has faced outside of Ithaca, sailing around the great and mighty seas (Leeming, 2005)

Approach to the Inmost Cave- Odysseus approaches his inmost cave when he returns to his homeland and finally touches the ground of Ithaca once again. As he wakes up, after being dropped off by the Phaeacian sailors, he is immediately confronted by Athena and she drapes him in the guise of an old man, and advises him to first go to the swineherd Eumaeus' field and home. He is now back finally on his own land, the homecoming that he has longed for intermittently, for the past twenty years! It must be with great concentration and self-control that he can keep himself from running to his palace and proclaiming his return, an act which would probably have been fatal for him. So he learns from his loyal Eumaeus all that has befallen his kingdom during his absence, primarily the troubles of the suitors lying in wait to marry his bride Penelope. After learning all this, and meeting his son Telemachus for the first time grown-up, these two lay a plan and trap so that they may slowly test the suitors and all the servants of the palace for their loyalty and their resolve before finally slaying all that have wronged the great and now returned Odysseus (Myrsiades, 1987).

Supreme Ordeal- Odysseus' supreme ordeal is obviously facing the suitors and all those that have wronged him. He scrupulously and painstakingly draws out the time between when he first arrives and when he will attack. He remains under the guise of the old man, even up until the time when he kills the first suitor. Only he, the hero, knows when the time will come for the attack. The only other person that knows it is coming is Telemachus, and he is only told to be ready for the sign from Odysseus, whenever he decides that he will wreak his ultimate revenge and unfurl his rage. Eventually Odysseus finds out who is loyal to him and who is not, then finally decides to do the deed that he has waited for with thoughts of blood for about two or days. He kills all of the suitors in a battle in the main courtyard of the palace, then has the disloyal maids also executed (Barnes, 1959).

Reward- His reward is winning back his place of power and being able to be with his wife again, his son, and his surviving father.

The Road Back- Odysseus' road back can be symbolized by his journey on the road to see his father Laertes and bring him back so that he may live with him finally in peace in the palace. Odysseus has to face his last enemy in this denouement section of his journey in the object of the suitor's angry fathers who come after him with a hord from the city to kill Odysseus for his slaughter of the suitors. Odysseus, Telemachus, and even Laertes, of course with the help of the mentor Athena, fend of these aggressors and kill them too (Dougherty, 2001).

Resurrection- He is resurrected when he defeats this last enemy and can now take a reprieve from the constant threat of fighting and danger that has plagued him for two decades.

Return with the Elixir- The return with the elixir is when Odysseus and his loyal friends finally defeat his last threat to their survival, and peace is wrought over the entire place of Ithaca by Athena and the rest of the immortal gods up on high (Hamilton, 1990). This second version starts off with the Trojan War, so it gives a different perspective on the hero.

1. Ordinary World: The peaceful island of Ithaca is the ordinary world of Odysseus. Here Odysseus is the well respected and loved king of the island. He is married to his love, Penelope, whom he adores with his heart (Anderson, 1991)
2. Call to Adventure: Odysseus is summoned to join Agamemnon and other Achaeans to attack the city of Troy. They are going to Troy to retrieve the wife of Menelaus, Helen, after she is taken by Paris, the prince of Troy (Pucci, 1998).
3. Refusal of the Call: At first Odysseus refuses this invitation because he does not want to leave his quiet and peaceful homeland and leave behind his wife and his newly born son (Salla, 2002, 24).
4. Mentor: The mentor of Odysseus is, without a doubt, Pallas Athena, the bright-eyed goddess. Athena helps Odysseus innumerable times throughout his travels. The daughter of Zeus endows Odysseus with advice for which he is greatly faithful and devoted to her (Nortwick, 2009).

5. First Threshold: The Trojan War is the first threshold of Odysseus. At the war Odysseus becomes renowned for his cunning, bravery, prowess, and this mind. His mental and physical attributes are of equal importance to these heroes (Heubeck, 1990).

6. Test, Allies, Enemies : The journey home is an amalgam of tests, allies, and enemies for Odysseus. There are many tests, not to mention many temptations, through which Odysseus thrives through. The people which befriend Odysseus are the ones who give him food, clothes, and shelter like King Alcinous, and Circe. Obviously throughout the story there is one main enemy who is against Odysseus, this is Poseidon. There are also many small enemies who Odysseus meets on his travels. Scylla, Charybdis, and the Lastrygonians are some of his adversaries, but the most important is the cyclops, Polythemus, who condemns Odysseus to his long, arduous journey home. Primarily speaking Odysseus encounters new tests, allies, and enemies on each new land he falls upon on his trek back to Ithaca (Littleton, 2005).

7. Approach to Inmost Cave: The approach to the inmost cave is when the son of Laertes, Odysseus, finally arrives home at last. At first he does not acknowledge the fact that he is home. When he does come to that fact, he knows he cannot run home and exclaim that he is back. He knows he must bury his great feelings until the time is right (Stanford, 1954).

8. Supreme Ordeal: Getting back to his peaceful home of Ithaca and reuniting with Penelope and Telemachus is the ultimate ordeal of Odysseus. Before he can do that, he must drive the careless suitors from his once proud household.

9. Reward: The reward for Odysseus is when he arrives home and then defeats the complacent suitors. Also Odysseus is abounding with riches in presents from the aristocrats of Phaeacia.

10. Road Back: The road back for our hero, Odysseus, is when he cleanses his house of the incarnadine stains from the vile blood of the suitors and removing their bodies to the outside. After this is done, Odysseus goes to see his sick and emaciated father to bring his spirits back to life.

11. Resurrection: Now Odysseus is once again in his rightful position as King of Ithaca. This can be seen as a resurrection for Odysseus.

12. Return with Elixir: The returning with elixir for Odysseus is partly when he restores peace and tranquility to his house. The other part that fulfills this is when Odysseus is reunited to crestfallen Penelope (and his father later on) he brings back happiness to them once again (West, 2007).

Once again, there is more than one way to do these types of character studies. Here is one view of the character arc of Odysseus.

1. Limited Awareness - Odysseus is living a placid life in the land of Ithaca with his lovely wife, Penelope, and his young son, Telemachus. He is not at all aware of what role that war will play in his life.

2. Increased Awareness - Odysseus' awareness is augmented when Agamemnon and Menelaus come to him ascertaining if he will join them with their warfleet to Troy.

3. Reluctance to Change: At first Odysseus refuses this invitation because he does not want to leave his quiet and peaceful homeland and leave behind his wife and his newly born son.

4. Overcoming: After some convincing Odysseus gives in and embarks on a journey that will take him twenty years to next lay eyes on his homeland once again.

5. Committing: At the Trojan War Odysseus is seen as one of the most respected and important warriors of the Achaeans.

6. Experimenting: The war home and the journey home is what I say as Odysseus' experimenting. At these situations Odysseus gets a chance to show his bravery and his mind (Morris, 1997).

7. Preparing - The journey home is when Odysseus prepares himself for when the times comes of him reaching the shores of Ithaca. There are many temptations which put Odysseus' love for Penelope on the line. Through each one he struggles and triumphant.

8. Big Change: The big change for Odysseus comes when the ruler of all gods, Zeus, permits his long awaited return to Ithaca to continue once more. Prior to this Odysseus thought that reaching home was almost impossible for him. His grieving heart sank more and more each passing day until Hermes, with his wing-tipped golden sandals, flew down to Ogygia, and told Calypso to release Odysseus.

9. Consequences: Calypso had no choice but to release her captive to voyage home. After she tells Odysseus to leave he constructs a makeshift raft to carry him back to his homeland.

10. Rededication: Odysseus' thoughts and actions are redirected to try to return to Ithaca to reunite with Penelope.

11. Final Attempt: The battle between the suitors and Odysseus, Telemachus, and his allies serves as Odysseus' final attempt.

12. Mastery: Odysseus defeats the suitors and restores tranquility to his house. Thus completing his arduous journey that lasted twenty long enduring years (ibid: 326-344).

CONCLUSION

The 'Odyssey' itself is a form of archetype, an epic journey with various conventions, the crossing of water, obstacles, super natural elements. As for specific archetypes in the odyssey, it's best to simply consider character archetypes. Most, if not all of the characters in the Odyssey follow an archetype, For example Odysseus himself, the galliant and intelligent hero, Athene the mentor, the sirens as 'femme fatales' and Posidon as the antagonist, or 'baddie'.

1. Ordinary World, The hero's normal world before the story begins Odysseus as King in Ithaca.
2. Call to Adventure, The hero is presented with a problem, challenge or adventure.
He does not want to leave and uphold his oath in having to sail to Troy (so he pretends to be insane)
3. Refusal of the Call - The hero refuses the challenge or journey, usually because he's scared
Odysseus pretends to be insane and plows a field using salt; but the Greeks force his hand by placing the baby Telemachus in front of the plow. O must turn the oxen aside or kill his own son.
4. Meeting with the Mentor: The hero meets a mentor to gain advice or training for the adventure
This could be his interactions with Circe as she consults him about his journey. More likely - it is his interactions with Athena as she is constantly weaving in and out of the myth helping both Odysseus and Telemachus.
5. crossing the First Threshold - The hero crosses leaves the ordinary world and goes into the special world: Odysseus in the Underworld
6. Tests, Allies, and Enemies: The hero faces tests, meets allies, confronts enemies and learn the rules of the Special World. All of his "quests" the cave and the Cyclops, Circe and the Underworld, the Cattle of the Sun God, the bag of winds, the Sirens, etc.
7. Approach :The hero has hit setbacks during tests & may need to try a new idea.
Odysseus's disguise as a beggar allows him to reconnoiter the palace so he can plan his revenge.
8. Ordeal: The biggest life or death crisis the battle royal with the Suitors.
9. Reward: The hero has survived death, overcomes his fear and now earns the reward,
Odysseus's home coming to his wife and son.
10. The Road Back: The hero must return to the Ordinary World.
His plans to reconquer his kingdom - he must meet the challenge by the families of the suitors whom he has killed.
11. Resurrection Hero: another test where the hero faces death – he has to use everything he's learned.
12. Return with Elixir: The hero returns from the journey with the “elixir”, and uses it to help everyone in the Ordinary World.

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USING SOCIAL NETWORKS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN IRAN

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ABSTRACT

Social networks (SNs) have become an important tool in online communication. Students spend hours using social networks every day, so the scholars in the field of education in general and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context in particular are trying to integrate SNs in language learning and use them to their advantage. Hence, this research sought to find out to what extent students are familiar with SNs in Iran and are willing to use them as learning tools. Moreover, to what extent teachers believe that SNs can be helpful in teaching different components of language. To this end, two questionnaires were designed; one for students and one for teachers. The results showed that students are active users of SNs and believe SNs are good environments to learn and practice English. Teachers in Iran also recognized SNs as useful tools that can help students in their language learning. It concludes that SNs do have the potential to empower students in their learning English.

KEY WORDS: English teaching and learning, social networks, Iranian EFL Context

INTRODUCTION

The advent of digital age has changed the way people communicate in the last decades. Whether in the form of emails or social networks (SNs), technology has been integrated with communication to challenge the way individuals associate with one another (Richardson & Hessey, 2009). Web 2.0 applications have impacted our life in many ways. E-learning or learning through internet is a by-product of these technologies that had a great impact on education and consequently language learning.

Until recently, studies in second language learning have not paid due attention to the learners as a social being (Holliday, 1994; Norton & Toohey, 2003; Palfreyman, 2003). A significant body of literature has developed concerning learners individually, focusing on the strategies they use to learn language both inside and outside the classroom, with less attention to the context of their learning (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 1991; Dickinson, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995).

Web 2.0 technologies offer “numerous opportunities to create innovative, engaging and pedagogically effective learning opportunities” (Conole & Culver, 2009). Internet with its universal features has improved language learning. The students clearly favor electronic sources for language learning; learning language through online technologies can increase the engagement; attendance and motivation of students (Hartman et al., 1991; Palfreyman, 2006; Roohi 2009; & Mohammadi et al, 2011), as well as giving them the chance to express their own preferences, construct their own settings, and present their identities (Girgin, 2011).

Social networks are among the latest examples of communications technologies that are very popular among university students (Kabilan, et. al 2010) and have the potential to become a valuable resource to support their language learning (Roblyer et al., 2010). Social network websites have many applications; they allow each user to create a personalized profile, select other users as friends, send private messages, join groups, post and/or tag pictures, and leave comments on these pictures as well as on either a group or an individual's wall or even create pages for different events. There are also so many third-parties or applications on the social networks platform like Facebook, such as games, polls and quizzes. One feature of social networks that makes them a potentially powerful tool for language learning is that they function primarily as communication tools (Roblyer et al., 2010). As Bakhtin

(cited in Brown, 2007) notes language is “immersed in a social and cultural context and its central function is to serve as a medium of communication.”

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Using social networks in educational and instructional contexts can be considered as a potentially powerful idea simply because students spend a lot of time on these online networking activities (Mazman, 2010). Mason and Rennie (2007) comments that it is no longer a question of whether to take advantage of these electronic technologies in foreign language teaching or not, the question is how to promote students’ learning using them. Studies showed that social network tools support educational activities by making interaction, collaboration, active participation, information and resource sharing, and critical thinking possible (Mason, 2006; Selwyn, 2007; Ajjan & Hartshorne, 2008).

Based on some studies students believe that SNs like Facebook could be utilized as an online environment to facilitate the learning of English (Kabilan, 2010; Girgin, 2011). Students agree that this online environment can be an appropriate tool to help learning different language skills, enhance their motivation, confidence, and attitudes towards learning English that can bring about successful application of CALL (Kabilan et. al, 2010; Vandewaetere & Desmet, 2009).

One of the problems that students encounter in learning language is the lack of opportunities for authentic communication due to non-personalized course content, and complains about being forced to follow a strict curriculum (Bartlett & Bragg, 2006; Donmus, 2010). Integrating social networks into existing learning practices can provide informal learning contexts and create new opportunities for language learning (Bartlett & Bragg, 2006). The texts that are produced in social networks are authentic materials. Social network sites provide the users the tools to construct their own experience, rather than passively reading the existing material (Mason & Rennie, 2007) Students become autonomous; they can be independent from books and teacher.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Unlike all the potentials enumerated above, research on social networking in language teaching is still limited and the need for research on social networks in post structural language learning has been recently recognized. In recent works less attention has been paid to the contexts that the learners are a part of; and in particular to the strategies related to the social context (Oxford, 1990) have been discussed less in later work (e.g. Chamot & O’Malley, 1996) than the more individual centered categories of ‘cognitive’ and metacognitive strategies. The use of available online technologies for education to date has been limited to face-to-face practice in an online context (Conole, 2009).

The education community still continues to struggle to establish the role these innovations can play in effective language teaching and learning. Students come to classes as all equipped with the newest technologies available, but often they have to leave them at the door (Roblyer, 2010), because the field still seems to lack a unified theory and scope of the uses of social networks in language pedagogy. On the other hand, due to social and cultural restraints much needs to be done to see how such factors affect the success and failure of the use of these tools in different cultures and contexts.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As suggested by tenets of reflective practice (Schön, 1983), combining the view of students and instructors is valuable for exploring the potential learning opportunities offered by SNs; and students can be most critical of their experience with SNs. Accordingly, the following questions guide the current study:

1. What are the attitudes of Iranian university students towards using SNs to practice their English outside the classroom?
2. What are the views of Iranian language teachers towards using SNs to achieve their teaching goals?
3. What aspects of language do Iranian teachers identify that can be truly practiced in the classroom?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The population involved in the present study comprised undergraduate university students at Ilam University and a number of English teachers. The majority of subjects that participated in the study were modest users of English since they were students and teachers of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Based on Oxford Quick Placement Test (2002), 100 EFL undergraduate BA students were assigned to two intermediate and advanced levels of language proficiency (females: 34, males: 66, age range: 18 to 29, mean age: 22). Furthermore, 50 teachers that taught English in university and English teaching institutes took part in the study. They had between 1 to 12 years of experience teaching English. Their age ranged between 21 and 35 with the mean of 27.5.

Instruments

Two questionnaires were used to collect the data. One questionnaire was designed for the students and one for the teachers. The questionnaire for the students was designed in three parts. The items in the first section of the questionnaire (questions 1–5) established some basic information about the respondent, including their level of proficiency, popular SNs and applications, the amount of time that students spend on SNs weekly, how long they have been a member of SN, and the language they use in their interactions in the SNs. The first part elicited data about the social networks and the applications in SNs that were mostly used by the students. These items built up a picture of the kind of SNs and the degree of involvement of students in these web sites. The second part attempted to investigate students' belief towards the usefulness of SNs in improving different skills and components of language (9 items). And the last part was related to affective domain, and the degree that SNs can enhance confidence, motivation, and interest of learners.

In the second questionnaire teachers were asked about their opinions about the potentiality of applying SNs in their classes. First, we used Backman model of components of language (1991), and asked the teachers to what extent applying SNs can be helpful in learning each component of language (items 1-13). Following this section teachers were inquired about their opinion about expediency of SNs and their applications in the affective domain (confidence, motivation, interest of learners, and autonomy) and in the process of learning in the classroom. The reliability estimates of the two questionnaires were 0.89 and 0.94 respectively.

Procedure

The study was conducted in December 2012 among the students of Ilam University and teachers of language institutes of Ilam. The questionnaires were filled voluntarily by the students during their class time. It took up to 15 minutes for the questionnaires to be filled. The questionnaires were returned on the spot. After receiving the first set of questionnaires, the teachers were asked to fill the questionnaires in their break time; they also returned the questionnaires right away. The collected data were analyzed by the SPSS statistic software version 20.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This paper examines whether SNs are an effective tool for improving second-language learning in Iran. For the analysis of the collected data, frequency and percentages were used; whereas for the description of likert items, mean scores, standard deviation and percentages were employed to describe the students' and teachers' views on SNs as a learning environment for learning English. The data collected by the first part of students' questionnaire revealed the most popular SNs in Iran. Facebook is the world leader among SN sites, and as table 1 shows it is the most popular SN among the TEFL students. 63% of students were member of Facebook, while 57% were members of Google+. Youtube (37%) and Twitter (11%) are next popular SNs. My Space did not have any members among the students. Many students have accounts in multiple SNs.

Table 1: Percent of members of different SNs

Social network	%
Facebook	63%
Google +	57%
Youtube	37%
Twitter	11%
My Space	0%

Table 2 shows the applications of SNs and the extent the students use them. Messaging and chat were the most popular applications; 55% of students used messaging regularly, and 44% were regular users of the chat application. The participants use SNs more for their one to one communication; Roblyer (2010) relates the potential of SNs for learning English to their power of communication that frees students from time and distance limitations. Messaging and chat applications are the most popular applications. Messaging is even more popular than chat application,

probably because it provides students an asynchronic meaningful communication which reduces dynamic social context cues that may intimidate students, such as frowning and hesitating (Finholt, Kiesler & Sproull, 1986), besides, it provides students a chance to reflect on their own writing before communicating. Hartman *et al.*, (1991) also reports that students prefer computer mediated communication to face-to-face meetings. Those students who may self-conscious to initiate discussions with their teachers or with other students any use this communication tools which are powerful features of SNs as an alternative, this results in greatly increased student-teacher and student-student interaction.

Photo sharing and giving comments are used most regularly after messaging and chat respectively. Creating group pages is an application that is not used heavily; this can be related to the fact that educational pages like class instruction are less authentic and personalized. Authenticity in language learning is especially important in foreign language contexts (Beauvois, 1998). Table 2 clearly shows that the applications that provide students with more communicating opportunities most easily are utilized more, because using these applications students express their ideas in a more natural and authentic communicative function, rather than just attempting to please the teacher (Cohen & Miyake, 1986).

Table 2: Facebook applications used regularly by students

Applications	Percent	Ratio (%)
Messaging	55%	24.66
Chat	44%	19.73
Photo sharing	38%	17.04
Giving comments	25%	11.21
Film sharing	24%	10.27
Game	24%	10.27
Creating group page	13%	5.82
Total	-	100

Regarding the membership in different SNs, 87% of the respondents were at least members of one or more SNs, while the rest (13%) of students didn't use any SNs and was not a member in any online social networks. Table 3 shows the length of time that students have been using SNs. 22.2% of students has been a member of SNs more than three years. And 18.5% have joined SNs recently (between 1 to 3 months). In other words, many have joined SNs and many are joining these communities. Several other studies revealed this growing desire to join SNs among students (2006; Kolek & Saunders, 2008; Mazman, 2010).

Table 3: Length of time being a SN's member

	Not a member	Months								Total
		1-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	13-18	18-24	25-36	More than 36	
Percent (%)	13.0	18.5	3.7	5.6	9.3	5.6	14.8	7.4	22.2	100%
Cumulative percent (%)	0.0	18.5	22.2	27.8	37.1	42.7	59.5	66.9	87.0	87%

We further checked the time students spend in SNs. The self-reported information (Table 4) demonstrates that only 14.8 of students do not log in to their SN account and never use them. 85.2% of students use the SN or SNs that they are a member at least 1 to 3 hours weekly. 68.5% of students spend at least 4-6 hours weekly, and 16.7% spend more than 12 hours in a week in their SNs. The details of table 4 reveal that Iranian students are avid users of the social networks, and online social networking is deeply embedded in their lifestyle.

Table 4: Hours spent in SNs weekly.

	Hours used weekly						Total
	Never	1-3 hours	4-6 hours	7-9 hours	10-12 hours	More than 12 hours	
Percent (%)	14.8	20.4	33.3	11.1	3.7	16.7	100

Next we inquired the student about their use of language with their Farsi speaker and English speaker friends (in reading, writing, speaking and listening). Table 5 shows the data regarding the language used by students. The mean score was calculated by assigning values to the likert scale as shown in the table. Mean score of these values shows that students use a mix of Farsi and English more frequently (mean, 3.31). Tendency to use English (mean, 3.07) is greater than Farsi (mean, 2.60). Although, as their native language using Farsi is easier for them, TEFL students

prefer to use their English more when communicating with their peers and their native and international friends. SNs give the Iranian students the independent opportunity to use the foreign language with other language learners or cross-cultural communication around the world, which many suggest fostering student autonomy (Soh & Soon, 1991; Barson, Frommer & Schwartz, 1993; Sayers, 1993). Paramskas (1993) asserts that that is why SNs help Student enthusiasm, initiative, and personal commitment.

Table 5: Language used for SNs interaction with Farsi speakers and English speakers.

Language used	scale					Mean score
	never 1(%)	seldom 2(%)	sometimes 3(%)	frequent 4(%)	always 5(%)	
Using Farsi	9.8	17.1	39.0	24.4	9.8	2.60
Using English	2.3	22.7	31.8	27.3	15.9	3.07
Using English and Farsi	7.3	14.6	31.7	22.0	24.4	3.31

When asked to rate the usefulness of SNs in their improvement in different aspects of language skills and components, students tended to highly agree with each item. A 5-level Likert scales of ‘Strongly disagree’ to ‘Strongly agree’ was used, similar values to the last part were assigned to the likert scale (strongly disagree 1, disagree 2, slightly agree 3, agree 4, strongly agree 5) to calculate the mean and SD of each item The percentage of students that agreed or strongly agreed with each item was also included in table 6 as well as mean and SD.

According to table 6, in students’ view SN environment are suitable for improving speaking skills (mean 3.74) more than the other language skills. Reading (mean 3.62), writing (mean 3.41), and listening (mean 3.16) have the highest means respectively. In case of sub-skills of language, students agreed that SNs are good places to improve one’s vocabulary (mean 3.77). And 46.3% of students agreed or strongly agreed that through the SNs they can improve their grammar. Thus, as can be seen from the mean scores for all items in Table 6, the general opinion of the students is that social network platforms can be supportive of their language learning. Unlike traditional classrooms that favor those students who speak up most quickly, most often, and are most willing to interrupt, SNs allow students to contribute at their own time and pace (Selfe & Meyer, 1991; Tella, 1992).

Table 6: Students beliefs about SNs as a leaning environment.

	SA/A(%)*	Mean	SD	
SNs	improve writing in English	55.5	3.41	.73
	improve reading in English	68.5	3.62	.73
	improve speaking in English	35.8	3.74	1.05
	improve listening in English	32.1	3.16	1.03
	Improve English vocabulary	69.8	3.77	.912
	improve grammar	46.3	3.29	1.10
	improve your communication skills	79.7	4.00	.77
	Make learning English easier	61.5	3.65	.96
	Makes you more familiar with the English culture	72.2	3.88	.83

*SA/A, strongly agree or agree.

primarily are stages of communications, including cross-cultural communication. Therefore they provide a great opportunity for improving communication skills and raising cultural awareness. Students believed that SNs can improve their communication skills (mean 4.0), make them familiar with English culture (mean 3.88), and make learning English easier (mean 3.65). Abrams, 2006 and Lomicka, 2006 assert that Chat, email and other forms of electronic communication, which are prominent features of SNs promotes cultural, pragmatic and linguistic competence by providing meaningful communication and providing an environment for students to use the language with native speakers or other learners.

Regarding the items that were concerned with the affective domain, motivation and attitudes of students was inspected in their writing, reading, and communicating. Table 7 represents the data related to affective domain of learning. In case of the confidence 72.2% of students think that their confidence in writing increases in SNs context. 65% agreed that their confidence enhances in communicating and 57.4 agreed that their confidence enhances to read English material. So, students had very positive view that SNs boost their confidence in learning English in different aspects.

The case with motivation was the same. As the content of the table shows even a larger number of students believed that their motivation in reading (72.2%), writing (64.8%), communicating (73%) would be enhanced using SNs. Socializing and communication in highly interactive space of SNs makes learning English more interesting and

authentic. 77.4 of students had the same opinion that SNs make learning English more interesting, because SNs increase engagement, attendance, as well as motivation of students (Mohammadi et al., 2011).

Most highly students agreed that SNS make learning English more interesting. This can be linked to the fact that most of the interactions in SNs are not much formal, as they happen between friends and peers. Studies on informal social interaction and its place in foreign language learning suggest that it enhances language proficiency and confidence (Kurata, 2011). When students confirm that SNs enhance their motivation and confidence, and make learning English more interesting, it automatically means that they think SNs as good places to practice their knowledge of English. Therefore, unsurprisingly 70.3% agreed that SNs are a good place to practice English.

Table 7: Effect of SNs on motivation, confidence, and attitudes of students

	SA/A	Mean	SD
1. Enhance your confidence to write in English	72.2	3.61	.94
2. Enhance your confidence to read material in English	57.4	3.81	.77
3. Enhance your confidence to communicate in English	65.5	3.90	.93
4. Enhance your motivation to communicate using English	73.6	3.98	.82
5. Enhance your motivation to read English material	72.2	3.92	.88
6. Enhance your motivation to write in English	64.8	3.70	.96
7. Makes learning English more interesting	77.4	4.05	.86
8. Practice in English	70.3	3.96	.95

*SA/A, strongly agree or agree.

Given the students eagerness for using SNs in their language learning, language teachers need to be able to willing and ready to use SNs in language instruction, therefore teachers opinions was investigated in a separate questionnaire. As for the second questionnaire, similar to the first questionnaire mean and SD were computed as well as the percent of respondent that agreed or strongly agreed with each item. Generally all the items had high means and were highly agreed with.

The lowest mean belongs to item A10 (mean 3.11); teachers agreed less on the usefulness of practicing English in SNs to improve coherence and organization in students writings. Probably, because nearly all the exchanged texts and writings are most often informal and short, and not more than a few sentences. More than any English skill, component, or competence, teachers accepted that SNs are good for students to learn vocabulary (A8, mean 4.20), which makes sense as new words can be practice in meaningful short texts, such as comments, which is suitable for learning vocabulary. After vocabulary, teachers recognize SNs as a good environment to practice writing (A6, mean 4.00). Improving reading comprehension skills (mean 3.88) and getting familiar with the differences between the target and the native culture and enhance their sensitivity to cultural norms (mean 3.97) are also items that had a high percent of agreement. In SNs students are exposed to language variation and have the opportunity to put their pragmatic knowledge in practice. Blattner and Fiori (2009) described the premier SN of the world (Facebook) as a potential language instruction tool to promote socio-pragmatic competence. On the whole teachers seem to be very positive towards the effectiveness of integrating the SNs in their teaching approaches to improve language skills and components.

Table 8: Teachers view about improving language skills and components.

	SA/A (%)	Mean	SD
A1. Enhance their textual knowledge	48.5	3.42	.97
A2. Enhance their sensitivity to dialect and social registers.	61.8	3.61	1.07
A3. Become familiar with the differences between the target and the native culture and enhance their sensitivity to cultural norms.	80.0	3.97	.95
A4. Enhance their reading comprehension skill.	71.4	3.88	1.02
A5. Enhance their speaking skill.	60.0	3.54	1.09
A6. Enhance their writing skill.	74.3	4.00	.80
A7. Enhance their listening skill.	55.9	3.41	1.45
A8. Increase their vocabulary knowledge.	85.7	4.20	.99
A9. Improve their knowledge of grammar.	48.5	3.45	.88
A10. Improve coherence and organization in their writings.	34.3	3.11	1.07
A11. Enhance their communicative competence	65.7	3.85	1.08
A12. Achieve an acceptable level of language proficiency.	57.1	3.48	1.09
A13. Develop their foreign language pragmatic competence.	54.3	3.48	1.01

Teachers also agreed to a great extent that SNs can be personalized settings that can accommodate to students personality traits, learning strategies, needs, and affective features. As it was established students already agreed that SNs give them motivation, confidence, and interest them. Moreover, teachers believed that SNs have good compliance with their teaching strategies (mean 3.57) as well as students' learning strategies (mean 3.54). SNs were seen as an independent learning environment that can be easily utilized in the classroom and be in line with teachers' teaching instructions.

Table 9: The compatibility of SNs with individual aspects

	Mean	SD
<i>(SNs' tools and activities can be tailored to):</i>		
B1. The students' personality traits.	3.41	1.13
B2. The students' learning strategies.	3.54	1.09
B3. The students' needs.	3.57	1.00
B4. The students' affective features.	3.64	1.06
B5. The teachers' teaching strategies.	3.57	1.06

Similar to students, teachers also believed that one of the most important features of SNs that can help in learning is that they make English learning more interesting than the traditional methods of teaching (mean 4.20), and motivate students to learn English (mean 4.14). As Oroujlou and Vahedi (2011) maintain taking the motives of students into account can make language learning interesting. Students are self-motivated to use SNs and that is what makes learning language interesting in both students' and teachers' view. SNs differ from the traditional classes that had a blackboard and chalk system since they foster community and collaboration.

Table 10: The compatibility of SNs with Affective features

	Mean	SD
Social networks:		
C1. Make students feel more motivated in learning the foreign language.	4.14	1.06
C2. Reduces the students' anxiety.	3.91	1.06
C3. Are more interesting to the students than the traditional ones.	4.20	1.02
C4. Are more interactive than the regular classes.	3.80	1.13
C5. Are authentic.	3.62	1.11
C6. Have fixed but dynamic Curriculum.	3.31	1.05
Tasks and activities designed by the use of social networks' tools:		
D1. Are more challenging.	3.88	.79
D2. Are more meaningful to the students.	3.77	.87
D3. Have more information gaps.	3.68	.90
D4. Are authentic, personalized, and learner-driven.	3.91	1.06
In classes using social networks, students:		
E1. Become more creative.	3.85	.91
E2. Receive more feedback from teachers and peers.	3.91	.91
E3. Collaborate more with each other.	4.08	.88
E4. Can design the materials based on their needs.	3.74	1.19

There are so many advantages that make using SNs in the classroom beneficial. In teachers view using SNs in the classroom reduces anxiety, there is lots of interaction between users, the material offered is authentic, and can help teachers have a dynamic curriculum. The tools and applications of SNs can make learning more challenging, meaningful, create more information gap, and the material they offer are more authentic, personalized, and learner-driven. Teachers agreed that classes that uses SNs are more creativite, get more feedback from peers, more collaboration, and offers material that are designed based on their needs. Providing an interactive environment which creates independent and collaborative opportunities is especially important in for foreign language learning when learners where exposure to target is limited.

CONCLUSION

The data that were drawn two questionnaires showed that Iranian students are active users of SNs and being part of SN's community is gaining more and more popularity with the TEFL students of Ilam University. The data showed that they use a good deal of English and also a mix of Persian and English in their interactions, besides they are highly eager to use SNs in the process of their language learning, and exercise what they have learned about language in SNs. they believe that their interactions in SNs enhances their confidence and motivation in using English, and helps them improve different language skills and components. Thus this is safe to claim that SNs are an excellent tool for fostering new social relations between the learners, resulting in improving their proficiency. When

online social networking of students combines with their education, their education can get innovative and entertaining. This helps students to gain very positive attitudes and get motivated to learn and use their English. Teachers also thought SNs as good places for practice that is interesting for students, motivates them, and it makes them confident in language learning. They were many advantages of using SNs that teachers highly agreed with them. They had a positive view that SNs can be effective in improving the language skills of students, and have many advantages that help facilitate language learning, such as being creative and challenging, having authenticity and being learner centered, have the potential of adjusting themselves with learners of different personality traits. Therefore planning to use SNs in classroom and integrating them into foreign language learning seems very beneficial and facilitating for Iranian classrooms, where classes are often crowded and learning language is mostly a passive experience.

Although the findings of the study are encouraging, the mere readiness of students and teachers to exploit SNs pedagogically does not guarantee the successful integration of SNs in Iranian language learning context. Further investigation into ways of integrating the SNs in the classrooms is necessary by all means.

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L2 IDIOM LEARNING IN THE CONTEXT OF DISTANCE LEARNING: A FOCUS ON TEXTUAL AND PICTORIAL GLOSSING AND HYPERLINK

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effects of textual and pictorial glossing and hyperlink on L2 idiom comprehension in distance learning context. The participants, 60 Intermediate female English as a foreign language (EFL) students, were randomly assigned to 4 groups of 15. All groups received two stories a week through Email. Each group received the stories with a different mode of presentation. Two groups were provided with hyperlinked idioms: pictorial and textual hyperlink. The other two groups received instruction through glosses, pictorial and textual glosses. At the end of the treatment period, a multiple choice test was administered to measure receptive knowledge of idioms. The findings showed that the pictorial groups outperformed the textual groups in both hyperlink and glossing conditions on the comprehension test. The present study may have implications for teachers, learners, material writers, textbook authors, CALL package designers and distance learning planners in that it may encourage them to add pictorials to the verbal input.

KEY WORDS: idiom learning, distance learning, gloss

INTRODUCTION

In today's society, the web-based environment of education has provided learners with the opportunity to improve their knowledge of second language (L2) and enhance their communicative competence by the use of various web-based services such as: Email, chat, online dictionaries, online magazines, electronic banking, electronic books, electronic shopping, private online language tutoring courses, etc. Furthermore, the internet has made it possible for learners to choose and manage the process of their learning regardless of the physical location of them.

Another side of this study is idioms. Idioms are one of the crucial culturally integrated constituents of any language. Idioms have received considerable attention from pedagogical point of view in recent years (e.g., Abel, 2003; Boers, 2001; Cooper, 1999; Gibbs, 1980). Researchers and instructors have offered many presentation modes to instruct idioms including L2 definition, L1 explanation, etymology elaboration, pictorial elucidation, glosses, etc. Nevertheless, the issue of applying the most effective presentation mode of teaching idioms has generated a substantial amount of controversy among researchers. Boers (2001) states that associating an idiom with its etymology has been shown to enhance retention. He believes that the simple question 'Where might this expression come from?' has a facilitative role in helping learners to call up in their minds a concrete scene. On the other hand, Fotovatnia and Khaki (2012) point out the pedagogical value of pictures for the teaching of both meaning and form of decomposable idioms. Boers, Piriz, Stengers, and Eyckmans (2009), in a small-scale experiment, addressed the question of whether pictorial elucidation helps retention of the form of idioms, i.e. their precise lexical composition. Results revealed that the addition of pictorial elucidation contributes little to learners' retention of linguistic forms.

The objective of the present study is to investigate the effect of four presentation modes (pictorial hyperlink, pictorial gloss, textual hyperlink, and textual gloss) on SL idioms learning. Previous studies on idioms have demonstrated the positive effect of these modes on L2 idiom learning in classroom context. This study is an attempt to compare them with each other in order to see which one is the most effective in the context of distance learning.

LITERATURE REVIEW

By the use of the Internet and the World Wide Web, learners have the opportunity to manage the process of their learning based on their need and purpose. In addition, one culturally integrated aspect of any languages is idioms. Also, there are many modes of idiom presentation. The debate is about which mode is the most effective and compatible mode in distance learning context.

Idioms

An appropriate use of idiomatic expressions is a sign of language fluency. Many advanced language learners are unable to utilize these expressions appropriately, or they avoid using them. In the literature, idioms have been defined by many linguists and lexicographers in different ways. According to Cooper (1999), an idiom is an expression whose meaning cannot always be readily derived from the usual meaning of its constituent elements. Likewise, Abel (2003) holds that a decomposable idiom is an idiom whose individual components contribute to its figurative meaning, whereas the constituents of a nondecomposable idiom do not make such a contribution. In an attempt to offer a tentative idiom classification, Andreou and Galantomos (2008) believe that Greek idioms can be categorized as figurative idioms, idiomatic expressions based on historical and cultural knowledge in general, and pure idioms (i.e. non compositional idioms).

Different presentation modes of idiom

Mayer (1997) mentions differences among delivery media, presentation modes, and sensory modalities. He refers to delivery media as the system used to present instruction, such as a book-based medium versus a computer-based medium. Presentation modes refer to the format used to represent the presented instruction, such as words versus pictures, and modality refers to the information processing channel that a learner uses to process the information such as acoustic versus visual information processing. According to Mayer (2008), a central challenge of psychology and education is the development of the science of instruction aimed at understanding how to present material in ways that help people learn.

Multimedia

Providing appropriate and relevant pictures depicting concrete and relevant scenes makes materials more appealing and may foster comprehension and retrieval of L2 idioms and words. In addition to pictures, using videos, sounds, animated pictures, drawings, and video clips becomes common ways of presenting idioms or words.

The term multimedia means different things on different levels. On the level of technology, it means the use of multiple delivery media such as computers, screens, and loudspeakers. On the level of presentation formats, it means the use of different forms of representation such as texts and pictures. On the level of sensory modalities, it means the use of multiple senses such as the eye and the ear (Mayer, 2005, pp. 49-70).

To demonstrate the importance of pictures in education, Yeh and Wang (2003) conducted a study to compare the effectiveness of three types of vocabulary annotations on vocabulary learning of EFL college students in Taiwan: text annotation only, text plus picture, and text plus picture and sound. The results of the study showed that the version with text plus picture was the most effective type of vocabulary annotation. Similarly, Yushi (2006) investigated the effects of additional pictorial cues in L1 and L2 glosses, and how these additions affect vocabulary learning in a multimedia environment. 195 students from two universities in Japan participated in his study. The students were randomly divided into four groups using four different gloss types: the first group read a story with L1 text-only glosses; the second group read it with L2 text-only; the third group used L1 text-plus-pictorial cues in the glosses; and the fourth group had as their glosses L2 text-plus-pictorial cues. The results showed a significant difference between picture and no-picture groups, suggesting the beneficial effects of pictures with regard to learners' retention of the meaning of words.

Finally, Zarei and Salimi (20012) found evidence supporting the effective role of pictures in L2 vocabulary recognition and production. They compared the effectiveness of three methods of vocabulary presentation: picture, song, and the keyword method on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recognition and production. Results showed that the group instructed through picture had the best performance.

Gloss

Glossing is another useful mode of idiom and word presentation. Generally, glosses are categorized into two types: Computer-based or multimedia-based glosses versus paper-based glosses. Many researchers have examined the effectiveness of glosses in enhancing vocabulary and idioms knowledge of L2 learners, and have compared various kinds of glosses.

Shahrokni (2009) compared the effect of online textual, pictorial, and textual pictorial glosses on the incidental vocabulary learning of 90 adult elementary Iranian EFL learners. 3 groups of participants were exposed to the research treatment. During 3 sessions of instruction, 5 computerized reading texts including 25 target words were studied. The participants read the texts for comprehension and, at the same time, were able to consult the glosses attached to the target words. Results showed that a combination of text and still images resulted in significantly better incidental vocabulary learning.

In a similar attempt, Yousefzadeh (2011) compared computer-based glosses with traditional glosses. Two groups of participants received instruction in the following conditions: The Computer based group were instructed through computer. i.e. new words were presented with their pictures and L1 translations and the traditional group received material on the paper only with L1 translation. The results indicated the superiority of computer-based glosses.

The impact of CALL in foreign language learning

New technologies offer students a venue for additional interesting and engaging activities in second or foreign language learning. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) provides a motivating and safe environment of learning which may improve students' achievement. Within this context of electronic learning (e-learning), students have the opportunity to choose and manage their learning and to keep interaction and connectivity. To show the powerful role of e-learning, Bielawski and Metcalf (2003) state that e-learning is powerful because it is able to provide the right information to the right people at the right times and places. Furthermore, integrating technologies with language pedagogy may develop learner autonomy and help learners to become independent. Raya and Fernández (2002) emphasizes the effective role of new technologies which can help learners to take a more active part in determining their own objectives and syllabi, as well as the path and timing they choose. They state that by teaching students the necessary skills, they can find information when they need it as well as use it appropriately based on their requirements and purposes.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The present study addresses the following research question:

Are there any significant differences among the effects of various presentation modes (pictorial hyperlink, pictorial gloss, textual hyperlink, and textual gloss) on L2 idiom comprehension in distance learning context?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 60 female EFL students at intermediate level of proficiency. All the participants were native speakers of Persian studying in Iran Language Institute in Kermanshah, Iran. Randomly, they were divided into four groups. Each group contained 15 participants who received one of the treatment conditions via the internet.

Instruments

In this study, the following instruments were utilized:

In order to homogenize the participants in terms of their level of proficiency, a Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency was used. It contains 100 multiple-choice items including 40 grammar items in a conversational format, 40 vocabulary items requiring the selection of a synonym or completion of a sentence, and reading passages followed by 20 comprehension questions.

To make sure that the participants had no prior knowledge of the target idioms, an idiom pretest was administered. The test included 121 items containing idioms which were to be presented during the treatment. The participants had

to write the English or Persian translation of the idioms. Results revealed that, 20 idioms were familiar for the participants. Therefore, these 20 idioms were excluded for the post tests. All the items of the tests were selected from “*Can You Believe It? Stories and Idioms from Real Life, Book3*” (Huizenga, J., 2000).

The course book used to present idioms was titled “*Can You Believe It? Stories and Idioms from Real Life, Book3*” (Huizenga, J., 2000). The book was published by Oxford University Press. It contained 14 amazing real stories from around the world. Each story included 7 to 10 idioms and 2 to 5 phrasal verbs. For the purpose of this study, phrasal verbs were included in the instruction phase but excluded from the posttests.

A 30-item multiple choice idiom test was administered to compare the effects of textual gloss, textual hyperlink, pictorial gloss, and pictorial hyperlink on the comprehension of idioms and to measure the participants' receptive knowledge of idioms. The time allocated to this posttest was 30 minutes.

Procedure

In order to achieve the aim of the study, the following procedures were followed. First of all, to homogenize the participants, a multiple-choice MTELP was administered to 80 participants. The analysis of the scores indicated that 20 of the participants had to be excluded from the study because of a different proficiency level. So, 60 female intermediate learners took part in the study. Second, to minimize the effect of the participants' background knowledge of the target idioms, a pre-test was administered in the second week of the spring semester 2013. The pre-test contained 112 idioms and the participants were asked to write the meaning of the idioms in English or Persian. Furthermore, they were asked to write their Email address to take part in the virtual course of idioms. Then, the participants were divided into four groups randomly. All the groups received 2 stories a week in pdf format through Email. Each story contained 7 to 10 idioms. The instructor taught the same content to all the students enrolled in the course. However, there were some obvious differences in the way content was delivered. Each group received the content with a different mode of presentation. That is to say, the meaning of the idioms was clarified through various modes for each group:

In group A (textual gloss group), the participants received instruction through textual gloss. To be exact, this group was provided with materials in which the meaning of the target idioms was clarified in a glossary at the end of each story. Participants were asked to read English definition of idioms in a list. In group B (textual hyperlink group), the same materials were sent to the participants. However, the selected mode of presentation for this group was textual hyperlink. When the participants clicked on a hyperlinked idiom, a new page appeared and showed the idiom and its English definition. The third group, group C (pictorial gloss group), were exposed to the same materials. However, for this group, relevant and clear pictures which depicted target idioms were provided in a glossary at the end of each story. Also, group D (pictorial hyperlink group) were provided with the same materials. They had access to the pictures of idioms by just one click. In other words, when the participants clicked on a hyperlinked idiom, a new page appeared and showed the idiom and its picture.

The fourth phase was the administration of the posttest. A 30-item multiple choice idiom test was administered to all groups to compare the effects of the four presentation modes (textual gloss, textual hyperlink, pictorial gloss, and pictorial hyperlink) on SL idiom comprehension.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

The aim of the research question was to investigate whether or not there are any significant differences among the effects of various presentation modes (pictorial hyperlink, pictorial gloss, textual hyperlink, and textual gloss) in distance learning context on L2 idiom comprehension. To do so, a One-Way ANOVA procedure was used. Descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, etc. are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the ANOVA on idiom comprehension

groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pictorial hyperlink	15	24.3333	3.65800	.94449	22.3076	26.3591
Pictorial gloss	15	23.7333	5.57375	1.43914	20.6467	26.8200
Textual hyperlink	15	19.0000	3.33809	.86189	17.1514	20.8486
Textual gloss	15	18.8000	4.45934	1.15140	16.3305	21.2695
Total	60	21.4667	4.96587	.64109	20.1838	22.7495

Based on Table 1, it can be observed that the highest mean on the idiom comprehension test belongs to the pictorial hyperlink group ($\bar{X}= 24.33$) followed by the pictorial gloss group ($\bar{X}= 23.73$). The third highest mean belongs to the textual hyperlink group ($\bar{X}= 19$). The group instructed through the textual gloss has the lowest mean ($\bar{X}= 18.80$). To see whether or not the differences among the groups are statistically significant, the One-Way ANOVA procedure was used. The obtained results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: ANOVA on learners' idiom comprehension

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	398.267	3	132.756	7.036	.000
Within Groups	1056.667	56	18.869		
Total	1454.933	59			$\omega^2 = .23$

In Table 2, based on the observed F value and the significance level ($F(3,56) = 7.03, P < .05$), we can safely claim that there are significant differences among the means of the groups. So, the null hypothesis developed in chapter one is rejected. At the same time, the index of the strength of association ($\omega^2 = .23$) shows that 23% of the total variance in the dependent variable (idiom comprehension) is accounted for by the independent variable (mode of presentation). This means that the remaining 77% of the variance is left unaccounted for. To locate the significant differences, a post hoc Scheffe test was used, the results of which are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Multiple comparisons for the ANOVA on idiom comprehension

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pictorial hyperlink	Pictorial gloss	.60000	1.58615	.986	-3.9719	5.1719
	Text hyperlink	5.33333*	1.58615	.016	.7614	9.9053
	Text gloss	5.53333*	1.58615	.011	.9614	10.1053
Pictorial gloss	Text hyperlink	4.73333*	1.58615	.040	.1614	9.3053
	Text gloss	4.93333*	1.58615	.029	.3614	9.5053

Textual hyperlink	Text gloss					
		.20000	1.58615	.999	-4.3719	4.7719

As the above table shows, there are statistically significant differences between both of the pictorial groups and the textual groups. In other words, the pictorial groups outperformed the textual groups in both hyperlink and glossing conditions on the idiom comprehension test. At the same time, there are no statistically significant differences between the pictorial groups. It can be claimed that pictures (regardless of whether they are hyperlinked, or glossed) can positively influence idiom comprehension in the distance learning context.

Discussion

Regarding the research question of this study, the outcomes supported the positive effect of pictures on L2 idiom comprehension in the context of distance learning. This finding of the present study is consistent with a number of studies some of which were reviewed in chapter 2, such as Fotovatnia and Khaki (2012), who pointed out the pedagogical value of pictures in the teaching of both meaning and form of decomposable idioms. Also, Yushi (2006); and Zarei and Salimi (2012) showed the positive effect of pictures in teaching and learning L2 words. Likewise, Kost, Foss, and Lenzini (1999); Shahrokni (2009); and Yousefzadeh (2011) supported the superiority of multimedia gloss in improving L2 learners' comprehension of L2 words. All these studies confirmed the significant effect of picture elucidation in idiom comprehension and word learning. Also, the results of the present study are in accordance with the claim of the cognitive theory of multimedia learning (CTML) (Mayer, 1997, 2001). According to Mayer (2005), human beings process knowledge through two channels: a visual-pictorial and an auditory-verbal (dual-channels assumption); each channel has a limited capacity for processing (limited capacity assumption); and active learning involves carrying out a synchronized set of cognitive processes (active processing assumption). The cognitive theory of multimedia learning specifies five cognitive processes in multimedia learning: selecting relevant words from the presented text or narration, selecting relevant images from the presented illustrations, organizing the selected words into a coherent verbal representation, organizing selected images into a coherent pictorial representation, and integrating the pictorial and verbal representations and prior knowledge. In other words, presentation of the information visually and textually might lead to a deeper level of learning. In this study, pictorial groups were provided with the textual form of idioms in addition to related pictures. They had the opportunity to integrate the textual form of idioms with concrete visual pictures. This may have engaged L2 learners' mind in processing and integrating written form of an idiom and its relevant picture simultaneously.

CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to investigate the effects of various presentation modes namely; pictorial hyperlink, pictorial gloss, textual hyperlink, and textual gloss on L2 idiom comprehension in distance learning context. The findings showed that the pictorial groups outperformed the textual groups in both hyperlink and glossing conditions on the comprehension test. To conclude, the addition of relevant and clear pictures makes materials appealing and facilitates comprehension of L2 idioms.

Implications

As multimedia make materials appealing, using this presentation mode can be useful for both teachers and learners. The present study may also have implications for material writers, textbook authors, CALL package designers and distance learning planners in that it may encourage them to add pictorials to the verbal input.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations and delimitations need to be taken into account about the present study:

1. The first and the most important limitation was the difficulty of finding 60 homogeneous participants who had access to computer and internet, and enjoyed a satisfactory level of familiarity with computer-based learning for this self-access study.
2. The sex of the participants was limited to female learners; therefore, the results of the study may not be generalizable to male learners.
3. The participants of this study were limited to the intermediate level learners. So, care must be exercised in generalizing the results beyond its proper limits.
4. Another factor to be taken into account is the small sample of the participants. This further limits the generalizability of the findings.

5. Modes of idiom presentation are classified into different types. It is impossible to compare all the modes in one study. This study has chosen to focus on only selected modes of presentation.
6. There are many ways of conducting distance education; this study was carried out through only one way of distance learning (instruction through Email).
7. The result of this study may be affected by other variables, like age, personality and social factors. These factors have not been taken into account in the present study.

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REALIZATION OF PRAGMATIC MARKERS IN PERSIAN

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ABSTRACT

Pragmatic markers (PMs Hereafter) have been a polemic issue in pragmatic research over the past few decades. Although a substantial amount of research has been devoted to PMs in English and some other languages to define, classify and categorize PMs, we are still far from developing an inclusive typology. Drawing on data from a written and spoken corpus in Persian and the current classifications of PMs in literature such as Gonzalez (2005), Akkaya (2007), Brinton (2008), and Fraser's (2009), the present study tried to find out how such markers are realized in Persian. In so doing, attempt has been made to follow a reductionistic approach. The analysis is based on a dichotomy of interpretational/non-interpretational and notional/ non-notional particles. The study will, also, discuss the areas of convergence and divergence in Persian and English and the theoretical and pedagogical implications.

KEYWORDS: Pragmatic markers; Interpretational; Non-interpretational; Notional; Non-notional

INTRODUCTION

Within the realm of pragmalinguistics, Markers, in general, and Pragmatic Markers (PMs), in particular, have been extensively studied (e.g., Erman, 2001; Norrick, 2001; Chiu, 2002; Martinez, 2002; Cuenca, 2003; Gerner, 2003; Hinkel, 2003; Aijmer, 2004; Grenoble, 2004; Muller, 2004, 2005; 5; Fraser, 2005a,b; Gonzalez, 2005; Akkaya, 2007; Choi, 2007; Brinton, 2008; Feng, 2008; Jalilifar, 2008; Fraser, 2009; Norrick, 2009; Argaman, 2010; and Bell, 2010).

Among the works done on markers, studies carried out on PMs have passed an evolutionary route from 1996 to 2009. These markers have been investigated extensively for their occurrences, types, functions and classifications. Fraser (1996) primarily used the terminology *Pragmatic Markers* and tried to propose a typology of PMs in English. Later, from 1997 to 2009, he made an attempt to give a more inclusive and comprehensive typology by adding new types and subtypes of pragmatic markers to the previous ones. Furthermore, other researchers (e.g., Erman, 2001; Gonzalez, 2005; Akkaya, 2007; and Feng, 2008) have tried to give a thorough all-embracing taxonomy of PMs, considering variant variables in different contextual settings.

Some of the above-mentioned studies have investigated markers from a number of variant perspectives such as, *cross-linguistic study of markers* (e.g., Ozbek, 1995), *typological study of markers* (e.g., Lee, 2002 and Fraser, 1996), *markers of variant sociolinguistic contexts* (e.g., Grenoble, 2004; Choi, 2007; Feng, 2008), *bilingual markers* (e.g., Hlavac, 2006), *markers, discourse coherence and relevance theory* (e.g., Andersen, 2001), *markers, gender and age* (e.g., Andersen, 1997 & 2001; Erman, 2001; Chiu, 2002; Akkaya, 2007;), *multi-functionality of markers* (e.g., Erman, 2001; Muller, 2005; Cuenca, 2008; Bell, 2009; and Bolden, 2009), *new typology of markers* (e.g., Fraser,

1996, 1997; Goatly, 1997; Lee, 2002; Brinton, 2008; Feng, 2008; and Fraser, 2009), *markers implications for translation* (e.g., Danish, 2008), *synchronic and diachronic study of markers* (e.g., park, 2003, Korean pragmatic markers), *markers in different pedagogical settings* (e.g., Martinez, 2002; Hinkel, 2003; Muller, 2005, SLA; and Jalilifar, 2008), *markers and emotional intensity* (e.g., Argaman; 2010), *markers signaling metaphor* (e.g., Goatly, 1997;), *universality of markers* (e.g., Fraser, 2005a), and finally, *markers in spoken mode of speech* (e.g., Andersen, 1997; Norrick, 2001; Aijmer, 2004).

With all the studies done on PMs, the development of a theory of PMs is yet in its infancy and we are still far from having a comprehensive taxonomy of PMs which can account for all the markers cross-linguistically. Further, to the researchers' knowledge, Persian context has been intact to such cross-linguistic investigations on PMs. As Schifffrin (2001, 2003) points out, cross-linguistic studies help us to have a more vivid and inclusive picture of the behavior of PMs. Having this in mind and based on a sound analytical framework, i.e. Fraser's (2009) classification of PMs, attempt was made to scrutinize types and functions of PMs in Persian.

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

The reference framework employed in this study to analyze the data was Fraser's (2009) framework of PMs categorization, in which he characterized PMs as:

Syntactic, lexical, phonological linguistic devices which play no role in determining the semantic meaning of the basic propositional content of a discourse segment of which they are a part, but do have a critical role in the interpretation of the utterance. (p. 892).

He distinguished four major categories for PMs: A) Basic Markers (BMs): which give information about the intended use of an utterance (e.g., *I admit, please, My promise*), B) Commentary Markers (CMs): which help the speaker in conveying his/her attitudes towards something (e.g., *frankly, amazingly, apparently*), C) Discourse Markers (DMs): which help the speaker in relating two adjacent pieces of discourse (e.g., *but, so, in addition*), and D) Discourse Management Markers (DMMs): "which signal a meta-discourse comment on the structure of discourse" (Fraser, *ibid*, p.893).

Discourse management markers, in turn, were divided into three subcategories: 1) Discourse Structure Markers (DSMs): which, with consideration of the total structure of discourse, indicate the contribution of the next discourse parts (e.g., *first, then, in summary, I add*), 2) Attention Markers (AMs): which signal that the topic is going to be changed but do not indicate the type of change and in many cases occur before topic orientation markers (e.g., *ah, alright, anyway, anyhow, hey, in any case, in any event, now, now then, oh, ok, so, so good, well, well then*), and 3) Topic Orientation Markers (TOMs).

Topic orientation markers indicate four types of immediate changes in the topic of discourse: a) Returning to a Prior Topic (RPT): for example, *back to my point, returning to my (previous) point, to return to the prior topic, I would like now to go back to what I was discussing, that point notwithstanding, if I might return to my prior point* and so on, b) Adding to or Continuing with the Present Topic (ACPT): for example, *as I was saying, I haven't finished yet, if I might go on, let's go on, not incidentally, to continue, let's say on the present topic, shall we* and so on, c) Digressing from the Present Topic (DPT): for example, *before I forget, by the way, I almost forgot, I just remembered, I totally forgot, incidentally, in passing, parenthetically, speaking of, that reminds me, to update you* and so on, and d) Introducing a New Topic (INT): for example, *but, if I might change the topic, let me broach an entirely new topic, not to change the topic but, on a different note, to change the topic, turning to a new topic* and so on.

Below is the figure illustrating Fraser's (2009) pragmatic markers categorization in brief:



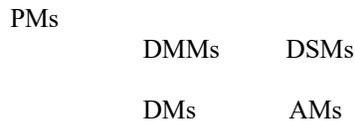


Figure 1: Fraser's (2009) framework of PMs

METHODOLOGY

Corpora

Two corpora in Persian have been combined and made the main corpus: a Conversation Corpus (about 50,000 words), and a Speech Corpus (about 90,000 words), which will be explained in details in the following sections.

Conversational corpus

The collected corpus of Persian conversations was audio-recorded and transcribed. Each conversation lasted between 5 to 15 minutes, depending on the interlocutors' desire to last the conversation or to finish it soon. Also, there were three to six adult interlocutors (both male and female) in each conversation whose age ranged from 20 to 30. Every interlocutor was asked in advance to volunteer for the study. Also, they declared their approval of being audio-recorded.

Speech Corpus

This corpus consisted of 120 academic and political speeches which were downloaded from Internet and transcribed, as well. The speeches were given by different lecturers, academic people and politicians from 2000 to 2010.

Data analysis

The collected data in Persian were analyzed qualitatively according to the types and functions of PMs proposed by Fraser (2009). In addition, the Persian PMs which had not been taken into account by Fraser's (2009) were identified and classified, using some new terminologies or borrowing some terminologies from other researchers in the field.

RESULTS

Following Fraser (2009), four distinct types of PPMs plus their subtypes were found. As they served only one main function, they were considered as **Uni-Functional Markers (UFMs)**. The first type of PPMs was **Basic Markers**, which serve the same functions as their counterparts in English, i.e. they give information on the intended application of the following utterance. The examples of Persian BMs are illustrated in (1) and their function is the same as their counterparts in English. Examples of this type are as follows (1):

- (1) *Pišnæhâd midæhæm* 'I suggest', *Tosie mikonæm* 'I advise', *Xâheš mikonæm* 'Please', *Tæʔkid mikonæm* 'I emphasize', *Ey kâš* 'I wish', *Piš bini mikonim* 'We predict', *Tæbrik ærz mikonæm* 'I congratulate', *Dærxaste bænde ʔin ʔæst* 'My request is', *Qol midæhæm* 'My promise', *Mote ʔæsefæm* 'I am sorry', ...

They are illustrated in the following examples(2):

- (2) a) *Qæbul dâræm ke bâyæd bištær tælâš mikærdæm.*
'I accept that I had to put more attempt.'
b) *Tælâše mâ ʔin æst ke jælæsât be moqe šoru šævæd væ xâtæme yâbæd.*
'Our attempt is to start and finish the meetings on time.'
c) *Omidvârim ke ʔin mævâne ʔ ræfʔ šævænd.*
'We hope that these obstacles will be removed.'

The second type of PPMs was **Commentary Markers**, which convey the speaker's attitudes towards the following utterance. Members of this group are indicated in (2).

- (2) *Hætâ* 'Even', *Hæd-e-?æqæl* 'At least', *Dær hæqiqæt* 'In fact', *Mote ?æsefâne* 'Unfortunately', *?ehthemâlæn* 'Possibly', *Fæqæt* 'Just', *Hætmaen* 'Surely', *Bedun-e-?æk* 'Undoubtly', *Bædihi ?æst ke* 'It is clear that', *Lâzem ?æst ke* 'It is necessary that', *Bârhâ væ bârhâ* 'Repeatedly',...

They are exemplified in (3):

- (3) a) *?ælbæte, xâstæn tævânestæn ?æst.*
 'Of course, when there is a will, there is a way.'
 b) *Xošbæxtâne, komite ?elmi ?æmælkærde xubi dâste.*
 'Fortunately, the scientific committee has had a proper function.'
 c) *Be tore koli, se no ?fæ ?âliæt dær ?in ræveš vojud dâraed.*
 'Generally, there are three activities in this method.'

The third type of PPMs was **Discourse Markers**, which relates two adjacent discourse segments together. They are shown in (4).

- (4) *Væli* 'But', *Be hæmin sæbæb* 'Because of this', *?ælâve bæer* 'In addition', *Hæmçenin* 'Also', *Bænâbær ?in* 'Therefore', *Bærâye mesâl* 'For example', *Yâ* 'Or', *Væ* 'And', *?ælâræqme* 'Despite of', *?gær çe* 'Although', *?ebâraet ?æst ?æz* 'Such as', ...

They are illustrated by the following examples (5):

- (5) a) *Moşkelâte mâ ziâdan, mæselæn, kæmbud-e væqt vase tæhvîl-e perože.*
 'There are a lot of problems, for instance, lack of time to deliver the projects.'
 b) *?in mozu be læhâze næzæri mærbut be næzær miresæd, zirâ be færagir budæn-e ræftâr-e sâzmani ?eşâre dâraed.*
 'This topic seems related theoretically, because it points out the pervasiveness of the organizational behavior.'
 c) *?æz kâr ?exrâj sode bud. Lezâ, be donbâl-e şoqle jadidi bud.*
 'He was fired. So, he was looking for a new job.'

The Fourth type of PPMs was **Discourse Management Markers**, "which signal a meta-discourse comment on the structure of discourse" (Fraser, 2009, p.893). This type of PPMs includes three subtypes:

A) Discourse Structure Markers (DSMs): which indicate "the contribution of the following discourse segment within the overall structure of discourse" (Fraser, ibid, p.893). They are illustrated in (6):

- (6) *Be tor-e koli* 'Generally', *?ælqese* 'To put it in nutshell', *Ruy-e hæm ræfte* 'all in all', *?ævælin mored-e mohem* 'First and most important', *Dær næhâyæt* 'Ultimately', *bæ ?d* 'Next', *Dær ?ebteda* 'First', *Sepæs* 'Then', *?æz suy-e digær* 'On the other hand', ...

Examples of which are shown below (7):

- (7) a) *Se nokte ro dær næzær begir: ?vælaen, hædaefmand bâš. Dovomæn, ...*
 'Consider three points: Firstly, specify your goal. Secondly, ...'
 b) *Dær ?in motâle?e do ræveš be kâr gerefte šod. Yeki, ræveš-e peimâyeš ?æs [...]. Digæri, ræveše tætbîqi-e kæmmi ?æst ...*
 'Two methods were applied in his study. One of them is the survey method [...]. The other is the quantitative comparative method...'

- c) *Be tore xolâse, gofte mišævæd ke mâlekiæt dær ʔin se bæxs̄-e dolæti, tæʔâvoni, xosusi tâ jâyi mored-e ʔehteram-e qânun ʔæst.*
'In short, it is said that the ownership in the state, cooperative and private sectors are honored by the law to some extent.'

B) Topic Orientation Markers (TOMs): which imply the prompt changes in the topic of discourse. They are of four types:

i. Returning to a Prior Topic (RPT): As in (8)

- (8) a) *Qæblæn-æm goftæm ke æslæn be riskeš nemi-ʔærze.*
'I previously said that it does not worth a risk.'
b) *Hæmântori ke ʔærz šod, šæbæke rustâ-yi be ʔonvâne yek pâilot dær Nogærân mored-e bæhre-bærdari qærâr gereft.*
'Returning to what is said before, the rural network was exploited in Nograd as a pilot.'
c) *Hæmântor ke gofte šod, tærbicæt mædæni yeki ʔæz vojuh va foru ʔ-e jâme ʔe-ye mædæni ʔæst.*
'As it was said, the civil nurturing is one of the offshoots of the civil society.'

ii. Adding to or Continuing with the Present Topic (ACPT): As in (9)

- (9) a) *Mævâd-e lâzem-e keik-o goftæm. Dær ʔedâme, tærz-e tæhiyye ro migæam.*
'I mentioned the ingredients for baking a cake. Continuing, I'll explain how to bake it.'
b) *Negâr ʔin ʔævâxer xeili sær-hâl nist [interrupted by somebody]; dâstæm migoftæm bâyæd ye kâri bærâš bokonim.*
'Recently, Negar was not in good mood [interrupted by somebody]; as I was saying, we have to do something for her.'
c) *ʔetelâʔâti ʔæz in qæbil bærârâye tæʔmin-e boʔd-e šenâxti kâfi nist. ʔælvæ bær ʔân, bærxî qâbeliæt-hâ væ tævânâyi-hâ-ye fekri væ šenaxti niz mored-e niâz ʔæst.*
'Such information and knowledge are not enough to provide the cognitive aspect. Added to that, cognitive and reflective abilities and capacities are needed.'

iii. Digressing from the Present Topic (DPT): As in (10)

- (10) a) *Ræftim pârk xoš gozašt, râsti šenidi hæraj-e tâbestuni šoru šode?*
'We went to the park. It was fun. By the way, have you heard about the beginning of the summer sale?'
b) *Mæs ʔulin æz sâzmân-e sænješ ʔâmædænd væ dær tærqib-e sâyere goruh-ha dær peivæstæn be tærh besiâr mofid bud. Be hæj hâl, tæbliq bæxši ʔæz kâr ʔæst.*
'Authorities of Sanjesh Organization came and they persuade other groups to join the plan. Anyway, propagation is a part of the whole task.'
c) *Nemâyæš færdâ bærgozâr miše, tu pærântez ʔærz konæm xedmætetun ke belit-hâ tæmum šodæn.*
'The play will be held tomorrow. Parenthetically, I should mention that all the tickets were sold.'

iiii. Introducing a New Topic (INT): As in (11)

- (11) a) *Možu ʔi ke emruz tofiq peidâ kærdæm xedmæt-e šomâ ʔærz konæm, negâhi be vaz ʔæ-t-e bâzâr kâr-e kešvæ [..] ʔæst.*
'The new topic that I want to talk about is having a glance at the state job vacancies...'
b) *ʔin mored hæm hæl šod. Možu ʔ-e bæ ʔdi ke mixâm dær moredeš tozih bedæm moškelat-e refâhi-e.*
'This problem was solved. The next topic that I want to explain about is welfare problems.'
c) *Væ ʔemâ, dustân-e ʔæziz, ʔemruz jâme ʔe-ye bæšæri bâ no ʔi ʔæz nejâd-pæræsti movâjeh šode ʔæst...*
'But (to introduce a new topic), dear friends! Today, men society is confronted with a kind of racism...'

C) Attention Markers (AMs): which signal that the topic is going to be changed. However, they do not suggest the type of changes. Also, most of the times, they precede Topic Orientation Markers. As in (12)

- (12) a) *Xânom-hâ va ʔâqâyân, Hæmântor ke gofte šod, šærâyet-e ʔomumi-e jæhân bâ sor ʔæt be samt-e tæqirat-e ʔæsâsi piš mi-rævæd.*
'Ladies and gentlemen, as it was said (TOM, RPT) the world's general condition rapidly goes towards drastic modifications.'

- b) *Tævæjoh dâšte bâsid, emruze kudækân hæsås-tær ?æz hæmiše hæstæen.*
 ‘Attention! Today, the kids are more sensitive than ever.’
 c) *Hâlâ, mixâm beræm sære ?æsle mætlæb.*
 ‘Now! I want to talk about the main topic.’

OTHER PMS USED IN PERSIAN CORPORA

Although Fraser’s (2009) classification of PMs covers a large number of markers existing in Persian Corpora, there are still some markers which have not been taken into account by this latest classification of PMs. Below, they are elaborated on.

The first PM which is frequently used in Persian Conversation and Speech Corpora is the marker *?enšâ?ællâh* and its synonyms such as *?ægær Xodâ bexâhæd*, *?ægær Xodâ tofiq dæhæd* and so on. This marker equals the phrase ‘God willing’ in English. In the present study, they are called **Expectation Markers (EMs)**, hereafter, since Persian speakers as well as English speakers use this marker to show some sort of expectation of an action to happen while they seek God’s will simultaneously. Using this marker, they show their hope towards the compliance of their requests by God. This marker is often used before a discourse segment, and indicates a concept beside the concept carried by the following adjacent discourse segment; as in (13).

- (13) a) *?enšâ?ællâh, ?emtehânet ro pâs miši.*
 ‘God willing, you will pass your exam.’
 b) *Xodâvænd hæmeyer mâ râ tofiq dæhæd ke ?æz ?in doran be næhv-e ?æhsæn ?obur konim.*
 ‘May God help us pass this era successfully.’

The second marker which means ‘for the love of God’ in English and is mostly used in Conversation Corpora is *mæhz-e rezâ-ye Xodâ*. It indicates the speaker’s dissatisfaction of the current situation. The speaker employs this marker in order to put an end to the continuation of the unpleasant situation. They are called **Speaker Dissatisfaction Markers (SDMs)** from now on. Like EMs, this marker also carries a concept in addition to the concept of the next discourse segment which follows it. It is illustrated in the Example (14).

- (14) a) *Mæhz-e rezâ-ye Xodâ, bæš kon!*
 ‘For the love of God, enough is enough!’

Like the found PPMs based on Fraser’s (2009) framework, Expectation Markers and Speaker dissatisfaction Markers serve only one function in their contexts. Hence, they can be put under the umbrella of Uni-Functional Markers. However, there are other found PPMs which serve more than one function in different contexts. They are called **Multi-Functional Markers (MFMs)**. And, the following PPMs are of this type.

The third type of PPMs which are often used before a discourse segment, and indicate a concept beside the concept carried by the following adjacent discourse segment is called **Address Form Markers (AFMs)** (used by Akkaya, 2007). Address form is defined by the Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics (1985) as “The word or words used to address somebody, in speech or writing” (cited in Akkaya, 2007, p.3). The examples of this type which are mostly found in the Persian Conversation Corpora are *?âqâ*, *bâbâ* and *bâbâ jun*. These address forms literally mean ‘Sir’, ‘Daddy’ and ‘Dear daddy’ which are used in order to address male addressees in English; However, Persian speakers use them to address both male and female addressees. They are illustrated in the example (15).

- (15) a) 1) *?âqâ, lofæen ye adams bedid.* (A girl to a male seller)
 ‘Sir, give me a gum please.’
 2) *?âqâ, ye bæhs-e jædid konim.* (A boy to her male and female classmates)
 ‘Guys, let’s start a new discussion.’
 b) 1) *Bâbâ/ Bâbâ jun, kei bæ-mi-gærði?* (A girl to her father)
 ‘Daddy/Dear daddy, when are you going to be back?’
 2) *Bâbâ/ Bâbâ jun, dæst ?æz særæm bardarin!* (A girl to her mother)

‘Mother, leave me alone please!’

As it is clear in the above examples, the address forms *Āāqa* and *Bābā* which are specific to males are used to address males in a, 1) and b, 1). In this context, they can be called **Gender-Specific Address Forms (GSAFs, hereafter)**. Nevertheless, these male-specific address forms can be used to address females in a, 2) and b, 2). In these two examples, they can be called **Gender-Neutral Address Forms (GNAFs, hereafter)**.

Last but not least, the PPM which is frequently used in Persian Conversation Corpora is the marker *Āeslāen*. It roughly means ‘Never’ in English. ‘Never’ functions as an adverb negating its discourse segment, within which it is used. However, the marker *Āeslāen*, like *Āāqa*, is one of MFMs in Persian and its function will differ considerably. According to the different meanings it gets in different contexts, this multifunctional marker can play the role of 6 different markers: a) CM, b) AM, c) TOM (INT), d) TOM (DPT), e) DM and f) SDM, the examples of which are illustrated in (16).

(16) a) *Āeslāen, Āeshtebāh kærdim Āemtehān ro hæzfkærdim.*

‘In fact, we made a mistake when we cancelled the exam.’

In this example, *Āeslāen* is a CM, which comments on the following discourse segment. It conveys the attitude that the message carried by the next discourse segment is the sheer truth.

b) *Āeslāen ye Āizi! Āæge Āæz dær-e pošt berim kæsi nemi-fæhme.*

‘Hey guys, let me say something! If we go in through the back door, nobody will find out.’

As *Āeslāen* is content void in this example, there is no one-to-one equivalence for this marker in English. It can be roughly translated to the phrase ‘Hey guys!’ whose function is to attract the attention of addressees towards the upcoming discourse segment. Hence, this marker plays the role of an AM in this example.

c) *Āirani-hā be gūyeš-hāye ziādi tækællom mikonænd. Āeslāen, gūyeš Āist?*

‘Iranian people speak with a wide variety of dialects. But (to introduce a new topic), what is a dialect?’

In this example, *Āeslāen* plays the role of a TOM whose function is to introduce a New Topic. In fact, this marker puts an end to the topic carried by the previous discourse segment and indicates that a new topic is going to be posed by the speaker.

d) *Āeslāen, Āin hærfā ro vel kon xāhešæn!*

‘(To change the topic), Please forget about these words!’

Here, *Āeslāen* is content void, as well and cannot be translated literally into English. However, it plays the role of a TOM which signals Digression from the Present Topic.

e) *Hæme Āæz dars-e teori xæste šodæn. Āeslāen, biāyd kelās ro Āemæli bærgozār konim.*

‘Everybody is tired of theoretical class. So, let’s have a practical class.’

Using *Āeslāen*, here, the speaker tries to make a link between its previous and its following discourse segment. In this example, this marker as a DM can be translated to ‘So’ which conveys that the message ‘holding the practical class’ is just due to the message that the previous discourse segment carries, i.e. ‘students are tired of theoretical classes’.

f) *Āeslāen, tænhām bezār. Pæšimunæm kærdi!*

‘For the sake of God, leave me alone. You made me regret!’

Here, the role of *Āeslāen* is to convey a concept beside the one which is carried by the next discourse segment. Using the marker, the speaker tries to show his dissatisfaction with the current situation.

A NEW TYPOLOGY OF PRAGMATIC MARKERS IN PERSIAN

Based on the above results obtained from the Persian Corpora, two broad types of Persian Pragmatic Markers (PPMs) were discovered in the Persian Corpora: a) **Uni-Functional Markers (UFMs)** and b) **Multi-Functional Markers (MFMs)**. Uni-functional markers are those markers which have only one function in every context of use, for instance, *Xošbæxtāne* ‘Fortunately’ functions as a CM, *Āevvæl* ‘First’ functions as a DSM, *Qol midæhæm* ‘I promise’ functions as a BM and so on. However, Multi-functional Markers are those markers whose functions change in different context of use, for example, *Āeslāen* can function as CM, DM, AM, SDM and TOM. Other examples of MFMs are *Āāqa* and *Bābā* which can function either as a GSAF or GNAF.

Using new terminologies and borrowing some terminologies from other researchers in the field, PPMs are reclassified here into three main types: a) **Cataphoric Markers (CpMs)**, b) **Conjunct Markers (CjMs)**, (used by Brinton, 2008) and c) **Parallel Markers (PIMs)** (used by Fraser, 1996).

The first type of PPMs is called **Cathaphoric Markers**, here, since the function of such markers is to describe a proceeding or forward discourse segment. They are the forms which are used by the speaker in order to aware the hearer of “the intended use of an utterance”, i.e. **Basic Markers**, “attitude towards an action or state”, i.e. **Commentary Markers**, or “meta-comment on the structure of discourse”, i.e. **Discourse Management Markers**, that is going to be conveyed by the following discourse segments (Fraser, 2009, p. 892-3).

As it was stated before, Fraser (2009) divides Discourse Management Markers into **Discourse Structure Markers**, **Topic Orientation Markers**, and **Attention Markers**. Also, he separates Topic Orientation Markers into four subtypes of markers which are used in order to **Return to a New Topic**, **Add to or Continue with the Present Topic**, **Digress from the Present Topic** and **Introduce a New Topic**.

Below, the subtypes of Cathaphoric Markers are exemplified:

(17) **Cathaphoric Markers:**

- A) **Basic Markers:** *Pišnæhâd midæhæm* ‘I suggest’, *Tosie mikonæm* ‘I advise’, *Xâheš mikonæm* ‘Please’
- B) **Commentary Markers:** *Dær hæqiqæt* ‘In fact’, *Mote læsefâne* ‘Unfortunately’, *æhtemâlæn* ‘Possibly’,
- C) **Discourse Management Markers:**
 - a) **Discourse Structure Markers:** *Dær næhâyæt* ‘Ultimately’, *Bæ?d* ‘Next’, *Dær æbteda* ‘First’
 - b) **Topic Orientation Markers:**
 - 1) **Return to a New Topic:** *Qæblæn-æm goftæm* ‘I previously said’, *Hæmântori ke ærz šod* ‘Returning to what is said before’, *Hæmântor ke gofte šod* ‘As it was said’
 - 2) **Add or Continue with the Present Topic:** *Dær ædâme* ‘Continuing’, *Dâštæm migoftæm* ‘As I was saying’, *ælavæ bæ æân* ‘Added to that’
 - 3) **Digress from the Present Topic:** *Râsti* ‘By the way’, *Be hæ ær hâl* ‘Anyway’, *Tu pærântez* ‘Parenthetically’
 - 4) **Introduce a New Topic:** *Mozu?i ke emruz tofiq peidâ kærðæm xedmæt-e šomâ ærz konæm* ‘The new topic that I want to talk about’, *Mozu?-e bæ?di ke mixâm dær moredeš tozih bedæm* ‘The next topic that I want to explain about’, *Væ æmâ* ‘But’
 - c) **Attention Markers:** *Xânom-hâ va æqâyân* ‘Ladies and gentlemen’, *Tævæjoh dâšte bâšid* ‘Attention!’, *Hâlâ* ‘Now’

The second type of PPMs is **Conjunct Markers**. They are called *Conjuncts* or *Connectors* by Brinton (2008), since their role is to connect two pieces of discourse segments. Fraser (2009) also calls them *Discourse Markers*, and elucidates that the speakers use these markers in order to “signal the intended relationship between two adjacent discourse segments” (p.893).

Below, the examples of this type are illustrated in (18).

- (18) **Conjunct Markers:** *Væli* ‘But’, *Be hæmin sæbæb* ‘Because of this’, *ælavæ bæ ær* ‘In addition’

And, the third type of PPMs is **Parallel Markers**. Parallel Markers are those forms which carry a message beside the message that is carried by its following discourse segment. Fraser (1996, p. 21) defines it as a marker “whose function is to signal an entire message in addition to the basic message”. Three sub-types were found for this marker in Persian Corpora: **a) Address Form Markers (AFMs)**, **b) Speaker Dissatisfaction Markers (SDMs)**, and **Expectation Markers (EMs)**.

Address Form Markers, as the first sub-type of PPMs, defined in the dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (1997) as “the manner of referring to someone in direct linguistic interaction” (Cited in Akkaya, 2007, p. 3). Two types of AFMs were found in Persian Corpora: **Gender-Specific Address Forms (GSAFs)** and **Gender-Neutral Address Forms (GNAFs)**. Gender-specific Address Forms are those markers which are used in order to address people according to their gender. However, Gender-neutral Address Forms are those markers which are employed in addressing people regardless of their gender.

The second sub-type of PIMs is *Speaker Dissatisfaction Markers*, which are used by the speaker in order to show his/her annoyance of a dissatisfactory situation.

Finally, the third sub-type of PIMs is *Expectation Markers*, which are employed by the speaker in order to show some sort of expectation of an action to happen while they seek God's will, simultaneously. Using this marker, they show their hope towards the compliance of their requests by God.

Below, the subtypes of Parallel Markers are exemplified in (19):

(19) A) **Address Form Markers:**

a) **Gender-Specific Address Forms:** *Xânom* 'Madam', *ʔâqâ* 'Sir', *Doktor* 'Doctor'

b) **Gender-Neutral Address Forms:** *ʔâqâ*, *Bâbâ*, *Bâbâ jun* (They do not have fixed equivalences in English, since their meanings will change according to the contexts in which they are applied.)

B) **Speaker Dissatisfaction Markers:** *ʔæslæn* 'For God's sake', *Mæhz-e rezâ-ye Xodâ* 'For the love of God', *Læʔæti* 'Damned'

C) **Expectation Markers:** *ʔenšâʔællâh* 'God willing', *ʔægær Xodâ tofiq dæhæd* 'God willing', *ʔægær Xodâ bexâhæd* 'God willing'

The following figure taxonomically reports the new typology of PPMs which accounted for the corpora of the present study:

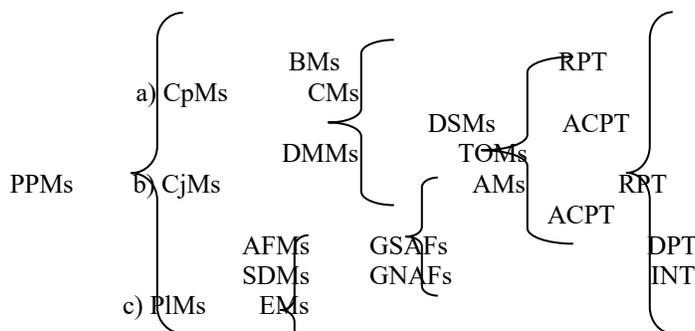


Figure 2: A typology of PPMs

THE DETERMINANTS AFFECTING THE DISTRIBUTION AND OCCURRENCE OF PPMs

Considering the detected Persian Pragmatic Markers, four determinants were found affecting the occurrence of certain PPMs: a) Modes of speech, b) Level of formality, c) Sociolinguistic orientation, and d) Types of genres.

Regarding modes of speech, i.e. written or spoken, there are certain PPMs which are more frequent in one mode of speech. The marker *Bâbâ jun*, *ʔâqâ*, (Address forms to address both males and females), for instance, is specifically used in spoken mode of speech and they are infrequent in written forms.

Also, level of formality is another determining factor which affects the occurrence of PPMs. For example, *Bebin* (It means 'See' and it is an imperative form to attract other's attention) is a marker which is particularly used in informal situations such as a conversation. However, it is rarely used in, for instance, formal speeches.

Furthermore, there are some markers which are socio-linguistically oriented, i.e. some variations of PPMs are frequent in a society due to some social norms. For example, the marker *ʔenšâʔællâh* 'God willing!' and its synonyms such as *ʔægær Xodâ bexâhæd*, and *ʔægær Xodâ tofiq dæhæd* are among those frequent PPMs which are regularly used by Persian speakers who believe in God and expect God to help them achieve their goals.

Finally, there are some PPMs which are generic-specific, i.e. they only occur in particular genres. For instance, the Attention Markers such as *Besiâr xob* 'well!', *Hâlâ* 'Now!', *Tævæjjoh konid* 'Attention!' and so on, only occur in conversation or speech genres and their distribution in research articles in journal genre, for instance, is almost zero. Also, Expectation Markers such as *ʔenšâʔællâh* 'God willing!' and Address Forms such as *Xânom-hâ væ ʔâqâyân* 'Ladies and Gentlemen' frequently occur in conversation or speech genres but they do not occur in research articles in journal genre.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

As it was stated before, the main concern of this research was to study, identify and classify Pragmatic Markers based on Fraser's (2009) model of PMs. In doing so, the following points were revealed.

First, the results indicated that the detected Persian Pragmatic Markers accounted for almost all types and subtypes of PMs in Fraser's classification, i.e. Basic Markers (e.g., *Qol midæhæm* 'My promise'), Commentary Markers (e.g., *Dær hæqiqæt* 'In fact'), Discourse Markers (e.g., *ʔælâræqme* 'Despite of'), Discourse Structure Markers (e.g., *Dær ʔebteda* 'First'), Topic Orientation Markers to Return to a Prior Topic (e.g. *Qæblæn-æm goftæm* 'I previously said'), Topic Orientation Markers to Add to or Continue with the Present Topic (e.g., *Dær ʔedâme* 'To come'), Topic Orientation Markers to Digress from the Present Topic (e.g., *Râsti* 'By the way'), Topic Orientation Markers to Introduce a New Topic (e.g., *Mozuʔ-e bæʔdi ke mixâm dær moredeš tozih bedæm* 'The next topic that I want to explain about'), and Attention Markers (e.g., *Hâlâ* 'Now!').

Second, it was found that there are other PMs presented in Persian Corpora which have not been taken into account by Fraser's framework. To put it in nutshell, the detected markers were of two types: a) Uni-functional Markers such as *ʔensâʔellâh* 'God willing' as an Expectation Marker, *Mæhz-e rezâ-ye Xodâ* 'For the love of God' as a Speaker Dissatisfaction Marker, and b) Multi-functional Markers such as *ʔâqâ* 'Sir' as a Gender-Specific Address Form and *ʔâqâ* 'Guys' as a Gender-Neutral Address Form, and *ʔæslæn* 'In fact' as a Commentary Marker, *ʔæslæn* 'Hey Guys' as an Attention Marker, *ʔæslæn* 'But' as a Topic Orientation Marker to Introduce a New Topic, *ʔæslæn* (To change the topic) as a Topic Orientation Marker to Digress from the Present Topic, *ʔæslæn* 'So' as a Discourse Marker, and *ʔæslæn* 'For the love of God' as a Speaker Dissatisfaction Marker.

The findings of the present study, also, supported the theory of multi-functionality for some of the markers found in Persian Conversation Corpora. The multifunctionality of markers proposed primarily by Schiffrin (2003). Further, there are some researchers in the field (e.g., Erman, 2001) whose main focus has been on the analysis of different functions of specific PMs in different contexts of use, which support the multi-functionality feature of PMs. Erman (2001, p. 1338) takes this feature as granted and points out that "the importance and multi-functionality of Pragmatic Markers in everyday conversation is not a controversial issue".. Hence, PPMs might be multi-functional, i.e. gaining different pragmatic values and functions in specific genres and mode of speech, such as daily conversations.

The results of this study, also, revealed that no single taxonomy is all inclusive and a thorough classification of PMs needs typological (cross-linguistic) studies and mixed research methodologies. Although the main thrust of this study was to propose a more detailed and inclusive classification of Pragmatic Markers, the findings cannot comprehensively account for all languages. Indeed, the concern of this study was to see how the study of Pragmatic Markers in different linguistic contexts helps our better understanding of the field. De fina (1997), for instance, investigates some Spanish marker such as *bien* (well) and concluded that functions of the markers can differ across languages. The diversity of PMs taxonomies (e.g., Gonzalez, 2005; Akkaya, 2007; and Feng, 2008) in literature also justifies that in order to have a typology which can account for other languages, a cross-linguistic investigation of PMs or the combination of variant existing taxonomies is needed. In order to find a much more representative and inclusive classification of PMs other methodologies should be synthesized into the study and the scope of the corpora should be widened into other contexts of use and languages. In this regard Schiffrin (2003) states that marker research in general and pragmatic markers research in particular, utilizes a variety of data resources that allow analysts to focus on markers across contexts, across languages and/or over time.

Finally, a closer analysis of the behavior of PMs demonstrates that distribution and occurrence of PMs in certain linguistic contexts is a function of a number of determinants such as modes of speech, level of formality, sociolinguistic orientation and types of genres; a thorough analysis of which requires another study.

CONCLUSION

Pragmatic Markers have been of paramount importance in pragmatic research since the early adaptation of the terminology. Although a substantial amount of research has been devoted to investigate their use, frequencies, and categorization in English (Erman, 2001; Gonzalez, 2005; Akkaya, 2007; and Fraser, 2009) and other languages like Chinese (an Feng, 2008), we are still far from developing an inclusive typology. Furthermore, more research needs to be carried out to see how the given particles are realized in other unexplored languages and cultures. One such unexplored area is Persian. Considering the above issue, attempt was made first, to define, classify, and taxonomize Persian PMs, drawing upon the latest classification of PMs in literature, i.e. Fraser's (2009). Second, borrowing some terminologies from Akkaya (2007), Brinton (2008) and Fraser's (2009) and coining some new terminologies, a new typology of Persian PMs was introduced based on the markers detected in Persian corpora. Finally, as it was revealed from the findings, markers in general and pragmatic markers in particular seem to have certain lexical, syntactic and though considered as semantically bleached, semantic behaviors, a coherent picture of which requires a thorough scrutiny not only in terms of the use, position and function, but in terms of how and on what basis they are preferred over, say, other types of markers. In other words, the prompt behind most of such studies have been bottom up than psycholinguistically oriented considerations. Hence, until we come up with both a top-down mental mechanism besides the textual behavior of the markers, our knowledge of the PMs use and constraints will not be inclusive.

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THE EFFECT OF SUPERVISORS' FEEDBACK-GIVING TECHNIQUES ON IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY

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ABSTARCT

The drive to learn English among students to compete in a global society demands efforts of schools' supervisors for betterment of teachers' performance within the classroom which is supposedly in connection with their own attitude toward them. Bandura (1997) proposes that undertaking innovating contexts suitable for improvement of rational abilities is strongly based on the aptitude and self-efficacy of teachers. Teachers' beliefs on their perceived efficacy affect their dedication to the school and how they confront the hindrance of their job. The current study has been conducted to identify degree of self-efficacy of Iranian English teachers in general; and uncover the impact of various techniques supervisor employ to provide teachers with feedback, in particular. Additionally, the study had the purpose of obtaining interference of some characteristics of teachers with the way they perceive feedback from supervisor. The required data for the study were collected applying a researcher-made Likert-scale questionnaire consisted of 30 items. The participants were 30 male of female teachers of varying experiences and university degrees belonged to different age groups. The obtained data were analyzed through SPSS software (version 16). The numerical results proved teachers' sense of efficacy was influenced significantly by feedback-giving techniques applied by supervisor and the change was positive. Moreover, interference of variables of gender, age, experience and level of qualifications with sense of efficacy among teachers was noticed.

KEYWORDS: Feedback-giving Techniques; Self-efficacy; Supervisor

INTRODUCTION

It seems not a big claim if teachers are considered as the most influential group of professionals for the improvement of education. Besides, Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, which is indicated as opinions about one's own competence to succeed in certain circumstances of learning or accomplishing performances at prospective levels (Bandura, 1986, 1997), have been represented as a serious factor in performing effectively (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy 1998), in the level of individual commitment (Coladarci 1992), and in eagerness to teaching (Allinder 1994).

Therefore, it could be of value to investigate which strands affect teachers' performance most, particularly the ones which promote their self efficacy. However, the issue of the effect of supervisors' feedback, whether constructive or destructive, raises a question about the degree of that effect on female and male teachers. Also, it needs to be discussed if teachers of different experiences take the comments of supervisors equally. Therefore, the purpose of the researcher is to find out the possible effects of supervisors' feedback-giving techniques on teachers' sense of self-efficacy. Generally, it seems many teachers do not accept whatever they perceive from supervisors and act defensively and think of the attitude of supervisor toward themselves and criticize the supervisor rather than accepting his/her critics as helpful advices. However, it sounds as if supervisors inevitably involve their personal views in their observations and giving feedback they behave as if they are judges rather than mentors who aim at raising the quality of the program.

In spite of the fact that majority of what teachers experience happens within the classroom, it seems their thoughts, and emotions could directly or indirectly be under influence of the environment of their workplace and other professionals like other teachers and supervisors. (Borman & Dowling, 2008; Johnson & Papay, 2011; Kelchtermans & Ballet, 2002; Weiss, 1999) However, the issue of encountering unpredictable situations which affect teachers' thoughts and emotional states could not be denied as well. It seems that the environment is the most influential factor on teachers' interpretations and feelings about their profession. In line with other researches on teacher's self efficacy, the purpose of this study is therefore to investigate the effect of supervisor's techniques in giving feedback as one of the influential factors on teachers' sense of self-efficacy.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

1. Due to the researchers' own experience on receiving different types of feedback from supervisor, each of which has its own effects, it seemed of value to investigate what other researchers have found in terms of self-efficacy and feedback. It could be said that the idea of the role of school leaders or supervisors within the schools or institutes and the way they influence teachers has been of much concern among researchers. Edmonds (1979) believes, "There are some bad schools with good principals, but there are no good schools with bad principals (In Stone, 1992, p. 2). According to him, school leaders have the most influential and essential role in the school's achievements. Having done a research through 44 primary schools in east of the United States, Hoy, Tarter, and Witkoskie (1992) identified role of organizational support significant for effectiveness of school.

Consequently, teachers show more motivation and interest in improving their performance and try to solve their problems with much more determination and deficiency in providing support from the management hinders teachers' sense of self-efficacy and self-confidence (Lortie, 1975).

Self-efficacy

The teachers' belief that they possess the ability to influence student learning and achievement for all students, including those students who may be considered unmotivated and difficult is commonly referred to as teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1997; Guskey, 1987; Hoy, 2000; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978). In a study of teacher efficacy, Yang (2011) stated that:

There are two kinds of locus of control, internal locus of control and external locus of control.

People with internal locus of control believe that their own actions determine the rewards that they obtain. People with external locus of control believe that their lives are not determined by their own behavior but by sources outside themselves-fate chance and luck. Teachers with Internal locus of control are capable of teaching difficult or unmotivated students and make great achievement in their teaching, while teachers with external locus of control are less confident in their teaching ability and believe that the environment has more influence on student learning than their teaching ability. (p.2)

Based on Bandura's definition (1986) it is individual's opinions about their capabilities and skills which could be defined as self-efficacy not their real capabilities and skills. In other words, whatever belief one may have on his/her success and proficiency seems to have either positive or negative impact in person, the former is constructive and the latter is destructive.

Teacher self-efficacy

Preceding researches have also defined the role of sense of self-efficacy in forming students' approaches toward school and the subject. In other words, they claim that the stronger is the teachers' efficacy; students show the more considerable interest to the school and the subject material. In addition to forming students' approach and idea,

teacher efficacy has been related to the level of individual commitment (Coladarci, 1992, cited in Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 9) and eagerness in teaching (Allinder, 1994) demonstrated by the teacher.

As Brookfield (1995) stated effective teachers concentrate on their job, make benefit of various educational strategies, manage their time to teach at a suitable pace and check students' understanding regularly, focus on the objectives of the lesson, and apply humor to keep students involved within the class activities. According to Lowman (1996) efficient teachers are the ones whose first aim is to develop students' learning and make students interested and enthusiastic in learning. He also emphasized that successful teachers show interest and enthusiasm to their job. High teacher self-efficacy has constantly been defined to attribute to positive performances of both student and teacher, and have a constructive effect on educational enhancements (e.g., Ross, 1995; Soodak & Podell, 1996), resulting in the notion that teacher self-efficacy is a vital feature in enhancing and developing educational system and teacher education (e.g., Ashton, 1984; Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000; Ross, 1998; Scharmann & Hampton, 1995; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). However despite all the studies which relate teacher's sense of self-efficacy to students' accomplishments, the fact that school leaders or supervisors are effective in enhancing or lowering teachers' self-efficacy is researcher's main reason for doing researches in this area.

To summarize, high-efficient teachers are more hardworking, enthusiastic, and confident and their classes are much more fruitful. They are approachable and friendly to students.

Feedback

It sounds that teachers' perceptions on feedback they receive from supervisors are somewhat personal; therefore, they must be subjective and changeable with different circumstances and over time. However, the value and prominence of giving feedback with the target of reinforcing and directing the recipient could not be ignored. Feedback aims at promoting the recipients' self-awareness on how they are perceived by others (Herold & Greller 1977). Feedback is to help the recipients modify their perceptions, evaluations, and performances (Atwater & Yammarino 1995).

Some researches have studied how employees' choices to follow feedback are influenced by characteristics of the source of feedback, (Morrison & Vancouver 1993), their rational processes in organizing and making use of feedback (cf. Atwater & Yammarino 1995), and issues affecting raters' truthfulness and incentive (cf. Ilgen, Barnes-Farrell, & McKellin 1993). Along with these studies, some found it necessary to search in the area of issues affect motivation of a supervisor for giving feedback.

It sounds as if through giving feedback supervisors feel like having control over teachers particularly if their feedbacks lead to positive changes in teachers' performance. However, it could be concluded that poor performance of teachers followed by receiving feedback could be a sign of powerlessness for the supervisors.

Generally, the need for authority, attachment and praise is the main reason for getting feedback and benefit from its possible outcomes. It could be said that school leaders whose desire is to achieve authority tend to develop their influence according to the results of the feedback. The ones who seek praise try to gain their subjective goals which may be in line with the goals of their teachers and finally, those who look for attachment consider friendship with teacher prior to other goals.

This proposes that for both supervisors and teachers, no matter they are source or recipient of feedback, and the judgmental nature of feedback could be of more importance than particular aspects of feedback. According to Baron (1988) feedback could be of two aspects: Constructive and Destructive.

Constructive Feedback

Constructive feedback sounds to be a careful well-thought-out one which aims to help the workers to have a more detailed look at their own performance and their effects on others. According to Baron, constructive feedback is supposed to be explicit, thoughtful, and relates employees' poor performance to uncontrollable peripheral issues which inevitably affect the performance. Constructive feedback attributes good performance to internal factors like employees' effort, determination and aptitude. In a study, Martocchio and Dulebohn (1994) stated that new workers

whose simply controlled performance was evaluated and their received feedback was based on that, showed higher level of efficacy in their work and better learning.

Destructive Feedback

Destructive feedback seems to be the one which is delivered in a subjective way and harms feeling of the receiver; hence there must be no chance for the information provided to be considered as a useful and effective one. Doing various studies, Baron (1988) claimed that those who receive destructive feedback have lower degree of self-efficacy on their following responsibilities than those who receive constructive feedback. He added that destructive feedback not only prevents compromise and collaboration with the source but also provides feeling of resentment and distress and lead the recipient to show disagreement, resistance and avoidance.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1) Do supervisor's feedback-giving techniques have any effect on teachers' level of self-efficacy?
- 2) Is the effect of supervisor's feedback-giving techniques on female and male teachers' self-efficacy the same?
- 3) Can supervisors' feedback-giving techniques affect self-efficacy of teachers' of different experiences similarly?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

To gather the necessary data for this research, the researcher selected 50 EFL teachers who worked in an English Institute in Mashhad, Iran. The participants' age ranged from 25-55. They all had bachelors or masters degrees but not necessarily in English. Participants were selected from both novice teachers and experienced ones and were both male and female. They taught different levels from Elementary to Advance. They were asked to answer a questionnaire on self-efficacy. Thirty of the respondents to the questionnaire were observed by the supervisor and received feedbacks from him but in different predetermined ways. After they received comments from the supervisor, they were asked to fill the previous questionnaire again.

Instruments

One questionnaire on self-efficacy was used in this study, but for two times. The questionnaire applied in this study was a researcher-made one based on Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy's self-efficacy questionnaire (2001), Bandura's Teacher Self-efficacy Scale (1997), and Murdoch's Good Teacher's questionnaire (1997). However, the inventory was a researcher-made questionnaire which was localized based on the Iranian EFL teachers' specifications. There were 30 items in the questionnaire which were grouped within five subscales: (1) efficacy to influence decision-making -2 items (2) instructional efficacy-15 items, and (3) disciplinary efficacy-2 items, (4) efficacy to enlist parental and community involvement -3 items (5) efficacy to create a positive school climate-8 items. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated by Cronbach's alpha which was 0.90 and the participants were expected to only mark the questions.

Procedure

In this study it was decided to select participants who were new at work in order to be compared with the experienced ones. Therefore, it could be possible for the researcher to confirm the idea that new teachers feel more positive while they receive feedback from supervisors (Chester & Beaudin, 1996). Regarding the experience, teachers were divided into 3 groups: the ones with less than a year of experience, those who had worked more than a year but less than 5 years and those with more than 5 years of teaching experience. Also, the researcher aimed to discover whether there was any difference between male and female teachers' sense of self-efficacy after receiving feedback from the supervisor.

The required data for this study was collected from teachers through one questionnaire which included questions to which participants were required to indicate their opinions. Later on, during the same term, supervisor observed the classes of some of them randomly (the required number of participants for this study is 30). Normally only the observed teachers remained as the participants of the current study. Having received feedback, the observed teachers were requested to fill in the previous questionnaire which was on self-efficacy, so that the researcher could find if the techniques supervisor manipulated for giving feedback had any effect on teachers' feeling of self-efficacy. The techniques supervisor used to give his ideas to the teachers were as follows: a group of teacher got a short friendly and informal feedback through SMS or E-mail. They received feedback in one or two days after being observed. Some others received feedback in person. All of them received feedback on the following day of being observed. And the third group received supervisors' comments through a form containing some questions marked by supervisor. The forms were given to them within utmost 2 days after being observed. The number of teachers in each

group was 15. And the comments of supervisor fell in the same fields for all of them. The whole process of investigating the level of teachers' self-efficacy and the degree to which it was affected by supervisors' feedback-giving techniques which was the purpose of this study lasted about 3 months because there were some intervals between observations. However, the estimated time required for answering the questionnaire for each participant was less than 10 minutes.

RESULTS

A paired-sample t-test was conducted to calculate the impact of the feedback on teachers' self-efficacy. As it is shown in Table 1, there is a positive significant effect of supervisor's feedback on teachers' sense of self-efficacy (sig<0.05).

Table 1: General Effect of Feedback on Self-Efficacy

		Paired Differences							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Total Self-Efficacy - TSE2	-5.400	12.912	2.357	-10.222	-.578	-2.291	29	.029

There was a statistically significant increase in self-efficacy of teachers from Time 1 which was before receiving feedback (M=103.87, SD=15.909) to Time 2 which is after receiving feedback (M=109.27, SD=21.089), t(29)=-2.291, p<.05 (two-tailed). The mean increase in self-efficacy was -5.4 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from -10.222 to -.578.

2.

3. Table 2 shows that the effect of feedback among teachers who received it through SMS/Email and Formal Form was significant and positive. It seemed that regardless of positivity or negativity of the comments, teachers preferred indirect receiving of feedback (sig<0.05). Sense of efficacy is not very different among male and female teachers and gender by itself does not affect sense of efficacy.

4.

5. Generally, the more experienced the teachers, the higher sense of efficacy they have. Also, the table shows that efficacy of naïve teachers had been reduced after receiving feedback from supervisor, however it was not significant.

Table 2: Feedback-giving Techniques

		Paired Differences							
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					Lower	Upper			
sms/mail	Pair 1 Total Self-Efficacy - TSE2	-8.700	9.821	3.106	-15.726	-1.674	-2.801	9	.021
formal form	Pair 1 Total Self-Efficacy - TSE2	-9.600	12.249	3.874	-18.363	-.837	-2.478	9	.035
Inperson	Pair 1 Total Self-Efficacy - TSE2	2.100	14.019	4.433	-7.929	12.129	.474	9	.647

Also, in this study, participants were grouped into 4 ranges of age in order to find the effect of feedback-giving techniques on teachers' self-efficacy: 20-25, 26-30, 36-45 and above 45. The results showed that receiving feedback from supervisor, self-efficacy of those aged between 20- 25 has reduced, though not significantly. In the other groups, efficacy has enhanced but not significantly. There is a significant effect of age on sense of self-efficacy only among those aged more than 25 and less than 30 (sig<0.05).

Since the observed teachers were of different levels of qualifications, university degree was another variable to be checked to find the effect of which on teachers' self-efficacy. Self-efficacy of teachers with M.A degree was higher than teachers whose university degree was B.A and self-efficacy of teachers of groups enhanced after receiving feedback from supervisor, though not significantly.

To sum up, regardless of positivity or negativity of feedback; it seemed as if feedback had significant effect on teachers' sense of efficacy. As cited in Yang, 2011, in the area of English teaching, there has been not enough attention to teachers, while teachers, apart from the techniques and resources they might use, have significant role in developing English language teaching (Freeman, 1991). The results also revealed a significant role of supervisor in the process of education. However, factors such as age, gender and experience could reduce or enhance this influence. And there seemed more emphasis was required to the role of both teachers and supervisors.

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to find the effect of supervisor's comments on sense of efficacy of Iranian EFL teachers working in English institutes. According to the obtained data of the current study, teachers are influenced by supervisor's feedback-giving techniques, regardless of positivity or negativity of the feedback. As in a study on feedback, Pekkanli (2011) stated:

Communication and the quality of the feedback are important factors because the ways they are presented can determine its acceptance by the teacher candidate. It is claimed that "when supervisors deliver critical feedback to subordinates, it is hoped that the recipients will focus on the content of the message to gain information about ways of improving job performance.(p.1157)

Teachers seemed to be in favor of having their performance being complemented and their negative points ignored by the supervisor. Teachers also seemed to give value to the way they received feedback from supervisor. In other words, even if the comments they received were negative and critical, they were not very affected unless they find the tone of feedback insulting. Therefore, as the results of the study proved, teachers prefer receiving feedback through indirect techniques rather than direct way of meeting supervisors in their rooms.

However, analysis of the obtained data of current study revealed that other factors such as age, gender, years of experience and level of qualification of teachers interfere the way they perceive supervisor's feedback. The results of the current study vindicated that feedbacks provided by supervisor could generally enhance teachers' self-efficacy, though men were more open to the comments and despite the fact that they might have received negative comments, they took the comments less critical. Also, results lead us to consider experience as an effective factor in the way teachers took the comments, regardless of technique through which they received feedback. Furthermore, despite the varying range of age among teachers, obtained data revealed that age does not interfere in the way teachers take comments from supervisor. Also teachers' university degree did not seem to be effective on teachers' self-efficacy after receiving feedback from supervisor.

To summarize, the data analysis revealed that teachers are vulnerable to the way they receive feedback from supervisor. However, there might be different factors which could intensify or decrease the effect of feedback-giving techniques applied by supervisor. All the findings of this study imply that there is a need to have more careful attention to the affairs between supervisor and teachers of an English school and their cooperation might affect teachers' performance and consequently students' improvement.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research was to investigate the effect of supervisor's feedback-giving techniques on EFL teachers in an English school. The whole process of observing teachers by supervisor and providing them with feedback took a semester. The results analyzed by SPSS software (version 16) proved a significant effect of feedback-giving techniques on sense of efficacy among teachers. The idea that teachers are influenced by supervisor's feedback is presented in a study by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007):

Vicarious experiences are those in which the target activity is modeled by someone else. The impact of the modeled performance on the observer's efficacy beliefs depends on the degree to which the observer identifies with the model. When a model with whom the observer closely identifies performs well, the self-efficacy of the observer is enhanced. When the model differs, for example in terms of the level of experience, training, gender, or race, then even witnessing a very competent performance may not enhance the self-efficacy beliefs of the observer.(p. 6)

The results of the current study vindicated that teachers' sense of efficacy was influenced by feedback-giving techniques applied by supervisor. Significant positive change in teachers' self-efficacy after receiving feedback was noticed and the results proved enhancement in self efficacy of teachers. It seems supervisors provide teachers with

feedback with the hope that teachers will merely focus on the content of their comments and make benefit of their comments in order to improve their performance (Pekkanli, 2011). However, findings of this study highlighted the effect of feedback-giving techniques claimed that teachers as recipients of feedback do not merely pay attention to the content of feedback; and the way they receive feedback is of crucial importance, either. Also, based on the findings of this study teachers were not in favor of receiving feedback in person and in privacy of supervisor's room, no matter the content of feedback was positive or negative. It seemed possible to state that indirect techniques applied by supervisor to give feedback were more constructive and approved by teachers.

This study was conducted to investigate the effect of feedback on variables of age, gender, experience, and university degree of teachers for each of which different effect of feedback was noticed. According to the results of the study, there is no significant difference between self-efficacy of male and female teachers after receiving feedback from supervisor. The findings of the current study on general self-efficacy of experienced and inexperienced teachers is in accordance with the study of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2006) who expected that less experienced teachers were of lower self-efficacy. However, the study revealed significant positive effect of experience on self-efficacy of teachers whose experience was between 1 to 5 years. In case of age, teachers who aged 25-30 showed higher self-efficacy after receiving feedback from supervisor. It should be added that supervisor's age is in the same range. And finally, teachers' level of qualification has no significant effect on their sense of efficacy. However, according the gathered data, teachers of higher university degrees seem more efficient than the ones of lower university degrees.

The results of this study, in line with many other studies, suggest more attention to teachers' satisfaction with the school environment which could affect their whole performance within the classroom. It is required to conduct studies on teachers' perceived sense of efficacy in relation to their attitude toward students and parents. Further research is required to find the effect of supervisor's comments on teachers' performance within the classroom. The results of this study invite further exploration into comparing the effect of direct feedback-giving techniques applied in this study with indirect feedback-giving techniques such as providing teachers with constructive messages on school's bulletin board or in school's journal. Furthermore, it would be of desirable value to attempt to find the possible effect of human relationship between supervisor and teachers and whether it affects teachers' performance. Lastly, replication of the current study within public schools could be helpful for the pedagogical purposes.

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LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AS PREDICTORS OF L₂ IDIOMS COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

The present study was an attempt to investigate types of language learning strategies as predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. The participants were 112 male and female Iranian undergraduate B.A. and M.A. students majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, English Translation, and English Literature at the University of Qom; Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch; and Mofid non-profit University. Data were gathered through the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP), an idiom comprehension test, and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and analyzed using multiple regression procedure. The results showed that cognitive and affective learning strategies were the best predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. In other words, cognitive and affective learning strategies together could account for approximately 43% of the total variance in L₂ idioms comprehension. These findings may have implications for language learners, teachers, researchers, syllabus designers, and materials developers. Since cognitive learning strategies were found to be the most commonly used strategies by successful idiom learners in this study, they should be taken into account more in L₂ idiom comprehension. At the same time, teachers should make learners aware of affective and social strategies because they have not received much attention in classrooms.

KEYWORDS: Idioms, idioms comprehension, language learning strategies

INTRODUCTION

Over the last two decades, vocabulary has received a great deal of attention in language learning and teaching. During the nineties, the focus shifted from single words to word strings, phrases, and idioms (Mäntylä, 2004). It is believed that lexicon is not only single words but a dynamic system which includes larger lexical items, language chunks, or word strings (Read, 2000). Consequently, idioms have become important not only to language researchers but also to language teachers. Pollio, Barlow, Fine, and Pollio (1977), and Cooper (1999) emphasize the importance of idioms in foreign language learning and hold that most English speakers produce 10 million novel metaphors and 20 million idioms in their lifetime of 60 years. Surprisingly, Anglin, Miller, and Wakefield (1993) postulate that more than half of the compound entries are idioms. In addition, Levorato (1993) and Levorato and Cacciari (1992) coined the term “figurative competence” to focus on the production and comprehension of idioms. This type of competence refers to the ability to decode and encode figurative expressions.

However, idioms are not defined clearly and comprehensively. This lack of clear and exact definition of idioms causes teachers and learners some difficulty dealing with idioms (Grant & Bauer, 2004). Idioms should be defined more clearly to remove this difficulty. Irujo (1986) defines an idiom as a conventionalized expression whose

meaning cannot be determined from the meaning of its parts. One clear, specific, and systematic definition is Fernando's (1996, p. 38) definition that "conventionalized multi-word expressions are often, but not always non-literal". Lennon (1998) asserts that idioms are the colorful side of language used while we are communicating our thoughts and feelings. They are used to make language much livelier and richer. However, according to Akbarian (2012), studies in psycholinguistics (Gibbs, 1993) and in applied linguistics (Boers & Demecheleer, 2001; Kövecses & Szabo, 1996) have revealed that many idioms are not as arbitrary as they are traditionally thought to be. It means that those learners who are aware of the lexical components of unfamiliar idioms are sometimes able to guess the meaning correctly.

Another concern of the present study is language learning strategies. Over the past decades, a gradual shift from the teacher-centered classes to more learner-centered classes has resulted in more focus on learners and learning. One consequence of this shift is focus on the use of language learning strategies (LLS) by learners and teachers in L₂ learning and teaching (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Cohen and Weaver (1998) suggest that interest in language learning strategies started with the publication of papers mainly concerned with the "good language learner". Consequently, language learning strategies have become an integral part of various theoretical models of language proficiency (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). As Holec (1981) and Wenden (1998) claim, language learning strategies not only enable learners to learn an L₂ effectively and efficiently, but also help develop their abilities of independent and autonomous learning, which are believed to be another important factor leading to successful learning. Oxford (2002) also argues that using language learning strategies makes learning quicker, easier, more effective, and more fun.

Language learning strategies have been variously defined by various researchers such as O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Oxford (1990), and Ellis (1995). One of the most comprehensive definitions, among many others, is proposed by Oxford (1990), based on which learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. Ellis (1995) argues that strategies refer to some kind of mental activity or behavior that can occur in a particular phase of the learning or communication process.

Griffiths (2004) offers language learning strategy theory, which asserts that other things being equal, the strategies which different learners use may account for at least part of their differential success rate. Chamot and O'Malley (1987) argue that research in language learning strategies in the second language acquisition literature has put much emphasis on the patterns of learning strategies used by successful language learners. Then, less successful language learners may benefit from applying the same strategies in their own learning, and successful language learners become better by taking advantage of strategies which are available to them (Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975).

Although idioms are considered as an integral part of each language and many researchers have worked on idioms, there is a paucity of research on the effectiveness of language learning strategies in the comprehension of L₂ idioms. The purpose of the present study is to fill part of the existing gap in this area. It aims to investigate the contribution of language learning strategies to L₂ idioms comprehension.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Idioms

In the past, when language was studied through its structure rather than meaning, idioms were studied on the basis of their form, and form was on the basis of idioms' definition. Idioms were considered as frozen and multi-word expressions that have little or no structural variation. Idioms were also seen as dead expressions because there was no relationship between their meaning and origin. But after the emergence of the functionalist approach to the study of language, the focus shifted from idiom structures to idiom meanings (Mäntylä, 2004).

Cooper (1999) asserts that although L₂ idioms comprehension is very difficult, learning idioms is essential for second or foreign language learners because idioms are used in all forms of discourse. According to Ellis (1997), the knowledge of idioms and the ability to know how to use idioms in a second language are important indicators of language learners' communicative competence.

Moon (1996) and Mäntylä (2004) classify idioms into four major groups according to their level of lexical transparency or idiomaticity: transparent idioms, semi-transparent idioms, semi-opaque idioms, and opaque idioms. Idioms are considered as one of the most difficult areas of L₂ learning for both teachers and learners (see, for example, Cieslicka, 2006; Kövecses & Szabo, 1996; Zarei & Rahimi, 2012). There are different factors involved in idioms comprehension that should be taken into account. However, three major factors influencing idioms

comprehension are proposed by Rohani, Ketabi, and Tavakoli (2012). They are semantic transparency, familiarity, and context. Another factor affecting L₂ idioms comprehension is learners' knowledge of their first language. This factor is also called *transfer*. Irujo (1986) examined whether second language learners use knowledge of their first language to comprehend idioms in the second language. Findings revealed that identical idioms were the easiest to comprehend. Similar idioms were comprehended almost as well, but showed interference from language learners' L₁. Different idioms were the most difficult to comprehend, but showed less interference than similar idioms.

Language Learning Strategies (LLS)

Researchers have started to study language learning strategies since 1960s. The cognitive approach to language learning has affected language learning strategies research (Williams & Burden, 1997). Zarei and Elekaei (2012) argue that the effect of language learning strategies on language learning is undeniable. Many researchers have conducted research on the relationship between language learning strategies and language proficiency. Major findings have revealed that the use of appropriate language learning strategies helps language learners to improve their language proficiency or achieve general or particular language skills (e.g., Akbari & Talebinenezhad, 2003; Bremner, 1999; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Cohen, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987; and Wharton, 2000). As an example, Akbari and Talebinenezhad (2003) conducted a study on the relationship between language learning strategies by Iranian learners of English and their foreign language proficiency. They found a positive relationship between the use of language learning strategies by the subjects and their proficiency.

Brown (2007) points out that some learners are successful and others are not regardless of teaching methods. At the same time, it is undeniable that learners' learning is influenced by their abilities, techniques, or strategies used during learning. There is a high correlation between language learning strategies and successful language learning. However, not all language learning strategies are effective for all second language learners. As Cotterall (2000) argues, learners are different, so they choose different strategies based on their understanding of which strategies can possibly contribute to their learning.

Like the various definitions of learning strategies, there are also different classifications of learning strategies (Bremner, 1999). One of the most comprehensive classifications of language learning strategies was proposed by Oxford (1990) suggesting that language learning strategies contain six categories of L₂ learning behaviors. Based on Oxford's (1990) classification, language learning strategies can be generally divided into two main categories: direct and indirect strategies. Memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies are considered as direct strategies. Metacognitive, affective, and social strategies are indirect strategies. Unlike direct strategies, indirect strategies do not have a direct effect on the target language, but have a significant effect on language learning. Brown (2007, p. 141-142) offers a similar classification.

The present study uses Oxford's (1990) and Brown's (2007) classification because, as Ellis (1994, p. 539), and Rausch (2000, p. 2) claim, this classification is the most comprehensive, multi-leveled, and theoretically well-conceived classification with a hierarchical ordering of language learning strategies.

There is a wide variety of factors influencing the selection of language learning strategies. Among these, biological, cognitive, affective, socio-cultural factors, and also level of proficiency are strongly correlated with the selection of language learning strategies (Ames & Archer, 1988; Lucas, Pulido, Miraflores, Ignacio, Tacay & Lao, 2010; Oxford & Burry-stock, 1995; Vandergrift, 2005).

Language learning strategies used by learners can be assessed through various procedures like interviews, students' diaries, think-aloud procedures, and questionnaires. Among the above procedures, questionnaires have been used mostly for assessing learners' strategies (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Nykios, 1989). One of the most common and standardized questionnaires was developed by Oxford (1990). This questionnaire is called the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

Many studies have also been conducted on both language learning strategies (LLS) and idioms. Cooper (1999) studied the on-line processing strategies used by nonnative speakers of English who were asked to give the meaning of idioms presented in a written context. The findings showed that most of the participants engaged in a heuristic approach to idioms comprehension. Bulut and Celik-Yazici (2004) investigated the strategies used by learners in processing L₂ idioms. They reported that L₂ learners recalled the strategies acquired during first language acquisition

to construct L₂ idiom meanings. Other findings showed that learners made a guess to interpret L₂ idiom meanings and moved from context. Cooper (1999, p. 246) identified a number of other strategies, used by learners to understand the meaning of L₂ idioms, including the following: (the frequency of use is mentioned in parentheses)

- Guessing from context (28% of the time)
- Discussing and analyzing the idioms (24%)
- Using the literal meanings of idioms (19%)
- Using background knowledge (7%)
- Repeating or paraphrasing the idioms (7%)
- Connecting L₂ idioms to L₁ idioms (5%)
- Other strategies like personal discussion and meta-analysis of the idiom (2%)

Cooper's results showed that guessing from context (28%) was mostly used by learners which led to a correct answer 57% of the time. The least used strategy was referring to an L₁ idiom (5%) which led to a correct answer 8% of the time. According to the study, successful strategies respectively were:

- Guessing from context (57% of the time),
- Using the literal meaning (22%),
- Using background knowledge (12%), and
- Referring to an L₁ idiom (8%).

Based on Cooper's findings, it can be concluded that L₂ learners used compensation and cognitive learning strategies the most.

Meanwhile, Mäntylä (2004, p. 87-89) also suggests that there are many techniques that can be used for comprehending and learning idioms:

- Using images and imagination
- Making a relation between meaning and form
- Using actions, objects, and pictures
- Using guessing or inferencing strategies
- Using contextual clues
- Using keyword method

On the whole, despite the relative plethora of research on various aspects of both idioms and language learning strategies, there seems to be a paucity of research on the direct relationship between language learning strategies and idioms. This study aims to bridge part of the existing gap. It attempts to investigate the relationship between language learning strategies and idioms and examine which learning strategies contribute best to L₂ idioms comprehension.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The present study addresses the following research question to fill the above mentioned gaps:

Which language learning strategies are better predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the present study were initially 118 male and female Iranian B.A. and M.A. students majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, English Translation, and English Literature at the University of Qom; Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch; and Mofid non-profit University. The age of the participants ranged from 20 to 30 years old. A general proficiency test (MTELP) was administered to homogenize the participants' level of English language proficiency. After the administration of the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency and taking the results into account, the number of participants was reduced to 112. Six participants were excluded from the study because they had a different level of proficiency.

Instruments

To collect data for the present study and answer the research questions, the following instruments were utilized:

a) *Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP)*: In order to homogenize the participants, the vocabulary subtest of the Michigan test of English language proficiency was administered. MTELP is one of the

popular tests for measuring ESL or EFL learners' level of language proficiency. The test is a three-part, 100-item multiple-choice test containing 40 grammar items in conversational format, 40 vocabulary items requiring the selection of a synonym or completion of a sentence, and reading passages followed by 20 comprehension questions.

b) L₂ idiom comprehension test: In order to assess the participants' comprehension of idioms and their receptive knowledge of idioms, a multiple choice test containing 30 items of L₂ idioms was used. All of the idioms used in this test were selected from the *American Heritage Dictionary of Idioms*.

c) Already established L₂ idiom comprehension test: Since the idiom comprehension test was developed by the researcher, its validity had to be established. To this end, an already established L₂ idiom comprehension test was also used.

d) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Version 7.0: In order to assess the general language learning strategies used by second language learners, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 was used. SILL refers to a self-scoring questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990) based on her strategy taxonomy with 50 strategy items on a five-point Likert scale from 'Never' to 'Always'. This version of SILL is designed to collect information about language learning strategies used by non-native speakers of English who are learning English as a second or foreign language. By the use of this instrument, the following six types of strategies proposed by Oxford (1990) could be examined: memory (items 1-9), cognitive (items 10-23), compensation (items 24-29), metacognitive (items 30-38), affective (items 39-44), and social learning strategies (items 45-50). It is worth noting that a number of studies using SILL for collecting their data have found reliability indexes ranging from 0.91 to 0.95 (Oxford, 1996).

Procedures

The procedures followed in this study were divided into five main stages. First, 118 participants majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language, English Translation, and English Literature at the University of Qom; Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch; and Mofid non-profit University were selected. In the second stage, the 40-item multiple-choice vocabulary subtest of the Michigan test of English language proficiency was used to make sure that there were no significant differences among the participants in terms of their vocabulary knowledge. The time allocated to this test was 45 minutes. Data from those who scored more than one standard deviation above or below the mean were excluded from all subsequent analyses. As a result, the number of participants was reduced to 112.

Next, the L₂ idiom comprehension test was administered; the participants were asked to answer a 30-item multiple choice test of L₂ idioms in 30 minutes. In the fourth stage, an already established L₂ idiom comprehension test was administered to check the validity of newly developed tests. The time allocated to this test was also 30 minutes.

At the end, the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was administered to collect data about types of second language learning strategies used by the participants. They were asked to choose from the five-point Likert scale for every statement from 'Never' to 'Always'. The collected data were organized and prepared for further statistical analyses.

Since the idiom comprehension test was developed by the researcher, its validity and reliability had to be established. To this end, KR-21 formula was used to estimate the reliability of the test. The reliability index of the idiom comprehension test turned out to be 0.84 (see Appendix). A correlation procedure was used to check the validity which the scores of the participants on the idiom comprehension test were correlated with their performance on the idiom comprehension test of which the validity was already established. The validity index of comprehension test turned out to be 0.82 (see Appendix). To analyze the collected data, the multiple regression analysis procedure was used.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

The study sought to investigate which types of language learning strategies are predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. A multiple regression procedure was used to answer this question. To do so, initially a correlation

procedure was run to see the degree of the relationship between L₂ idiom comprehension scores and types of language learning strategies, the results of which are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Correlations among L₂ idiom comprehension scores and language learning strategies

		Idiom comp.	memory	cognitive	compensation	metacognitive	affective	social
Pearson Correlation	Idiom comp.	1.000	.288	.608	.419	.495	-.197	-.004
	memory		1.000	.626	.338	.519	.321	.249
	cognitive			1.000	.674	.659	.127	.137
	compensation				1.000	.398	.061	.189
	metacognitive					1.000	.082	.210
	affective						1.000	.470
	social							1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	Idiom comp.		.001	.000	.000	.000	.018
	memory			.000	.000	.000	.000	.004
	cognitive				.000	.000	.090	.075
	compensation					.000	.262	.023
	metacognitive						.194	.013
	affective							.000
	social							

As Table 1 shows, L₂ idiom comprehension has the highest correlation with cognitive strategies (i.e., .608) and the lowest correlation with social strategies (i.e., -.004). A stepwise multiple regression was run (Table 4.2) which showed that cognitive and affective strategies entered into the regression equation (stepwise criteria: probability of F <= 0.050).

Table 2: Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Cognitive		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Affective		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: idiom comprehension

Based on model summary (Table 3), it can be seen that cognitive strategies and L₂ idioms comprehension share 36% of the variance. Cognitive and affective strategies together share 43% of the variance with L₂ idioms comprehension. In other words, cognitive and affective strategies explain 43% of the total variance in L₂ idioms comprehension.

Table 3: Model Summary^e

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R Std. Error of the R Estimate	Change Statistics				
					Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.608 ^a	.370	.364	5.11253	.370	64.654	1	110	.000

2	.669 ^b	.447	.437	4.81238	.077	15.149	1	109	.000
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- a. Predictors: (Constant), cognitive
 b. Predictors: (Constant), cognitive, affective
 c. Dependent Variable: idiom comprehension

The ANOVA procedure was used to test the null hypothesis that the predictive power of the models is not significant. The results of the ANOVA performed on the model are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: ANOVA^a on L₂ idiom comprehension test

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1689.934	1	1689.934	64.654	.000 ^a
	Residual	2875.173	110	26.138		
	Total	4565.107	111			
2	Regression	2040.773	2	1020.386	44.060	.000 ^b
	Residual	2524.334	109	23.159		
	Total	4565.107	111			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), cognitive
 b. Predictors: (Constant), cognitive, affective
 c. Dependent Variable: idiom comprehension

Based on Table 4, significant results were shown.

To find out how strong the relationship between L₂ idioms comprehension and each of the six predictors is, the standardized coefficients and the significance of the observed t-value for each predictor were checked. Table 5 shows the results.

Table 5: Coefficients^a of language learning strategies

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-4.199	2.639		-1.591	.114
	cognitive	.429	.053	.608	8.041	.000
2	(Constant)	4.636	3.365		1.378	.171
	cognitive	.454	.051	.644	8.969	.000
	affective	-.572	.147	-.280	-3.892	.000

- a. Dependent Variable: idiom comprehension

Based on Table 5, cognitive and affective strategies, among six types of language learning strategies, account for a statistically significant portion of the variance in L₂ idioms comprehension. Cognitive strategies are the best predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension; for every one standard deviation change in the cognitive strategies score, there will be .60 of a standard deviation change in idiom comprehension score. Affective strategies are another predictor of L₂ idioms comprehension; every one standard deviation increase in one's affective strategies score will cause .28 of a standard deviation decrease in one's idiom comprehension score. It can be concluded that cognitive strategies are positive predictors and affective strategies are negative predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in the predictive power of the language learning strategies in idiom comprehension is rejected.

DISCUSSION

The present study attempted to investigate types of language learning strategies as predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. One of the findings of the present study was that cognitive learning strategies were the best predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. The participants employed more cognitive learning strategies for L₂ idioms comprehension compared to other categories of language learning strategies. This result is in line with that of Chamot and O'Malley (1987), Oxford (1990), Lachini (1997), Bremner (1999), and Khabiri and Azaminejad (2009), who argue that the most popular strategies with language learners are cognitive learning strategies. This finding also supports Ehrman and Oxford's (1995) finding that cognitive learning strategies had a significant correlation with the participants' speaking and reading proficiency. In addition, the finding of the study also lends support to Tajeddin's (2004) findings; he studied the relationship between language learning strategies and performance on the cloze test (passage). He found that the cloze had a significant correlation with only cognitive language learning strategies. Meanwhile, it corroborates the findings of Cooper (1999), showing that L₂ learners employed cognitive learning strategies to comprehend L₂ idioms the most. It is also in line with one finding of Mäntylä (2004), which showed that non-native speakers used 3 main strategies to comprehend L₂ idioms. The most frequent strategy was a direct translation equivalent in L₁. The second one was looking for links between literal and figurative interpretations. The third most popular strategy was guessing. The first and second most popular strategies are related to cognitive strategies.

However, this finding of the present study contradicts Klassen's (1994) finding that compensation learning strategies were the most frequently used category by learners. It is also in conflict with Park's (1994) result, which revealed that cognitive learning strategies were minimally used by learners. The finding also differs from that of Vossoughi and Ebrahimi (2003), who found that the most commonly used learning strategies by both monolingual and bilingual groups were metacognitive and social learning strategies. The finding of the present study is in conflict with Rezaei and Almasian's (2007) finding, which indicated that metacognitive learning strategies were the most preferred category of strategies for both high and low creativity groups. Finally, the finding is different from that of Takeuchi (2003), who reported that successful language learners tended to employ more metacognitive learning strategies than other categories.

Another result of the present study was that affective learning strategies were also a significant predictor of L₂ idioms comprehension. However, they had a significantly negative correlation with L₂ idioms comprehension. Moreover, the participants made use of affective learning strategies for L₂ idioms comprehension the least. This finding corroborates the findings of Park (1994), Oxford and Ehrman (1995), Mochoizuki (1999), Wharton (2000), Vossoughi and Ebrahimi (2003), and Khabiri and Azaminejad (2009), that affective learning strategies were used the least. It also provides support for Rezaei and Almasian's (2007) finding that both high and low creativity groups and both high and low proficiency groups used affective learning strategies the least.

There could be two reasons why learners used affective and social learning strategies minimally: first, L₂ researchers may have used some methods to identify language learning strategies that failed to measure learners' affective and social learning strategies properly. Second, successful learners might hesitate to consider these as real strategies (Oxford, 2002). Another possible reason for these results is that many English language teachers were trained in the use of direct strategies such as cognitive strategies when they were younger learners; now they feel that these strategies require more emphasis than affective learning strategies. Consequently, students are taught how to use cognitive strategies and are not well aware of affective learning strategies. Since the participants of the study were Iranian, one possible reason for these findings may be related to the Iranian educational system where classes are more teacher-centered. In these classes, students' affective factors are not taken into account and direct strategies such as translating, analyzing, or reasoning, which are categorized as cognitive learning strategies, are focused on more by teachers and students.

Unlike the above results, this result of the study contradicts that of Sedaghat (2001), who showed no significant correlation between affective learning strategies and attitude. This study is also not in line with some non-L₂ research which indicated that a number of the best learners used affective and social learning strategies (McCombs, 1988). Meanwhile, it is different from Nikoopour and Amini Farasani (2010), who found that from among six categories of language learning strategies, metacognitive learning strategies were used frequently and EFL learners minimally used memory learning strategies.

The observed discrepancy between the findings of the present study and those of the above-mentioned studies could be partially attributed to the following factors. It is worth noting that the cultural differences might be one reason for differences between the results of the present study and the above studies. The participants of the present study were Iranian learners. Iranian learners are rarely given opportunities to raise their awareness of affective learning strategies. They do not feel comfortable discussing their feelings and attitudes with others. Moreover, Iranian

learners are given little (if any) opportunity to take risks. As a result, they tend to learn language through practicing formulas and patterns. This reason lends a support to the present study in which cognitive learning strategies were used the most in L₂ idioms learning.

The differences in the learners' level of proficiency might affect language learning strategy use. In this study, the participants were intermediate level. As a result, they may not have been able to apply indirect strategies such as metacognitive, social, and affective strategies. They may not have been proficient enough to self-monitor and self-evaluate. Sex differences may be considered as another factor contributing to such differences in the findings. Sex differences were not taken into consideration in the present study although they might have affected the learning strategy use and choice.

One of the possible reasons that may justify why learners used cognitive strategies the most and affective learning strategies the least is that learners preferred to use more familiar strategies and had an inclination to avoid trying less familiar ones. On the other hand, in the Iranian learning context, cognitive learning strategies are more focused on at the expense of affective and social learning strategies. In addition, teachers usually provide learners with Persian equivalents of L₂ idioms. It motivates them to use analyzing, reasoning, transferring, and translating strategies. Iranian learners are also trained to summarize, take note, and highlight important information. These strategies are mainly categorized as cognitive learning strategies.

CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to investigate types of language learning strategies as predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. The research question sought to investigate types of language learning strategies as predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. The multiple regression analyses indicated that cognitive and affective learning strategies were significant predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. Participants who made more use of cognitive learning strategies had better performance on the L₂ idioms comprehension test. In other words, cognitive and affective learning strategies together could account for approximately 43% of the total variance in L₂ idioms comprehension. This significant relationship can be accounted for on the basis of two considerations. First, cognitive learning strategies are direct strategies and involve the mental processing of language directly. Language learners need to have the direct mental processing of language to comprehend L₂ idioms. Second, cognitive learning strategies include information processing strategies like analytic, bottom-up skills, and synthesizing skills. They might be more closely related to L₂ idiom learning (Tajeddin, 2004). In addition, based on the results of previous studies and those of the present study, strategies like reasoning, analyzing, translating, and transferring, which are referred to cognitive learning strategies, help learners to comprehend L₂ idioms better.

On the other hand, it can be concluded that affective learning strategies including strategies to control learners' feelings (e.g., I feel relaxed when I cannot understand L₂ idioms) have a significantly negative correlation with L₂ idioms learning. This is probably due to lack of awareness of these strategies on the part of the learners, which is in turn because the educational system focuses on the cognitive and metacognitive learning processes, and ignores the affective and interpersonal factors involved in the learning process. As a consequence, learners do not consider this category of language learning strategies as real strategies leading to successful learning (Rezaei & Almasian, 2007). Another possible reason is teacher-centered classes in which learners are not allowed to employ more affective learning strategies.

In short, it is believed that language learning strategies are a new area of research in English language learning and teaching (for example, Green & Oxford, 1995; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Oxford & Cohen, 1992). More research studies are required to explore the effectiveness of six categories of language learning strategies in different English language tasks.

To sum up, the findings showed that language learning strategies can be significant predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension. At the same time, the findings suggested that there are differences among the various language learning strategies as predictors of L₂ idioms comprehension.

Pedagogical implications

The present study can have implications for learners, teachers, syllabus designers, material developers, and researchers. Teachers can share their experiences and language learning strategies with learners while doing language tasks. They should provide students with a rationale for why they need to learn how to use language learning strategies. They can also integrate different language learning strategies with each other. However, they should begin training students to adopt the most successful learning strategies rather than all possible ones. Learners should be given opportunities to discuss language learning strategies which they use to do different language tasks. They should be provided with language learning strategies and an awareness of how and when to use them to make their language learning better and faster. Particularly, they should be given an awareness of the effective language learning strategies to better comprehend L₂ idioms.

Since the focus has shifted from teacher-centered classes to learner-centered classes, material developers should develop materials which:

1. teach different categories of language learning strategies to learners,
2. specify which language learning strategies may be more effective in doing a particular task,
3. explain how and when language learning strategies can be used,
4. provide tasks and exercises which allow learners to make use of different language learning strategies, and
5. give a degree of freedom to learners and teachers to use their own preferred language learning strategies.

In addition, since many English language materials ignore idioms and/or introduce them in vocabulary lists (Irujo, 1986), materials developers should provide sections and exercises focused on idioms independently. These exercises should motivate learners to apply various effective language learning strategies.

Researchers should also conduct more studies on the effect of language learning strategies on different aspects of language and provide learners, teachers, syllabus designers, and materials developers with information about effective and less effective language learning strategies.

On the whole, since cognitive learning strategies were found to be the most commonly used strategies by successful idiom learners in this study, learners, teachers, researchers, syllabus designers, and materials developers should put more emphasis on this category of learning strategies. For example, they may develop and use activities which promote memory-enhancing strategies (e.g., mnemonic technique). At the same time, teachers, syllabus designers, and materials developer should make learners aware of affective and social strategies because they have not received much attention in classrooms. Activities for teaching L₂ idioms should provide students with different categories of language learning strategies.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are some limitations which are involved in the present study:

1. The participants were both females and males at different ages; therefore, the age and sex of the participants were not taken into account.
2. There were only 120 participants. So, the generalizability of findings must be treated cautiously.
3. The level of proficiency of the participants was limited to intermediate and upper-intermediate levels.
4. The participants' background knowledge may have affected their use of language learning strategies and idiom comprehension; however, it was not the concern of this study.

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Appendix: Tables

Table 3.1. Descriptive statistics for idiom comprehension test

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	KR-21 r
Idiom comprehension	112	2.00	28.00	16.6607	6.41304	41.127	0.84
Valid N (listwise)	112						

Table 3.2. Correlations between newly developed idiom comprehension test and an already established test

		Idiom comprehension	Criterion
Idiom comprehension	Pearson Correlation	1	.824**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	112	112

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

THE STUDY OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN EFL STUDENTS' SELF-CONCEPT AND THEIR ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN EFL CLASSROOMS

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating the relationship between the EFL intermediate students' self-concept and their academic achievement (grammatical knowledge). Accordingly, two groups of university students were selected as the low and high self - concept participants. This was done by their responses given to a questionnaire developed by Marsh (1990), to measure self - concept. After selecting the participants, the researcher utilized a standard Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT), measuring grammatical knowledge in the case of conditional sentences to evaluate some aspects of academic achievement of the participants at the end of the study. By analyzing the data were gathered from the participants. That is, to say the high self- concept students were found to be more inclined to proficient in grammatical aspect of English. It was found that there is a statistically significant correlation between the students self -concept and their academic achievement. Based on the findings of this study and many other studies conducted on this issue, foreign - language teachers should consider academic self - concept as a powerful motivating force that can optimize language learning processes and more importantly consider enhancing student self -concept as one of the primary goals of language education.

KEYWORDS: Self-concept, Academic achievement, Grammatical knowledge

INTRODUCTION

One's self-concept (also called self-construction, self-identity or self-perspective) is a collection of beliefs about oneself that includes elements such as academic performance, gender roles and sexuality, racial identity, and many others. Generally, self-concept embodies the answer to "Who am I?".

Carl Rogers (1959) believes that the self concept has three different components:

- The view you have of yourself (Self image)
- How much value you place on yourself (Self esteem or self-worth)

- Would you wish you were really like (Ideal self)

Psychologist Carl Rogers also paved the way for this concept. According to Rogers, everyone strives to become more like an "ideal self". The closer one is to their ideal self, the happier one will be. Rogers also claimed that one factor in a person's happiness is unconditional positive regard, or UPR, from others. Evidence of UPR in self-concept research is apparent in studies by Benner and Mistry (2007) and Tiedemann (2000). Research has indicated that adolescents whose mothers and teachers had high expectations for their future educational attainment experienced more academic success than those whose adult influences has lower expectations.

Despite a lack of clear distinction among self-related perceptions, current researchers agree that self-concept has a multidimensional nature (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Marsh, Byrne & Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976). Researchers also agree that self-concept is not innate, but rather it is formed through an individual's experiences and interaction with the environment (Bong & Clark, 1999; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Marsh & shavelson, 1985), where "significant others" play an important role (shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976; Sanchez & Roda, 2003). Sanchez and Roda (2003) defined self-concept as a component of human personality development.

An important theory related to self-concept is the self-categorization theory (SCT), which states that the self-concept consists of at least two "levels," a personal identity and a social identity. In other words, one's self-evaluation relies on both one's self-perceptions and how one fits in socially. The self-concept can alternate rapidly between the personal and social identity. Research by Trautwein et al. (2009) indicates that children and adolescents begin integrating social comparison information into their own self-concept in elementary school by assessing their position among their peers. Gest et al.'s (2008) research findings reveal that peer acceptance has a significant impact on one's self-concept by age 5, affecting children's behavior and academic success. Both of these research examples demonstrate the social influences on a person's self-concept.

Academic Self-concept (ASC) refers to the personal beliefs someone develops about their academic abilities or skills. A person's ASC develops and evolves as they age. Some research suggests that ASC begins developing in early childhood, from age 3 to 5, due to parental/family and early educators' influence, while other research contends that ASC does not develop until age 7 or 8, when children begin evaluating their own academic abilities based on the feedback they receive from parents, teachers and their peers.

There are a variety of social factors that contribute to development of an ASC and developing a positive ASC has been related to people's behaviors and emotions in other domains of their life, influencing happiness, self-esteem, and anxiety levels to name a few. Due to the significant impact ASC has on a person's life, it has been argued that educational systems should foster positive self-concept development in children. These research findings are important because they have practical implications for parents and teachers. Research indicates that parents and teachers need to provide children with specific feedback that focuses on their particular skills or expressed abilities in order to increase ASC. Other research suggests that learning opportunities should be conducted in a variety of mixed-ability and like-ability groupings that down-play social comparison because too much of either type of grouping can have adverse effects on children's ASC in the way they view themselves in relation to their peers.

Academic self-concept has been shown to be an important affective variable that has a reciprocal relation with academic performance in a large number of studies (Guay, Marsh, & Boivin, 2003; Marsh, Hau, & Kong, 2002). Many researchers have reported a positive correlation between student academic self-concept and performance in the language learning class (Liu, 2008; Marsh, Relich, & smith, 1983; Muijs, 1997).

Ireson, Hallam and Plewis (2001) reported that ability grouping in English setting fostered the English self-concept of lower-performing students and lowered the English self-concept of higher-ability students, whereas the grouping practice in mathematics and science settings had no effect on the corresponding academic self-concepts. Liu, Wang, and Parkins (2005) established that the academic self-concept of lower-performing secondary students was lower than that of their higher-ability counterparts immediately after being grouped. However, three years later, these students had a more positive academic self-concept than their high ability peers, while a more pronounced decline in academic self-concept was found for highly able students.

Consistent findings were reported in another study by Kulik and Kulik (1992) that the effects of ability grouping on student' self-concept are negligible overall. However, they also concluded that homogeneous grouping tends to have slightly positive effect on below-average students and students and slightly negative effect on high-group students.

Various studies have examined the effects that success and failure can have on an individual's self-concept. Individuals often form their self-concept based on past experiences of success or failure, attributing the outcome to their own personal worth. By doing this, individuals can commit the fundamental attribution error. In this case, the error may arise when the person falsely believes that a specific aspect of who they are determined the positive or negative outcome. By attributing a negative outcome to oneself, self-concept can be unnecessarily harmed. However, attributing positive outcomes to oneself can increase self-concept. These attributions can even have an effect on self-perception, achievement behaviors in the future, and expectancies. Austin and Vispoel (1998) found strong links between where an individual attributed success or failure and, specifically, musical self-concept.

Changes in self-concept can be mediated and predicted by various factors. One important factor in academics is evaluation of performance by peers, or peer academic reputation (PAR). Gest, Rulison, Davidson, and Welsh (2008) found evidence for the predictive ability of PAR with regard to students' in upper grades academic self-concept. If a student has a reputation for success or failure in the academic setting, the student may develop a negative self-concept. This shows that it is may not only be the actual success or failure that has an effect, but may also be the secondary effects of poor academic reputation among peers that influence students' self-concept.

Liu and Wang (2005) suggested that student' academic self-concept tends to decline from early to mid-adolescence as this can be a difficult phase of self-questioning and adjustment. A similar finding was obtained by Marsh (1989), who suggested that self-concept reaches its lowest point in middle adolescence. However, he also found that self-concept increases through early adulthood. Guay et al. (2003) contended that as elementary students grow older; their academic self-concept becomes more stable.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Self-concept research has attracted the interest of researchers in various disciplines because numerous research studies conducted over the past decades have suggested that academic self-concept and academic performance are interrelated. Some studies have shown that academic self-concept functions as a significant predictor of students' academic performance (Choi, 2005; Liu, 2008; Muijs, 1997). Other studies intended to examine the causal relationships between the two variables (Barker, Dowson, & McInerney, 2005; Helmke & van Aken, 1995; Marsh, Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller, & Baumert, 2005). Most studies have supported the contention that academic self-concept and achievement have a reciprocal relationship. Changes in one variable may lead to changes in the other.

The academic achievement/self-concept relationship has been reported in numerous studies by Marsh and his colleagues (Marsh et al., 1988; Marsh & Yeung, 1998; Marsh et al., 2001). Nevertheless, they rarely focused on the relation between English self-concept and language-related ability. Rather they were more interested in examining the relationship among self-concepts in specific content areas and different academic achievement measures, e. g., math achievement and English achievement, to see how they correlate with each other. As an example, Marsh et al. (1983) found that math achievement had a higher correlation with math self-concept (.55) than with self-concept in reading (.21). They also found a correlation of .22 between reading achievement and self-concept in the corresponding area. In a study conducted by Liu (2008) in the Taiwanese EFL context, there was a correlation of .41 between student English self-concept and language proficiency, with a higher correlation (.46) for females than for males.

Byrne (1988) noted that social comparison plays a vital role in the development of self-concept. Students are inclined to form their perceptions of selves using their classmates or schoolmates as a reference group. Trautwein, Ludtke, Marsh, Koller, and Baumert (2006) suggested that academic self-concept may differ as a function of not only their own academic achievement but also the achievement of their reference group. Researchers found that academic self-concepts of students may be enhanced when they are placed in a high-achieving group and "assimilation effects" occur in this case (Marsh, Kong, & Hau, 2000; Trautwein et al., 2006). To the contrary, when students' academic self-concepts are negatively affected by the above-average performance of their high-achieving group members, "contrast effects" occur. Marsh and his collaborators (Marsh, 1991, 1994., Marsh & Hau, 2003; Marsh & Parker, 1984) proposed the Big-Fish-Little-Pond effect (BFLPE) to explain these frame-of-reference effects and contended that academic self-concept is positively correlated with academic performance; however, the average ability level of students' peers in class or school can have a negative effect on the formation of specific academic self-concepts.

According to the self-concept model posited by Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976), the construct was hierarchical and multifaceted in nature such that self-concepts in specific domains such as English, math, history, and science are the subcomponents of one general academic self-concept. Considerable studies have been conducted to test and support the multidimensionality of the construct (Lau, Yeung, & Jin, 1998; Marsh, 1994; Marsh, Byrne, & Shavelson, 1988; Marsh, Relich, & Smith, 1983).

Since it has become a universal practice to group college students for English instruction, it is important to conduct more in-depth investigation into the variables that affect student learning in the homogeneously grouped setting. The current study analyzes one of the important affective factors, the academic self-concept, which has been shown to be correlated with foreign-language achievement, and examines whether and how it changes in ability-grouped classes' context. The objective of this research is to provide foreign language instructors with more information about the role of this variable in foreign-language performance with the hope that this can benefit student learning in the English setting in the long run.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main question to be addressed in this research is as follow:

Is there any correlation between EFL students' self-concept and their academic achievement in EFL classrooms?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The purpose of the present research is to investigate correlation between EFL students' self-concept and their academic achievement in EFL classrooms. The result will confirm one of the following hypotheses:

H₁: There is correlation between EFL students' self-concept and their academic achievement in EFL classrooms.

H₀: there is no any correlation between EFL students' self-concept and their academic achievement in EFL classrooms.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

To gather the necessary data for the study an intact EFL intermediate class of about 30 students were selected. The age range and the sex of the students as the moderator variables were not accounted for. In terms of their English proficiency all the participants were homogeneous. This is determined by conducting a pre-test on the grammar. The test was given to the participants to check their knowledge of grammatical structures.

Instrumentation

In This study, Marsh Academic self-concept questionnaire and Oxford Placement Test (OPT) are as measures of students' self- concept and English language proficiency respectively. The questionnaire was developed by Herbert Marsh (1990), and includes 30 questions about academic self-concept which perceived by students themselves. The questionnaire items were selected from the established instrument guided by a general understanding of the students' and their cultural background knowledge. The original academic self-concept questionnaire (ASCQ) consisted of two 15 items subscales: academic confidence (15 items), and students' academic effort (15 items). The academic confidence (AC) subscale assessed students' feeling and perceptions about their academic competence in general. The academic effort (AE) subscale assessed students' commitment to and involvement and interest in school works. The questionnaire items are presented in Appendix.

The next instrument was OPT. It was a Standard English language test which was administered to check the grammatical knowledge of students. It was administered to determine the proficiency level of the students. The OPT was administered by two university EFL professors to check for the homogeneity of the General English proficiency level of the participants. This was done to insure that all the students participating in the research were at roughly the same level of English Language proficiency. The reliability of the test was calculated afterwards which happened to be 0.89. All the students were administered the proficiency test in a single testing session. The 30 items test included grammatical questions about conditional sentences.

Procedure

The study was conducted at the beginning of the term. In order to determine the participants' level of language proficiency, an OPT was administered. Right from the beginning of the course, the self –concept questionnaire was distributed among a group of 65 students to select the required participants of the research. The participants were required to fill the questionnaires out. The questionnaires then were collected for the purpose of analysis.

The purpose of the researcher was to group the participants into two groups, including those who were found to be the students having a high degree of self-concept based on their responses to items in the questionnaire, and those who indicated a low degree of self-concept. That is, the questionnaire was distributed among a population of 65 EFL students taking the same course. From among these students, 15 were selected as the ones having the highest degree of self-concept (HSC) and 15 others as the lowest self-concept (LSC). This was done based on the scores they obtained from answering the self-concept questionnaire.

After dividing the participants into two groups of 15, the researcher who have taught English language as a general course in university, divided the participants into two groups, one of them was control group (LSC) which had not received any teaching of grammatical knowledge in the case of conditional sentences which were the focus of this research as an important part of academic achievement in English language curriculum in Iranian university, and the second class or experimental group(HSC), which they have received teaching about conditional sentences as a part of grammatical knowledge, and after 4 weeks of treatment(teaching grammatical knowledge), the post test was administered. In order to determine if there was a significant relationship between the students' obtained scores on the final exam in the form of OPT and the subjects' level of self-concept determined by the self-concept questionnaire, the researcher calculated the correlation coefficient of the scores obtained on the OPT.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to see if there is a significant relationship between the performance of the students on the OPT and their academic self-concept, the researcher run a t-test on the results obtained by the high self-concept students on the OPT and that of the low self-concept subjects on the same test. The following table provides the results obtained from the t-test.

T-Test

Tables 1 & 2: one sample t – test results on the OPT

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OPT,LSCA= Placement Test Low Self-Concept A	15	7.5000	3.59092	.80296
OPT,LSCB= Placement Test High Self-Concept B	15	15.9000	2.22190	.49683

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
OPT,LSCA= Placement Test Low Self-concept A	9.340	19	.000	7.50000	5.8194	9.1806
OPT,LSCB = Placement Test High Self-concept B	32.003	19	.000	15.90000	14.8601	16.9399

Based on the results given in table one, the mean and the standard deviation of the scores obtained from the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) given to the low self- concept students were 7.50 and 3.59. The mean and the standard deviation for the high self - concept group on the same test (OPT) were 15.90 and 2.22 respectively. At the 95% confidence interval of difference one can conclude that as P is less than 5% ($P < .05$) $p = 0$, the difference between the means obtained from the t-test is statistically different. That is to say, the means of the OPT given to the low and high self-concept students were 7.50 and 15.90 respectively. There is a difference value of 8.40 of the mean of the two groups on the same test. Based on the data provided in tables one and two, it can be concluded that it is highly likely that the students' self-concept influences their grammatical knowledge in the form of conditional sentences. To see if there is a significant correlation between the participants' self-concept and their proficiency in their English classes Pearson correlation statistics was also run on the results obtained from their responses to the items in the questionnaire distributed among them and their scores obtained from the OPT. Based on the results represented

in the following tables , one can come to the conclusion that there is a high correlation between the participants self - concept and their performance on the OPT. Put it another way, the correlation is significant at the %5 level. One can compare the results given in the following two tables to come to the same conclusion provided above.

Tables 3 & 4: Correlations between the students' self-concept and their academic achievement

Correlations

		LSCA=Low Self -concept	OPTLSCA= Placement Test Low Self -concept A
LSCA=Low Self -concept	Pearson Correlation	1	-.192
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.417
	N	15	15
OPTLSCA= Placement Test Low Self -concept A	Pearson Correlation	-.192	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.417	
	N	15	15

Table three: **Correlations**

Correlations

		HSCB=High Self -concept	OPTLSCB= Placement Test High Self -concept B
HSCB=High Self -concept	Pearson Correlation	1	-.497*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.026
	N	15	15
OPTLSCB=Placement Test High Self -concept B	Pearson Correlation	-.497*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.026	
	N	15	15

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

These findings are in part in line with the findings of Liu (2008). He found that the more successful learners regarding the academic achievement had higher self - concept than less successful ones in academic achievement tasks. To sum up concerning the main question raised in this study one can be safe to conclude that there is a significant relationship between self - concept and academic achievement in EFL classrooms.

In the same line many experts believe that one main area of concern should be the attitudes and self-concept of students to learn and use L2. Byrne (1988) noted that social comparison plays a vital role in the development of self-concept. Students are inclined to form their perceptions of selves using their classmates or schoolmates as a reference group. Trautwein, Ludtke, Marsh, Koller, and Baumert (2006) suggested that academic self-concept may differ as a function of not only their own academic achievement but also the achievement of their reference group. Researchers found that academic self-concepts of students may be enhanced when they are placed in a high-achieving group and “assimilation effects” occur in this case (Marsh, Kong, & Hau, 2000; Trautwein et al., 2006). To the contrary, when students' academic self-concepts are negatively affected by the above-average performance of their high-achieving

group members, "contrast effects" occur. Marsh and his collaborators (Marsh, 1991, 1994., Marsh & Hau, 2003; Marsh & Parker, 1984) proposed the Big-Fish-Little-Pond effect (BFLPE) to explain these frame-of-reference effects and contended that academic self-concept is positively correlated with academic performance; however, the average ability level of students' peers in class or school can have a negative effect on the formation of specific academic self-concepts.

The findings of the present study are yet in line with another two studies carried out by Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976); the construct was hierarchical and multifaceted in nature such that self-concepts in specific domains such as English, math, history, and science are the subcomponents of one general academic self-concept. Considerable studies have been conducted to test and support the multidimensionality of the construct (Lau, Yeung, & Jin, 1998; Marsh, 1994; Marsh, Byrne, & Shavelson, 1988; Marsh, Relich, & Smith, 1983).

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This study aimed at investigating the relationship between self - concept and academic achievement of the intermediate EFL students. For this purpose, two groups of intermediate EFL Persian students were selected as the participants of the study. There were fifteen students in low self- concept group and 15 in high self - concept group. Their level of self- concept was determined based on their responses given to a self - concept scale questionnaire developed by Marsh (1990). Based on the results obtained from the participants' responses to the self-concept questionnaire and their performance on a standard oxford placement test, it was concluded that there was a high correlation between the participants self - concept and their academic achievement. Based on the findings of this study and many other studies conducted on this issue, foreign - language teachers should consider academic self - concept as a powerful motivating force that can optimize language learning processes and more importantly consider enhancing student self -concept as one of the primary goals of language education. However, the researchers do not claim the results obtained from this study are absolutely conclusive. Put it another way, as people come to learn a new language in a foreign context, not only their self-concept may influence their academic achievement in general and their grammatical knowledge in particular but also many other factors including their motivation, attitudes towards the language they are going to learn, the context in which they are going to master the new language are extremely influential in this regard. So the story of second language acquisition is interestingly comparable to the story of the elephant which was supposed to be described by a group of people in a dark room. And they all came to different descriptions of the whole body because they just touched parts of the body. The same story still is the case for SLA. As it is the case with almost all studies done in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, this study is not free of limitations. That is to say, because of the eluding nature of self - concept which is defined differently by different people one cannot claim to provide all inclusive criteria to list the problems with which EFL teachers wish to come to a conclusion in evaluating self - concept as an approach in EFL contexts. Therefore, the authors of this paper have not intended to come to an absolute conclusion about the perceived problems with which EFL teachers might face in using self – concept's measurement in their real classes. ALL in all, it is hoped that this survey be of use for all colleagues. All defects of this paper are of ours. That is, no fault is to the participants in this study.

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Appendix

1. English is one of my best subjects.
2. I am hapless in English classes.
3. People come to me for help in most schools, subjects.
4. I often need help in English.
5. I look forward to English classes.
6. I am too stupid at school to get into a good university.
7. I look forward to English classes.
8. I do badly on tests that need a lot of reading ability.
9. If I work really hard I could be one of the best students in my school; year.
10. I have trouble understanding anything with English in it.
11. Work in English classes is easy for me.
12. I get bad marks in most school subjects.
13. I enjoy studying for English.
14. I am not very good at reading.
15. I learn things quickly in most school subjects.
16. I do badly in tests of English.
17. English is one of my best subjects.
18. I am stupid at most schools subjects.
19. I get good marks in English.
20. I hate reading.
21. I do well in tests in most school subjects.
22. I never want to take another English course.
23. I get good marks in English.
24. I have trouble with most school subjects.
25. I have always done well in English.
26. I have trouble expressing myself when I try to write something.
27. I am good at most school subjects.
28. I hate English.
29. I learn things quickly in English classes.
30. Most school subjects are just too hard for me.

H.W.Marsh, 1999.

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USING MECHANICAL TECHNIQUES VERSUS DISCUSSING YOUR FEELINGS WITH SOMEONE ELSE VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES ON IRANIAN'S READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to shed light on the issue of vocabulary strategy training. We have investigated the effect of Using Mechanical Techniques as a direct vocabulary learning strategy and Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else as an indirect vocabulary learning strategy instruction on the development of lexical knowledge of Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) students. To reach the goal of the study, two groups of EFL language learners at pre-intermediate language proficiency level were randomly assigned into two groups of A and B. The group (A) was taught vocabulary through Using Mechanical Techniques as a direct vocabulary learning strategy and the group B was taught Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else as an indirect vocabulary strategy for developing their vocabulary storage in reading comprehension. Data analysis was conducted through samples t-test statistics. It demonstrated that the group A outperformed the group B. To summarize, teachers are encouraged to implement using Mechanical Technique vocabulary strategies because of their easy and effective application particularly at the early stages of vocabulary learning.

KEYWORDS: Vocabulary Learning Strategy, Using Mechanical Techniques Strategy, Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else Strategy

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is absolutely vital to language as it labels objects, actions, ideas, emotions with which people can convey the intended meaning. Calls for helping learners improve the way they go about learning vocabulary have been made on a number of grounds. Sokmen (1997: 225) argues for helping learners learn how to acquire vocabulary on their own, noting that it is "not possible for students to learn all the vocabulary they need in the classroom". Second language (L2) acquisition depends crucially on the development of a strong vocabulary. In the second language acquisition (SLA) sub-discipline known as second language vocabulary acquisition (SLVA), researchers have

focused their attention on the need for second language learners to optimize their vocabulary knowledge (Singleton, 1999; Schmitt, 2000).

In order to communicate well in a foreign language, students should acquire adequate words and should know how to select and perform them accurately. Word knowledge makes a learner to deeper and better understanding meaning of a concept. Word knowledge is an essential component of communicative competence and it is important for both production and comprehension in a foreign language. (Reese, 1984) stressed the importance of vocabulary learning in second language acquisition. Unlike native speakers, second language learners (L2) go through a more conscious and demanding process of acquisition of vocabulary. They experience lexical gaps, the words they read which they simply do not understand or concepts that they cannot express as adequately as they could in their first language (L1). Sokoli, Stravoli (2006) believes vocabulary learning to be a vital part of each student's life.

To facilitate vocabulary learning, EFL learners gear a number of strategies that share some traits with the overall language learning strategies; however, some others remain very characteristic of vocabulary learning alone (Coady, 1997; Zimmerman 1998; Nation, 2001; Chamot, 2001; Thornbury 2002). Cunningsworth (1995: 38) regards helping learners develop their own vocabulary learning strategies as "a powerful approach", which can be based on sensitization to the systems of vocabulary, encouragement of sound dictionary skills and reflection on effective learning techniques. Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are a part of language learning strategies which are receiving more attention since the late 1970s and their investigation has advanced our understanding of the processes learners use to develop their skills in a second or foreign language. Language learning strategies have received much attention in the studies that were conducted by Chamot (1987), Cohen (1998) and Oxford (1990).

According to Schmitt (1997), vocabulary learning strategies are even more important in second language learning with the increasing nature of vocabulary acquisition and its emphasis on large exposure to the language. In order to learn and use English efficiently, learners need to expand proper learning strategies for long-term learning. Language learning strategies are directly or indirectly connected to the self-direction to a great extent. They are seen as the conscious choices of learners to solve problems and organize knowledge and skills (Cohen, 1998; McDonough, 1999), and according to Oxford (1990, 2001), they are often said to contribute to autonomous learning. Wenden (1991) believes that one of the characteristics of autonomous learners is their ability to apply learning strategies properly and independently. Furthermore, utilization of vocabulary learning strategies has been found to affect students' performance in language learning (Sarani and Kafipour, 2008).

DIRECT AND INDIRECT VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGY

There are many and various classifications of language learning strategies. O'Malley et al. (1985) declared the use of 24 strategies employed by learners of English as a second language in the United States. They divided these strategies into three main categories: "Metacognitive", "Cognitive", and "Socio-affective" strategies. In fact, there is another accepted classification as suggested by (Oxford, 1990). She distinguished between the direct and indirect strategies. In L2 lexical teaching and learning, there are two types of vocabulary learning: Indirect learning and direct learning. Indirect or incidental learning is defined as the type of learning that is a byproduct of doing or learning something else; whereas, direct or intentional learning is defined as being designed, planned for, or intended by teacher or students. In terms of vocabulary learning, indirect learning always means the approach of learning vocabulary through texts, working on tasks or doing other activities that are not directly related to vocabulary. In contrast, the direct learning always focuses on vocabulary itself, and combines with all kinds of conscious vocabulary learning strategies and means of memorizing words. Vocabulary form, collocation, parts of speech are mainly the results of incidental learning, while the sense of a word, meaning symbolizing and innuendo between words need intentional learning (Nation, 1990).

VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION

The role of vocabulary in reading comprehension is a complex one. To understand text meaning, one must be able to decode the printed message (Adams 2004, Alderson 2000, Day & Bamford 1998). The presence of high density of unknown words in a text may seriously hinder comprehension (Curtis 1987, Nation, 2001). Fast and efficient word recognition, word encoding and lexical access are necessary for a higher level of meaning construction (Adams

2004, Just & Carpenter 1987, Lesgold & Perfetti, 1978). The main difference between skilled and less skilled readers lies in slower and inefficient lexical access and semantic processing (Bernhardt 2005, Grabe & Stoller 2002, Nassaji 2003, Segalowitz et al. 1991).

A number of studies have revealed consistent correlations between vocabulary and comprehension (Laufer 1992a, 1992b, Qian 1999, 2002, Nation 2001). Stahl (2003: 246) contends that studies from readability formulae have 'found that the most important factor in determining the difficulty of a text is the difficulty of the words.' Vocabulary size is thus a strong predictor of reading comprehension. Within the context of L2 research in reading, findings on the reading processes and vocabulary threshold have consistently indicated the importance of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension (Fukkink et al. 2005, Garcia 1991, Koda 1994, Laufer, 1997, Zhang 2000, 2002a, 2002b; see Alderson 2000, Bernhardt 2005, Koda 2005 & Nation 2001, for reviews).

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Research by Coady et al. (1993) with 79 students studying English in a university academic preparation program found that two experimental groups, which had received special training in high frequency vocabulary, achieved better ESL reading comprehension at the end of the experiments than did a control group which had not received such a treatment. The study was carried out to verify the proposition that 'there is a positive and significant relationship between knowledge of high-frequency words and reading proficiency. Based on the results of their study, Coady et al. (1993) argued that special training in the 2000 most frequent English vocabulary items could improve learners' reading proficiency.

Sarani and Kafipour (2008) stated psycholinguistic strategy is the most frequently used strategy for the purpose of retaining new words while current training setting is communicative approach. They stated that the current communicative university training setting which depends relatively little on the requirement to memorize a lot of materials is not followed and practiced correctly by lecturers and students in Iran. Hamzah, Kafipour, and Abdullah (2009) conducted a research study entitled "vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian undergraduate EFL students and its relation to their vocabulary size". They found that Iranian EFL learners are medium users of VLS. However, they discussed that it may be due to the study skills course, they pass in the first semester of their studies. According to them, this course makes freshmen familiar with different learning techniques and strategies in order to have a better learning.

Seddigh and Shokrpur (2012) explored the use of VLS by Iranian medical students and noticed that female students used more VLSs than male ones and the difference was especially noticeable and significant in the case of guessing and note-taking strategies. Their results indicated that guessing and dictionary strategies had the highest frequency usage, while social and study preferences represented the lowest frequency use.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Investigating EFL Iranian learners' vocabulary learning strategies may help in identifying many aspects about their foreign language learning. Additionally, recognizing proficient EFL learners' best practices may help in delineating them for less proficient ones in an attempt to improve their opportunities and overcome their difficulties in learning the foreign language. The focus on vocabulary learning strategies comes from the importance of vocabulary for their language performance. Identifying aspects of EFL Iranian learners' linguistic self-image centers attention on how they generally feel about their language performance and how their feelings empower them in their learning; something which can be of absolute significance for EFL teachers to know of. Recognizing EFL Iranian learners' perceptions of their learning environment may also provide some additional insight for teachers and course designers into how to stand up to its challenges.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Which one of two strategies, using Mechanical Techniques versus Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else Vocabulary Learning Strategies is more effective on developing the Iranian's reading comprehension skill?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The original participants in the current study were 120 EFL university students studying general English course that students of non-English major should pass, from Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University (mostly in the second semester) based on non-random judgment sampling. The age of the participants ranged from 20 to 25. . Both genders were

represented in the classes comprising 30 male and 34 female students, altogether. The participants were all Iranian, Farsi native speakers, homogeneous in respect of nationality, mother tongue and both cultural and educational background. They participated voluntarily in a homogeneity test adapted from Objective Placement Test (Lesley, et al 2005) as a homogeneity test and finally, sixty four students whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean ($M= 30$) were selected. Then they were randomly divided into two groups; group A (18 female and 14 male) received direct vocabulary learning strategy (Using Mechanical Technique), while group B (12 female and 20 male) were taught through indirect (Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else) vocabulary learning strategy.

Instruments

Three instruments were used to measure the variables of this study. Initially, in order to arrive at dependable, reliable and valid measurement of the participants' reading comprehension proficiency, the subjects in the two groups took the Objective Placement Test of Interchange (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005), which was used as a standardized measurement to check the homogeneity level of the subjects in terms of language proficiency. The test contained 40 multiple-choice of vocabulary items. In order to verify the reliability of the test, the researchers selected 40 students from different departments in Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University to participate in test. Calculating the reliability coefficient of the test through KR-21 formula, the researchers found the reliability of the homogeneity test at ($r=.74$).

A second test including also 40 items was administered to both groups at the end of treatment period after ten sessions. This test indicated 40 multiple-choice items of vocabulary achievement test which was developed by the researcher based on the materials taught in the classrooms. The vocabulary items in the test were selected mainly from the new lexical items of reading comprehension texts. The reliability of the test was $r=.89$ based on KR-21 formula. Another instrument was the reading tasks and activities as the course materials which the researchers were afforded to both the group A and group B. These reading tasks and activities were extracted from the *Select Readings* (pre-intermediate level) written by Lee and Gunderson (2002).

Procedure

For collecting the data of this study, 120 Iranian university students from different majors but non English major studying English course from Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University in Iran, were selected. In this study, the treatment period lasted for ten sessions and in both classes the three instruments were administered. On the first session, the students in group A received introduction on *Using Mechanical Technique* and for students in group B *Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else* vocabulary learning strategy was explained in the first session. The instruction was conducted by the corresponding researcher (teacher) for both classes. The next sections introduce the treatment period of the two strategies briefly.

Using mechanical techniques

To remember what has been read, according to Oxford (1990), mechanical techniques were adjusted as a helpful technique in manipulating, flashcards, with the new word written on one side and the definition written on the other, are both familiar. To contextualize a new expression and get writing practice, learners wrote the new expression in a full sentence on a flash cards. Flashcards were moved from one pile to another depending on how well the learner knew them. Separate sections of the language learning notebook were used useful for words that have been learned and words that had been not reviewed by the learners. Following Oxford (1990), recommendations, the researcher asked students to read and practice the words when they had some free time. For example, they were required to read them on the bus, in lines, etc.

Discussing your feelings with someone else

According to Oxford (1990), language learning is difficult, and learners most of the times need to discuss this process with other people. So learners like to speak and negotiate their daily events with other people. In this study, students used diaries to understand and kept track of their thoughts, attitudes, and vocabulary learning strategies, and if they felt at ease enough, they shared their diary entries during group discussion by dividing learners in several groups in class once or twice a week. Discussions of feelings could also took place outside of class and continued it with a friend, a family, and so on (Oxford, 1990).

RESULTS

After the treatment, to find out the answer of research question, that is, the effectiveness of Using Mechanical Techniques and Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else vocabulary learning strategies on reading comprehension of the two groups and compare their probable improvement, both groups took part in the vocabulary and reading comprehension test as posttests after completing the course. In this way, the study compared the role of the Using Mechanical Techniques versus Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else vocabulary learning strategy through using independent-samples t-test, in order to find out whether these strategies influence vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL university students at the pre-intermediate level of English reading proficiency or not. Therefore, an independent sample t-test analysis was run on the mean score of the two groups. The results of t-test analysis for the effect of these two strategies in reading comprehension as an independent variable indicated statistically significant differences that are shown in Table 1. The data obtained through post-test (Table 1) were analyzed (using SPSS 11.5 software) in different steps.

Table 1: result of the t-test (of both groups)

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	df	p
A	32	35.42	1.98	5.89	49	.00
B	32	30.64	2.91			

The results of the post-test in the two groups compared through t-test showed that the mean scores of group A ($M = 35.42$, $SD = 1.98$) was significantly different from group B ($M = 30.64$, $SD = 2.91$). In other words; group A outperformed group B on the post-test. Also, critical t ($t = 2.000$) was less than observed t ($t = 5.89$) based on $df = 49$. Therefore, there was a significant difference between direct and indirect group in developing vocabulary learning at pre-intermediate level. In other words, Using Mechanical Techniques strategy was more effective than Discussing Your Feeling with Someone Else in vocabulary improvement of Iranian EFL learners at intermediate level.

According to the findings of the study during the research, the students were satisfied in applying and using Mechanical Techniques strategy which was used more by the participants in Group A. In comparison to the students in Group A, the students in Group B who were taught by Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else could not considerably develop their vocabulary learning.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of two vocabulary learning strategies; namely, Using Mechanical Techniques and Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else on reading comprehension performance of the Iranian EFL students. To achieve this goal, the researchers conducted a study, consisting of 64 participants from two classes of male and female. The results of the t -tests demonstrated statistically significant difference between the group (A) and group (B) in reading comprehension achievement post-test of the two groups at the end of instruction. It indicated that the Using Mechanical Techniques vocabulary learning strategy is more effective in improving EFL vocabulary storage and reading comprehension achievement of university students with pre-intermediate proficiency.

Stemming from the above conclusions, this study identified a number of implications beneficial to pedagogical contexts, especially the ones in which EFL learners and teachers are involved. Teachers should help students in selecting the most appropriate strategy for developing skills. Using Mechanical Techniques strategy is suitable and effective in first stages of developing vocabulary of EFL learners as compared to Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else strategy because of easy application as we experienced it in this study. The results indicated that generally there is a great difference between the learners who are instructed to use Using Mechanical Techniques strategy and Discussing Your Feelings with Someone Else vocabulary learning strategy.

Given the impact of Using Mechanical Technique vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension, vocabulary learning strategy should receive much more attention in L2 classrooms. To do so, teachers can use materials including graded readers, word lists, vocabulary cards, definitions, and all pedagogically sound vocabulary activities to expand EFL learners' vocabulary storage to assist their reading comprehension.

Concerning the implications related to curriculum developers and material producers, it can be stated that they should definitely work in cooperation with both teachers and students decide what learning strategies they need to identify. It should be the curriculum developers' responsibility to allocate enough time in the curriculum for teachers to conduct strategies research in their classes. As for materials writers, they are recommended to pay more attention

to word power sections in designing their textbook and find more fascinating ways to acquaint learners with new words. As the final word for this section, doing all the above-mentioned tips requires that educators and materials writers implement changes in classroom teaching, curriculum design, assessments, and educational policies. Only then can we claim that we have attained what we have intended.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The participants of the current study were adult, pre-intermediate learners studying General English at university; replications should be made using participants of diverse age groups and proficiency levels. The same basic design could also be carried out using tests of other versions and even learners of other languages. The significant effect of vocabulary learning strategy especially Using Mechanical Techniques on reading comprehension found in the current study calls for a more comprehensive investigation of the reasons behind. Such investigations may also help educators understand some of the major causes behind the poor reading habits of many EFL learners. Future research should also consider carrying out other studies exploring the effects of other vocabulary learning strategies on reading comprehension or on other language skills. In addition, gender differences seem to be another virgin area to be investigated in relation to vocabulary learning strategy. Such investigations will help EFL teachers and materials writers at the university level to provide their students with tools they need to succeed in their future career as English teachers, translators, or whatever future job they may take on.

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THE EFFECT OF ESP KNOWLEDGE ON READING COMPREHENSION AND RECALL OF IRANIAN COMPUTER SCIENCE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of carrying out this research was to find out if English for specific purposes knowledge of the students affects their reading comprehension and recall. The study was conducted in two phases. First, about 120 students studying computer science in Islamic Azad University of Sabzevar took a placement test and based on that about 76 students at intermediate level were chosen for this study. All these subjects had already passed a general course in English for a semester. All of them were taught computer texts in an ESP course for about one semester. In the second phase of study which was carried out almost at the end of the ESP course, six reading comprehension texts – two general, two computer and two engineering- were given to subjects on separate sessions. They were supposed to read the texts and write their recalls in Persian. Finally, all recall protocols were analyzed. The result of two paired t-tests showed that ESP Knowledge had effects on reading comprehension and recall of the texts. The subjects did remember the computer texts better than general and engineering texts. Overall, the results supported the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension and recall in EFL and ESP situations.

KEYWORDS: ESP knowledge, Reading Comprehension, Recall, Background Knowledge, ESP Reading

INTRODUCTION

The Definition of Reading

As the most important language skill (Carrell 1988a; Grabe & Stoller 2001), Richards and Renandyo(2002:273) point out that reading receives special focus in foreign language teaching. In fact, there are two important reasons for this emphasis. First, reading comprehension is one of the most important goals in most foreign language settings. Second, reading texts help learners to accomplish various pedagogical purposes.

There are various definitions of reading, among which are the following; Grabe and Stoller (2002: 9) defined reading as “..... the ability to draw meaning from the printed page and interpret this information appropriately”.

Reading Process

Goodman (1988: 11) believes in two views on reading. The first view accepts reading as “..... matching sounds to letters”, and the second view states that “nobody knows how reading works”. MacLeish (1968: 43) suggests that “[t]he readers of all written languages are “getting sounds from the printed page”. He believes that this is the writer who encodes meaning to sound and then from sound to orthography. In this view, the reader is the one who decodes from orthography to sound and later from sound to meaning.

Harmer (2001) states that a reader is able to see what is beyond the literal meaning of words since he uses a variety of clues to understand what the writer is suggesting. Schema, which is defined as background knowledge that enables the reader to make predictions for more successful interaction play a vital role in the interpretation of the written texts since successful interpretation relies heavily on shared schemata.

Chastain (1988) believes that the reading process means as active cognitive system operating on printed material in order to comprehend the text. He states that during the reading process, the reader tries to activate background knowledge and linguistic knowledge to create meaning and then the reader's task is to activate background knowledge and linguistic knowledge to recreate the writer's intended meaning. Then the reader should go beyond the printed material to get the writer's intended meaning.

Models of Reading

Bottom-Up Models

According to Grabe and Stroller (2002), the reader makes a piece-by-piece mental transition of the information in the text. Anderson (1999) states that, the reader recognizes letters first and then recognizes the words, and in the end the reader gets the meaning intended by the writer by combining the words that were recognized earlier. In other words, according to (Parsan 1997; Alderson 2000), the bottom-up process of reading is defined as a serial model where the reader begins with the printed word, recognizes graphics stimuli, decodes them to sound, recognizes words, and decodes meaning.

Top-down Models

Contrary to bottom-up models, in top-down models it is expected that the reader brings her background knowledge to the text. Grabe and Stroller (2002) stress that top-down models assume that reader goals and expectations direct the reading and that accounts for why top-down model assume the readers someone who has a set of expectations about the text information from the text to confirm or reject the expectations.

In top-down approaches the importance of schemata, the reader's contribution to the text is emphasized (Alderson 2000). Schema theory concerns with what readers bring to text while they read and play an important role in bottom-up processes. Schema theory attempts to describe the efficiency of prior background knowledge. Prior knowledge of the readers affects the comprehension of the text.

Interactive Models

Since there were some criticism against bottom-up and top-down models, the theorists were led to develop a new approach, the interactive model. Interactive models combine the characteristics of both bottom-up and top-down models (Anderson 1999). In interactive models, readers should be fast and efficient in recognizing letter and words. Harmer (2001) states the difference between top-down and bottom-up models this way. In the former, the reader looks down on something from above, while in the latter, the reader tries to understand the text by being in the middle of it.

Schema Theory

Schema theory was developed by Gestalt psychologist Bartlett "..... who observed how people, when asked to repeat a story from memory, filled in details what did not occur in the original but conformed to their cultural norms" (Cook 1997: 86). Schema theory stresses that readers are expected to combine their previous experiences with the text they are reading.

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) consider the role of background knowledge in language comprehension as schema theory, and state that any text either spoken or written does not itself carry meaning. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: 556) claim that "..... A text only provides direction for Readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own, previously acquired knowledge."

The very important role of background knowledge on reading comprehension is noted by Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) and Anderson (1999), that a reader's comprehension depends on her ability to relate the information that she gets from the text with her preexisting background knowledge.

Schema

Background knowledge-prior knowledge- consist of two main components: "our assimilated direct experiences of life and its manifold activities, and assimilated verbal experiences and encounters" (Swales 1990: 83).

Schemata are accepted as interlocking mental structures representing readers; knowledge (Perkins 1983; Zaker 1987; Anderson and Pearson 1988; Cook 1997; Alderson 2000; Brown 2001; Harmer 2001). In the reading process, readers integrate the new information from the text into their pre-existing schemata (Nattall 1996, Wallace 2001). Schemata influence how they recognize information and how they store it. According to Harmer (2001), only after the schema is activated is one able to see or hear, because it fits into patterns that she already knows.

Schema Types

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Carrell (1987; 1988b) and Alderson (2000) distinguish between schemata types. By formal schema, they point to background knowledge relating to the formal and rhetorical organizational structures of different types of texts. Carrell (1985) says reading comprehension is affected by the reader's formal schemata .

Content schemata is defined as background knowledge of the content area of the text that a reader brings to a text (Carrell & Eisterhold 1983; Carrell 1987; Alptehin 1993; 2002; 2003; Singhal 1998; Stott 2001) such as knowledge about people, the world, culture, and the universe (Brown 2001). According to Alderson (2000), readers need knowledge about the content of the passage to be able to understand it.

ESP

ESP is an approach to language teaching which aims to meet the needs of particular learners. In recent years there has been a growing demand for ESP which is essential for professional development. Different theorists such as Dudley-Evans, St John (1999), Strevensa (1988), Anthony (1997) and a lot more have defined ESP. here, we take some of the definitions into consideration. Hutchason and Waters (1987) theorize, "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reasons for learning (p.19). Anthony (1997) states that many non-specialist ESL instructors use an ESP approach based on analysis of learner needs and their own personal experience of using English for real communication.

Lorenzo Fiorilo (2005) states the students' abilities in their subject-matter fields improve their ability to acquire English. Since their subject matter they are associated with is expressed in English, their knowledge gives them the context they need to understand English. So, this is the teacher's responsibility to make the most use of students' knowledge of subject matter to help them understand and learn English.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The study aims to investigate the effects of background knowledge –ESP knowledge- on reading comprehension of a ESP students. So, the following research questions and hypotheses were considered.

Research Questions

1. Do computer science students comprehend and remember reading texts of their own field of specialty better than general English texts?
2. Do computer science students comprehend and remember reading texts of their own field of specialty better than engineering reading texts?

Research Hypotheses

H1: computer science students comprehend and remember computer texts better than general texts.

H2: Computer science students comprehend and remember computer texts better than engineering texts.

METHODOLOGY

The subjects

The study was conducted in Islamic Azad University of Sabzevar at computer branch. 120 ESP students studying computer science took part in this study. All these participants had already passed a general English course in the previous semester. And this term all were going to pass an ESP course in computer science. At the beginning of the term all students took a placement test and based on the placement test 76 students at intermediate level were chosen for this study.

Instrumentation

Placement test

As it was stated before, Oxford placement test was used to choose the students at the same level for this study. The test has about 90 questions and the time allowed is 45 minutes. The grade between 21 and 30 is considered as

intermediate level. The reliability of the test is 0.809 as reported by Brian Winstler, SAKAI Hideki and ABE Mariko (2009).

Six reading Comprehension texts

Six reading comprehension texts –two general reading comprehension texts (GTs), two computer specific reading texts (CTs) and two engineering specific reading tests (ETs) were chosen from some original books. The length and readability of these texts were almost the same (see table 1. Below). Many factors have been established to measure the readability but in fact their aim, construction and validity are not very different (Anderson & Urquhart, 1984). One typical readability is the Fog Index whose formula is:

$$\frac{\text{No. word}}{\text{No. sentences}} + \frac{\text{no. 3syllable words}}{\text{no. words}} \times \frac{100}{1} \times 0.4$$

And the result is interpreted as 12- = easy, 13-16 = undergraduate, 16+ = postgraduate. This formula is based on the number of words in a sentence.

The subjects were asked to read and recall the texts.

Table 1: The readability and length of the texts.

Texts	Text length	Readability
GT 1	110 Words	11.3
GT 2	83	11.4
CT 1	71	12.4
CT 2	63	11.3
ET 1	96	11.8
ET 2	93	11.3

Procedure

In the first phase of the study, a placement test was given to about one hundred twenty ESP students who studied computer science in Islamic Azad University of Sabzevar. Before the exam, the students were provided with enough information about the test. They were informed that there were 90 questions in the test and they are supposed to finish it according to the time limit announced. Then each subject was provided with an answer sheet and a booklet of questions. The answer sheets were collected and were graded. The purpose of this exam was to decide the level of the subjects in the study. The students with the score among 21 to 30 were considered intermediate learners. 76 subjects among the total number of 120 participants were chosen for this study.

In the second phase of this study which was also held on separate days almost at the end of semester, the subjects were supplied with two general reading texts (GTs), two computer texts (CTs) and two engineering texts (ETs). Empty sheets were also given to them to write their recalls on. They were already informed of what they were supposed to do. The subjects were asked to consider the following points when writing the recalls.

- (1) The students should not read the text longer than ten minutes and they should not go back to the text while they are writing the recalls.
- (2) The subjects should write their recalls on a separate sheet.
- (3) They should write their recalls in full sentences.
- (4) They should write their recalls in Persian.
- (5) They should write whatever they remember about the text.
- (6) They have enough time to write their recalls.

The same procedure was followed for the rest of the texts. Then, all recall protocols were collected. And two separate raters corrected the papers.

As put forward by Alderson (1987), the idea unit is the unit of text analysis and widely used in reading comprehension oriented research. Thus, as a test of comprehension students can be asked to write a recall protocol of a text they have read, which in turn is scored in terms of the number of idea unit it contains. So in

order to correct the recall protocols, each text was parsed into idea units. For the ease of scoring, an effort was made to establish a unit in which there was only one bit of information expected to be significant for the analysis as recommended by Alderson (1984). It was also set that every parallel or paraphrased sentence is to be accepted. So all recall protocols were analyzed and graded based on these idea units, the length and the number of idea units for each text is shown in table 2. These idea units were verified by two independent judges.

Table 2: The number of Idea Units in Each Text

Texts	Length	Number of Idea Units
GT1	110	16
GT2	83	14
CT1	63	11
CT2	71	10
ET1	93	10
ET2	89	10

Examples of idea units are given as follows.

Table 3: Examples of idea units

Computer text (2 idea units)

The program and the number must be stored in main memory/ while the program runs./ (As illustrated above the sentence contains 2 idea units as separated off by two virgules.)

General text (1 idea unit)

/Children do not always practice good hygiene./

Based on this criterion, any sentence presented in this way but in Persian was given a point. Two scorers scored the recall protocols and using Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, the inter-rater reliability was found to be .88.

Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data, the researcher made use of the SPSS. As stated already, the main aim of this study was to confirm that the background knowledge of the subjects –here their ESP knowledge about their specific course of study- has a role in their reading comprehension and recall protocols. To get the appropriate results the application of two paired t-tests was necessary. The first t-test was used to compare the means of the GTs with CTs and secondly to compare the means of CTs with ETs. The values of t-observed for the comparisons of means and that of t-critical were calculated and tested for the significance of the comparisons.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data gathered were analyzed using the SPSS statistical software. At first, descriptive data for the study group on general texts, computer texts and engineering texts were computed. As stated earlier, the main aim of this study was to confirm that the background knowledge –ESP knowledge- has a role on their reading comprehension and recall protocols. In order to confirm the hypotheses the application of two paired t-tests was necessary. The first t-test was used to compare the means of GTs and CTs and the second to compare the means of CTs and ETs. The values of t-observed for the comparison of means and that of t-critical were calculated and tested for the significance of the comparisons. This section presents and describes the data collected for the study group. Means and standard deviations of the variables will be followed by the results obtained through t-tests.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics for study group on GTs

		Discipline	Statistic	Std. Error
General English Test	Computer	Mean	7.4331	.20033
		5% Trimmed Mean	7.5638	
		Median	7.5625	
		Variance	3.050	
		Std. Deviation	1.74639	
	Range	8.44		
	Interquartile Range	2.12		
	Skewness	-1.198	.276	
	Kurtosis	1.622	.545	

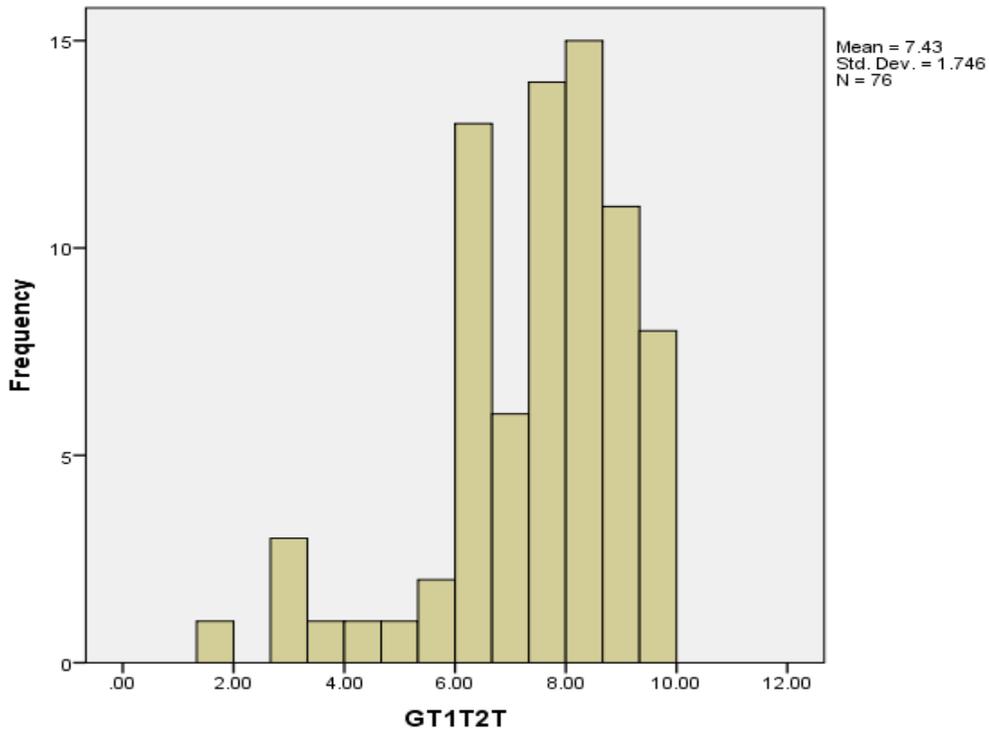


Figure 1: The frequency of scores on GTs

Descriptive statistics for study group in general texts is presented in table 4 and illustrated in Figure1. As it is indicated in Table 4 the mean is 7.4 and standard deviation is 1.7.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics for study group on CTs

		Discipline	Statistic	Std. Error
Computer	Mean	8.2878	.23485	
	Median	8.7500		
	Variance	4.192		
	Std. Deviation	2.04736		
	Interquartile Range	2.28		
	Skewness	-1.277	.276	
	Kurtosis	2.796	.545	

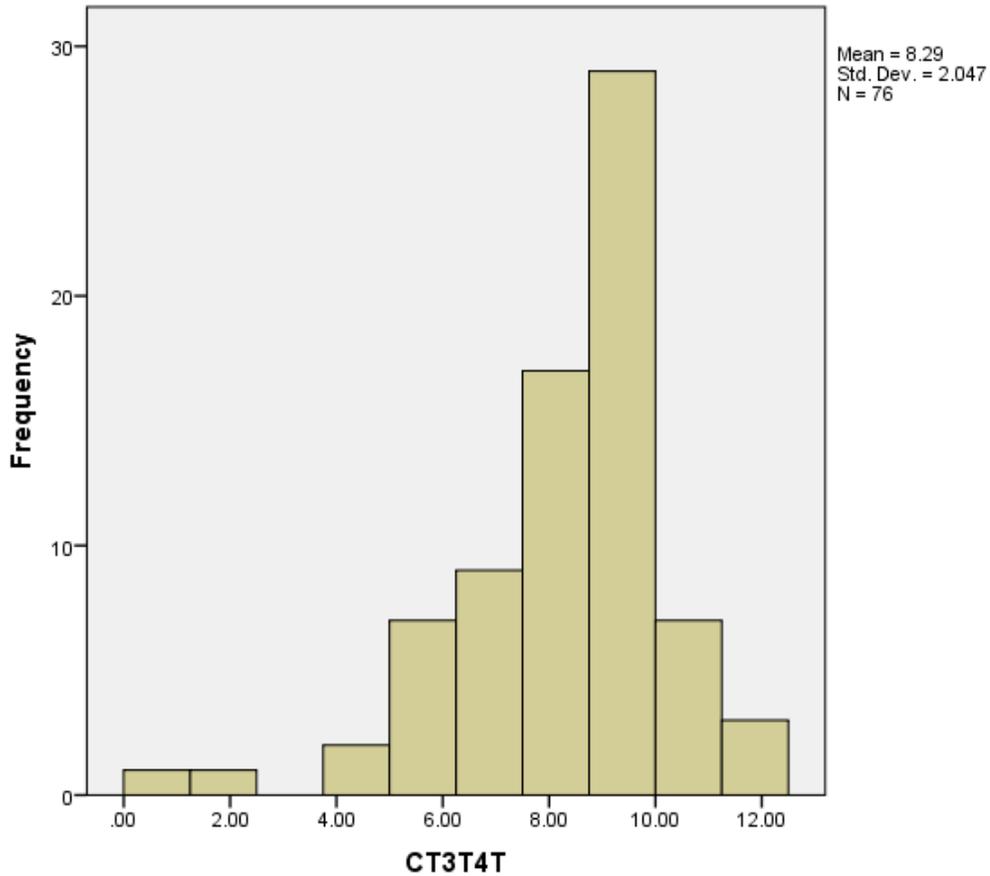


Figure 2: The frequency of scores in CTS

Table 5 and figure 2 presents and illustrates the descriptive statistics for the study group on CTs. As it is clear in the table the mean is 8.2 and the standard deviation is 2.04.

Table 6: Descriptive statistics for study group on ETs

		Discipline	Statistic	Std. Error
Engineering Test	Computer	Mean	4.2611	.39875
		Median	2.8125	
		Variance	12.084	
		Std. Deviation	3.47624	
		Range	16.75	
		Interquartile Range	3.16	
		Skewness	1.930	.276
		Kurtosis	3.459	.545

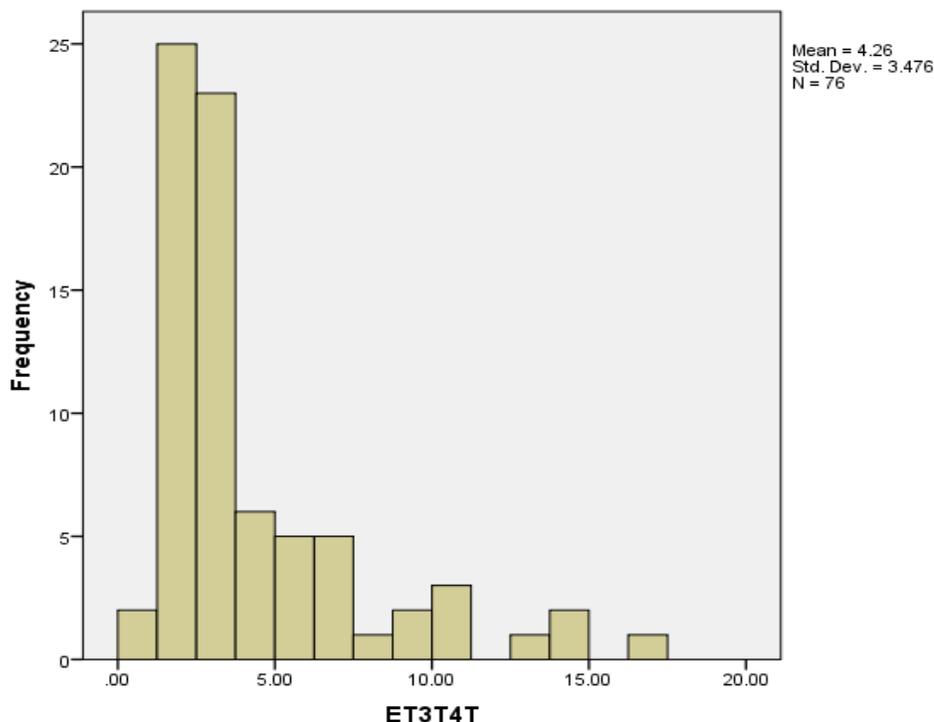


Figure 3: The frequency of scores in ETs

The descriptive statistics for study group on ETs is presented in Table 6 and illustrated in Figure 3. The mean is 4.2 and the standard deviation is 3.4.

Table 7: T-test result for GTs and CTs, CTs and ETs

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower	Upper				
Pair 1	GT1T2T - CT3T4T	-.85477	2.05005	.23516	-1.32323	-.38631	-3.635	75	.001
Pair 2	CT3T4T - ET3T4T	4.02673	4.13657	.47450	3.08148	4.97197	8.486	75	.000

To investigate the probable effects of background knowledge –ESP knowledge- on reading comprehension of Iranian ESP students in computer science, six texts –two (GTs), two (CTs), and two (EGs) texts- were assigned to students. Their comprehension was assessed through recall protocols. The first hypothesis says computer science students comprehend and remember computer texts better than general texts. As it is seen in table 7 the observed –t for GTs and CTs is -.38631 with degree of freedom of 75 which is significant at .001. This finding is in line with what has been previously stated regarding the role of background knowledge in enabling the readers to make predictions for successful interaction and interpretations of written texts since successful interpretation heavily relies on shared schemata.

The second hypothesis states that computer science students comprehend and remember computer texts better than engineering texts. As it is indicated in table the observed-t for CTs and ETs is 8.486 with degree of freedom of 75 at 0.000 level. So, computer science students did comprehend and remember CTs better than ETs. In other words, the background knowledge of the content area of the text that A READER brings to a text (Carrell & Eisterhold 1983) such as knowledge about people, the world, culture, and the universe helps better comprehension of the texts.

Overall, as it is stated by Lorenzo Fiorilo (2005), students’ abilities in their subject-matter fields improve their ability to acquire English. Their knowledge about the content area gives them the context they need for understanding

English. It seems that the students in this study did make use of their knowledge of subject matter to understand the texts since they understood and remembered CTs better than both GTs and EGs.

CONCLUSIONS

Due to the importance of reading in EFL, a lot of studies have been carried out to find out what variables may influence this skill. The studies have generally shown that a host of factors ranging from linguistic knowledge to and extra-linguistic knowledge can crucially affect the rate and amount of reading (Grabe, 1991; Perffetti, 1985; Smith, 1978). Of all the factors, the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension has been the focus of attention for many researchers (Bransford & Johnson, 1972, 1973; Kintsch & Van Dijk, 1975; Rumelhart, 1977; Kintsch, 1977; Thorondyke, 1917; Mandler & Johnson, 1977; Carrell, 1983). Most of these studies have shown that background knowledge plays a significant role in the ease of comprehension.

One research method which is frequently employed in this regard is recall protocols. Bernhardt (1991) and Swaffaret *al.* (1991) suggest the use of recall protocols as a measure of holistic or overall reading comprehension. The technique of summarizing a text is widely used as a research measure as well as for assessing reading comprehension in both first and second language acquisition.

In line with foregoing studies, in this study recall protocols were used. About seventy six students attended the experiment. A placement test was assigned to 120 students and based on this test seventy six students at intermediate level were chosen for this study. To gain this aim, six texts –two GTs, two CTs and ETs- were given to the subjects in both groups to be read and recalled. The purpose was to see if the ESP knowledge had any effect on the subjects' recall.

Table 4, 5 and 6 shows the descriptive statistics for the recall of the GTs, CTs and ETs. The mean differences are 7.4, 8.2 and 4.2 respectively. The small difference of means in GTS and CTs shows that there is not a big difference in performance of this group in these two texts but as you see the mean of ETs is 4.2 which show a great difference in the performance of subjects in these texts in comparison with GTS and CTs.

Turning back to the two hypotheses of this study it can be seen that the first hypothesis concerns the effect of background knowledge on computer science students reading comprehension and their recall. As indicated in Table 7, the observed *t* which is -3.6 with the d.f. of 75 is significant at 0.001 level; therefore, this hypothesis is confirmed. The computer students comprehended and recalled computer texts better than general texts.

The second hypothesis is related to the effect of background knowledge on computer learners' reading comprehension and their recalls. Again as can be seen in Table 7, the observed *t* (8.4) with the d.f. of 75 is significant at 0.000 level. So, the second hypothesis is confirmed too. In other words, computer students also comprehended and recalled computer texts better than the engineering ones. These findings are in line with the previous findings regarding the role of background knowledge in reading comprehension and their recall of the texts. Previous research has shown that the better a reader is to access background knowledge about either the content area of text (Bransford & Johnson, 1972, 1973) or the rhetorical formal structure of a text (Kintsch & Van Dijk, 1975; Kintsch, 1977; Rumelhardt, 1977; Throndike, 1917; Mandler & Johnson, 1977), the better he or she will be able to comprehend the text, to store it in long term memory, and to recall it.

LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

This study is only a scratch on the surface of the role of background knowledge in comprehension and student's recall. Of course further studies can be done related to the present hypothesis. Here are some suggestions.

In this study we examined how much information was remembered. We must also examine how much of what kind of information is remembered, and what kind of information is further created from the repeated reading. In the present study, students were above eighteen years old and of different ages. Other studies can be done regarding the age of the students to see whether the factor of age has any roles in recall protocols of students.

In this study, the students' field of study was computer. The same study can be carried out with students from other fields of ESP. Still, we do not know if the results would be different with other ESP fields.

In the present study, the readability and content familiarity were considered; still we do not know if formal schemata have had any effects on recalls. Further research can be carried out regarding the role of formal schemata in reading comprehension and recall protocols.

To make sure of the findings of this research, it is advisable to replicate this study implementing another scoring procedure known as tree diagram construction (Mousavi, 1999) for recall protocols analysis. Furthermore, one can work on the analysis of recall protocols in terms of the kind of information retrieved and the number of correct and incorrect recalls.

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NOMINAL ELLIPSIS IN THE NOVEL THE LORD OF THE RINGS: THE HOBBIT
(A FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR APPROACH)

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ABSTRACT

This paper identifies the Nominal Ellipsis obtainable in the narratives: novel. Some reasons to select this genre: (1) novel is a routine and creative language always read by people not limited amongst the ages; (2) novel has certain features in social location, social function, and schematic features; and (3) novel offers a wide range of opportunities to analyze different types of Ellipsis; it offers a plentiful spoken and written textual data. The Ellipsis analysis involves: (1) Deictics; (2) Numeratives; and (3) Ephetets. In the three chapters-92.082 words of the novel, there are 41 Nominal Ellipsis. The results reveal that the Deictics occupy the first rank. It is dominated by the Specific deictic; The second rank is Ephetets. It is dominated by the Adjectives; and the last one is the Numeratives. It is dominated by the Cardinal. The study adopts the grand theory of cohesive relationship as provided by Halliday and Hassan (1989). It explains the Ellipsis relationship within the novel. The theory has classified the data visible so that different types of the Ellipsis can be understood in their use. It is certainly beneficial for researchers for further analysis.

KEYWORDS: Cohesion, Nominal Ellipsis, Narrative Text: Novel

INTRODUCTION

Novel is one type of the narratives. Ann (2001:21) explains that the narratives can be classified based on: (1) *social location*; (2) *social purpose*; and (3) *schematic feature*. The *social location* of the the narratives is found across all aspects of culture life in **novels**, short stories movies, sitcoms, and radio dramas; the *social function* is to entertain and instruct via reflection on experience. It deals with problematic events which individuals have to resolve for better or worse; and the *schematic feature* is Orientation, Complication, Evaluation and Resolution.

The paper presents analysis of Ellipsis in the novel because: (1) Novel offers a wider range of opportunities analysis. The novel provides linguistic phenomena with their authentic co-texts and contexts; (2) Grammatically the concept of tie within sentences in ellipsis is linguistic features which are required for the production of a text. Halliday (1989:4) states that the concept of a tie makes it possible to analyze a text in terms of its cohesive properties, and give a systematic account of its patterns of texture. Halliday and Hassan (1989) and van Dijk (1992) are concerned with the principles of connectivity which bind a text together and force co-interpretation. Thus, it can be identified that features of the texts can be presupposed and interpreted as a coherent and cohesive unit; (3) Ellipsis in the novels is a unique thing. Here the Ellipsis can be identified, such as: types of Ellipsis; the occurrences of Ellipsis presupposing and presupposed to the antecedent. Burton (1997) says that when a sentence is actually used by a speaker (i.e. when a speaker actually utters it), almost anything can be omitted, provides that the omitted elements can be understood from text in which it is used. Based on this, the omission from sentences of required elements capable of being understood in the context of their use is called Ellipsis. Here are some examples:

Kim's car had broken down and mine had too. (Gunther, 2013)

The word *mine* is a possessive form. The elliptical element is a countable noun. It functions as a Head substituting *my car* in the antecedent. It refers anaphorically to the word *car*.

'I didn't know you'd written a novel. I hope you'll write another [novel]?' (Thompson, 2004)

The word *another* is categorized as a post-deictic. The elliptical element is in a countable noun - a *novel*. It refers anaphorically to the previous sentence. Through modification, *another* acts as a Head substituting *another novel*. Based on the reasons above, the researcher conducted a research for the novel entitled: Ellipsis in The Novel *The Lord of The Rings: The Hobbit* by J.R.R. Tolkien. This research focuses on analyzing Ellipsis. There are three formulations of the research which deal with, which are as follows:

1. What types of Ellipsis are used in the novel?
2. What elements does the Ellipsis presuppose in the novel?
3. What is the Nominal Ellipsis frequently used in the Novel?

NOMINAL ELLIPSIS

Nominal Ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group. When the *Nominal Ellipsis* occurs, it is possibly referred to the antecedent nominal group. There are multivariate structures of the nominal group. On the logical dimension the structure of the nominal group is that of a Head or Thing with optional modifying elements. Here in the nominal group, the modifying elements can precede the Head and follow it, and these are referred to as Premodifier and Postmodifier. Halliday and Hasan (1989) give an example: *those two fast electric trains with pantographs*. The elements are arranged in structures as follows:

those	two	fast	electric	trains	with	pantographs
<i>Deictic</i>	<i>Numerative</i>	<i>Epithet</i>	<i>Classifier</i>	<i>Thing</i>	<i>Qualifier</i>	
					<i>Process</i>	'Range'
						<i>Thing</i>
<i>Premodifier</i>				<i>Head</i>	<i>Postmodifier</i>	

The Head is *trains*, the Premodifier is *those two fast electric* and the Postmodifier is *with pantographs*. The modifiers consist of: *Those (Deictic)*, *two (Numerative)*, *fast (Epithet)*, *electric (Classifier)*, and *with pantographs (Qualifier)*.

Halliday (1985) describes that nominal group involves a measure of something. 'Measure' nominals include collectives, e.g. *a pack of cards*; partitives, e.g. *a slice of bread*; and quantitatives, e.g. *a yard of cloth*. Here is an example in structures:

a	pack	of	cards
<i>Numerative</i>			<i>Thing</i>
<i>Modifier</i>	<i>Head</i>	<i>Postmodifier</i>	

The measure word *pack* is a Head with the *of* phrase as Postmodifier. However, the Thing is not the measure word but the thing being measured: the *cards*.

In similar way to the measure type are nominal groups expressing a facet, of a thing: e.g. *the back of the house*, *my side of the bed*, *the north face of the Eiger*. The facet word (*back*, *side*, *face*) is the Head; it would be possible to interpret these also as Thing (i.e. Head = Thing), but they could be considered as embedded Deictics, with the faceted noun (*house*, *bed*, *Eiger*) as Thing. Here is an example in structures:

The	front	of	the	house
<i>Premodifier</i>	<i>Head</i>	<i>Postmodifier</i>		
<i>Pre-Deictic</i>			<i>Deictic</i>	<i>Thing</i>
<i>Deictic</i>	<i>Thing (Facet)</i>			

In the experiential structure, Numerative is made a Head of the logical structure, as in

	three		of	those	enormous	spiders
--	--------------	--	-----------	--------------	-----------------	----------------

<i>Another</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>cups</i>	<i>of</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>Good strong</i>	<i>tea</i>
<i>Pre-Numerative</i>				<i>Deictic</i>	<i>Epithet</i>	<i>Thing</i>
<i>Deictic</i>	<i>Numerative</i>	<i>Measure (Thing)</i>				

Here the Numerative is embedded; and since it is embedded, it comes to the front and may be followed by a fully structured nominal even beginning with a Deictic. Based on these, the Deictic is normally a determiner, the Numerative is a numeral or other quantifier, the Epithet is adjectives and the Classifier is a noun, and the Qualifier is normally a relative clause or prepositional phrase. (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). The explanation above is the same as what Gerot and Wignell (1995) state “A nominal group is a group of words which has a noun as its Head word and includes all additional information related to that noun”, and Bloor and Bloor (2004:31) say “A nominal group with a noun (or pronoun) as its Head and that noun may be modified”. The noun in the nominal group has function referred to as the ‘Thing or Head’, and it is normally served by the *Common noun*, *Proper noun* or *Personal pronoun*. *Personal pronoun* is a reference item; *Proper nouns* designate individuals. Bloor and Bloor (2004) traditionally describe them as individual names of persons (e.g. *Picasso, Shakespeare, etc*), and they may sometimes be accompanied by descriptive modifiers; *Common noun* usually refers to a class of entities (e.g. *cities, planets, persons, corporations*), or non-unique instances of a certain class (e.g. *a city, another planet, these persons, our corporation*). Bloor and Bloor (2004:20) defines that a *Common noun* might be described as an item that may be preceded by *the*. And Halliday and Hasan (1989) say that *Common nouns* designate classes; they are often further specified, and this is the function of the elements: Deictic, Numerative, Epithet and Classifier.

Common Noun may be omitted and the function of Head is taken on by one of these other elements. Bloor and Bloor (2004:97) state that the grammar of Nominal Ellipsis permits the omission of Head nouns in a nominal group, and Lobeck (1987a) defines that ...restrictive modifiers in Noun Phrase can be optionally included in the ellipted constituent. Based on this, *Nominal ellipsis* involves the upgrading of a word functioning as Deictic, Numerative, Epithet or Classifier from the status of Modifier to the status of Head. Halliday and Hasan (1989) give an example, as follows:

[1] *Four other Oysters followed them, and yet another four.*

Here the word *four*, which is a Numerative acts as Modifier, is upgraded to function as Head. Similarly in

[2] *Which last longer, the curved rods or the straight rods? - The straight are less likely to break.*

The word *straight* is an Epithet, functioning as Modifier in the question but as Head in the response. Both *another four* and *the straight* are elliptical nominal groups. If we want to fill out an elliptical nominal group, there are two ways of doing so. One way is to ‘push down’ the element functioning as Head in Modifier, and add the ‘missing’ Head in its place. So this process *another four* in the sentence above would become *another four oysters*. The other way of doing it is to keep the elliptical group as it is and add a partitive Qualifier; this would give *another four of the oysters*. This is called *Partitivity*.

THE NOTION OF PARTITIVITY

There are several definitions to be found within each of the approaches that resort to the partitive notion. Lobeck (2005) states that *Partitivity* is combinable with a partitive Prepositional Phrase (PP). Jackendoff (1977:110ff) says that the partitive construction contains a silent nominal element (see also Olsen 1987; Sauerland & Yatsushiro 2004; Fitzpatrick 2006). Jackendoff (1977) assumes a structure such as the following for partitivity constructions: *ART/Q PRO of NP* as in *Those / few PRO of the men*. Halliday and Hasan (1989) say that the partitive is possible only under certain conditions: generally, when the elliptical group designates some aggregate - *a subset, fraction, quantity or collective* - that is different from that designated by the presupposed group, such as: *one of the three, any of Fred's*.

A different view, Sleman (1996:34) states that Partitive does not necessarily have to mean combinationable with a partitive Prepositional Phrase (PP). She makes reference to specificity by pointing out a link between a set and contextually active superset is established. For example:

[3] *Have you read all his books? No, I have only read the third.*

In this example, the elliptical noun phrase (or rather its referent) is a subset of a previously evoked set, that is, the *books*.

PRESUPPOSITION

Presupposition is treated as a relationship between two propositions, (Yule, 1998:26) as in *Mary's dog is cute*. It presupposes *Mary has a dog*. The identity of a presuming reference item (presupposition) may be retrievable from a number of different contexts. (Egins, 2004:34). For example, *She did not hear the story as many women have heard*

the same. Here we presuppose the referent *the same* refer back to *the story*. It refers back to the whole of the preceding paragraph. Besides that, the presupposition may be cataphoric as in *Because Alice won't; Mary has to dust the furniture*. Here the elided elements in an antecedent refer cataphorically to the presupposed words *dust the furniture*. Occasionally, the presupposition may be exophoric as in *if a housewife on seeing the milkman approach calls out: Two please !* She is using exophoric ellipsis. Halliday and Hasan (1989:144) state that it is the context of situation that provides the information to interpret this. An elliptical nominal group is cohesive. It points phorically to another nominal group which is presupposed by it. There may be other elements in the presupposed group which likewise do not occur in the *elliptical one*; Halliday and Hasan (1989) give example, as follows:

[4] *Here are my two white silk scarves. I can lend you one if you like.*

Here *one* presumably presupposes not only *scarves* but also the garnishings *white* and *silk*; it could be filled out as *one white silk scarf*, or *one of my white silk scarves*. The word *scarves* is the thing. In ellipsis, the Thing is always presupposed. See another example:

[5]

Here are my two white silk scarves }
 a. *Where are yours?*
 b. *I used to have three.*
 c. *Can you see any black?*
 d. *Or would you prefer the cotton?*

In [5a] *yours* (Deictic) is Head, an s (Thing) but also *silk* (Classifier), *white* (Epithet) and possibly *two* (Numerative): The word *three* in [5b] presupposes *scarf*, *silk* and *white*. In [5c] the elliptical group is *any black*; this presupposes *scarf* and *silk*. Finally, in [5d] only *scarf* is presupposed. Based on this, the range of possible presuppositions is dependent on the structure of the nominal group. It extends over that part of the presupposed group which could follow the element acting as Head in the elliptical group.

TYPES OF NOMINAL ELLIPSIS

Halliday and Hasan (1989) classify types of Nominal Ellipsis in the words or words classes that function as Head in the elliptical group. Those are (1) Deictics; (2) Numeratives; and (3) Epithets.

DEICTICS

The deictic element indicates whether or not, some specific subset of the Thing is intended; and if so, it is either (1) Specific; (2) Non-specific; or (3) Post-deictic.

(1) Specific deictic. Specific deictic indicates some specific subset of the thing. Gerot and Wignel (1995) say that it has the function of stating 'which thing'. It specifies how the thing in question can be identified in relation to the context. For example, if someone says 'the snake', he or she can be referring either to a particular snake which is in the near context or to all snakes in the generic sense (*the snake is a reptile*). The deictic occurs first in the nominal group. Halliday and Hasan (1989) state that the words functioning as specific deictic are mostly of the class of determiner; with the demonstrative, possessive and indefinite determiners forming a network of systemically related categories ... to be part of a wider system, and those functioning as Post-deictic are adjectives. Payne and Huddleston (2012:412) point out that most determiners can occur in elliptical noun phrase. According to Lobeck (1995), Sleeman (2003), and Lombart Huesca (2002), the singular demonstrative cannot license noun ellipsis. Based on this, in the class of the determiner in the nominal group, the Specific deictics consists of (i) *demonstratives* and *the*, and (ii) *possessives*. The demonstratives include *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, and *which*, and the possessives functioning as pronominals include *my*, *your*, *etc*, as Head includes *mine*, *yours*, *ors*, *his*, *hers*, *[its]*, *theirs*, and as nominals includes *smith's*, *my father's*, *etc*. Then, most determiners can occur in elliptical noun phrase, except the singular demonstrative, such as *this* and *that* can not license noun phrase. Payne and Huddleston (2012:412) give an example:

[6] *Those cards are Kim's; these are yours.*

The word *these* is a demonstrative element licensing noun ellipsis. It refers anaphorically to *Those cards*.

Halliday and Hasan (1989) explain that the demonstratives all occur elliptically, with very great frequency. Since they are themselves reference items, they are often anaphoric; but wherever the nominal group could be ‘filled out’ with a noun Head, or by the substitute one(s), a demonstrative functioning as Head is ellipsis. Look at another example by Halliday and Hasan (1989) as in

[7] Just ask **Janet** how to polish **the brassware**. **Hers** sparkles.

The word *hers* is a possessive pronoun as Head referring anaphorically to Janet and the *brassware*. Here there is a double cohesive tie. the word *hers* presupposes both a person *Janet* as possessor, and a thing possessed *the brassware*.

(2) Non-specific deictics. Non-specific deictic is unspecified sub-set of the thing is being identified. (Gerot and Wignel:1995). Non-specific deictic conveys the sense of all, or none, or some unspecified subset. (Halliday, 1985). The Non-specific deictics are *each, every, any, either, no, neither, a, and some*, as well as *all* and *both*. (Gerot and Wignel,1995; Halliday and Hasan,1989; Gunther,2013). These deictics occur as Head of an elliptical nominal. Jackendoff (1971) defines with a different term, ellipsis in noun phrase (nominal group) must include the projection immediately dominating noun and its complements, such as *The students attended the play but [some/all/each/etc[e]] went home disappointed*; However, the ellipsed complement is not allowed here, such as *Few students of foreign languages attended the play but [all [e] of chemistry] showed up*. This is an ungrammatical feature, the ellipsis in noun phrase doesn't immediately dominate Noun and its complements. Halliday and Hasan (1989) give some examples:

[8]

a. **His sons** went into business. **Neither** succeeded.

b. **The flat has a sitting-room, a dining-room and one bedroom. Each** has a window overlooking the park.

The words *neither* is presupposing the antecedent *his sons*, and *each* is presupposing two or more sets expressed through a coordination.

(3) Post-deictics. The words functioning as Post-deictic element in the nominal group are not determiners but adjectives. Halliday and Hasan (1989) state that the Post-deictic identifies a subset of the class of thing by referring to its fame or familiarity, its status in the text, or its similarity or dissimilarity to some other designated subset. (Gerot & Wignel,1995; Halliday,1985). For example: *Those are the identical two boy*. The word *identical* is as post-deictic. It means the same boy as before. Here the Post-deictic may be followed by a numerative, unlike adjectives in their normal function as Epithet which must follow any numerative elements. Halliday (2004) states among the words most frequently occurring as Post-deictic are: *other, same, different, identical, complete, entire, whole, above, aforementioned; certain, famous, habitual, necessary, normal, etc.*

The adjectives used regularly and elliptically in deictic are *same* and *other* as in *I'll do the same*. Here *the same* is an elliptical nominal group as a Head. Besides that, the Post-deictic *other* combines either with Specific deictic (e.g. *the other, that other, etc*) or with Non-specific (e.g. *any other, another, etc*), and in plural form (e.g. *others*). Halliday and Hasan (1989) give examples:

[9] I've used up these **three yellow folders** you gave me. Can I use **the other**?

The phrase above does not mean ‘*the other three*’. With a Specific deictic, *other (s)* refers to the last remaining member(s) of a set, and therefore it presupposes that all others must have been specified.

[10] **A group of well-dressed young men** suddenly appeared on the stage. **One of them** bowed to the audience; **the others** stood motionless.

The item above is semantically plural. It must refer to more than one set. Here *one of them* and *the others both* presuppose *well-dressed young men*.

The elliptical use of *other* illustrates very well the indeterminacy which may arise in the extent of presupposition. For example:

[11] I see you've sold **those two large red china dogs**. Have you **any others** ?

The absence of further evidence we could not tell whether to presuppose as *china dogs, red china dogs or large red china dogs*.

Finally we may note that elliptical nominal groups with Deictic as Head may also be exophoric, either in the generalized sense or specifically to the context of situation. For examples:

- [12] a. *Some say one thing, others say **another**.*
b. *I'll have **the usual**, please.*

NUMERATIVES

The elliptical Head noun is permitted in English when the Head noun follows certain closed-class items, like numbers, quantifiers, and my own. (McShane,2005:8). The Numerative indicates some numeral feature of the subset: either quantity or order, either exact or inexact. The Numerative tells us 'how many'. For example: Quantity: *the two snakes, lots of snakes* ; Order: *the second snake, a subsequent snake.*(Gerot & Wignel,1995). Numeratives can be realized by numerals such as *two or second*, or by such expressions as *many, several, few, and lots of*. (Bloor & Bloor,1995). Numerative element functions regularly as the Head is ellipsis. The Numerative element in the nominal group is expressed by numerals or other quantifying words, which form three subcategories: *Ordinals, Cardinals, and Quantifiers*. The *Cardinals* are such as: *one, two, etc*, and the *Ordinals* are such as *first, next, last, second, etc*. They are often used elliptically, generally with *the* or *a possessive* as deictic. The *Quantifiers* are such as *all, many, some, most of, a lot of, etc*. (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Wiese, 2004). Halliday and Hasan (1989) describe Numerative' function in elliptical forms, as follows:

The Ordinals are often ellipsed, generally with *the* or *a possessive* as deictics, as in

- [13] *Have another chocolate. - No thanks; that was **my third**.*

The Ordinals are often cataphoric to a Qualifier which indicates the domain of the ordering, for example, to *leave* in

- [14] *Smith was the first person **to leave**. I was **the second**.*

The Numerative like Deictics in elliptical use may be exophoric, for example: *Smith was the first **to leave***. Here a person understood. The presupposed item will be assumed to be a general category of which the item referred to, here *Smith*.

Cardinal numerals are also frequent in ellipsis, and may be preceded by any Deictic that is appropriate in number, eg: *the three, these three, any three, all three*, and also by Post-Deictic adjectives as in *the usual three, the same three*. Here are in sentences:

- [15] *Have **another chocolate**. — No thanks; I've had **my three**.*

The indefinite Quantifiers are items such as *much, many, more, most, few, several, a little, lots, a bit, hundreds, etc*; Like other items with a numerative function, they are very frequently used in ellipsis; being indefinite, they are usually not accompanied by a deictic. For example:

- [16] *Can all cats climb trees? - They all can; and **most** do.*

EPITHETS

Epithet indicates some quality of the Head, e.g. *old, long, blue, fast* (Arnold 1985:163). It can answer two main questions: "What do you think of the head"? and "What is the head like?" (Thompson 2000:183), The Epithet can be in *attitudinal Epithet (subjective ones) and experiential Epithets (objective one)*. (Gerot and Wignel,1995). *The attitudinal Epithet* is an expression of the speaker's subjective attitude towards the Head, e.g. *splendid, silly, fantastic, etc*, and the *experiential Epithets* has interpersonal dimension, or the speaker's objective attitude towards the Head, e.g. *old, big, small, etc*. Halliday (1995) explains that the principal difference between the two is *that experiential Epithets* are potentially defining, whereas *attitudinal ones* are not. Take the example of *long* in *long train*. If I say *a long train*, you cannot tell which particular train I am talking about, because the deictic *a* is not-

specific; but if I say *the long train*, the Specific deictic - *the* indicates that you can tell, and that the necessary information is contained in *the experiential Epithet - long*. Besides that, it tends to find that *the attitudinal one* comes first before *the experiential*; however, this is a tendency not a rule. Here is an example of Epithet: *those two loathsome, big snake*. The adjective - *loathsome and big* are Epithet.

The function of Epithet is typically fulfilled by an adjective, The most usual adjectives found in ellipsis are in comparative and superlative forms.(Halliday and Hasan,1989).They describe Epithets' function in elliptical forms, as follows:

The superlative adjective precedes other epithets and, like ordinal numerals, it is usually accompanied by *the* or *a possessive deictic* as in

[17] Apples are **the cheapest** in autumn.

Here *the cheapest* is an elliptical group presupposing some item such as fruit.

The superlative is elliptical, the presupposed group may still be within the clause. This only happens in equative clauses of the identifying type, which are probably the most frequent environment for elliptical superlatives as in

[18] a. **That clown is the finest** I've ever seen.

b. They are **fine actors. That clown is the finest** I've ever seen.

In [18a] we assume that the presupposed item is *clown*, so although *the finest* is elliptical the presupposition is within the clause, but in [18b] *the finest* is ambiguous; it may mean '*the finest actor*' or '*the finest clown*'. The superlative may also take the form of a *mass noun*, with the interpretation *the ...-est kind of*, as in

[19] 'I told you **butter** wouldn't suit the works.' 'It was **the best** (butter).'

A superlative repudiates all numeratives, including cardinal, in the presupposed group. It may itself be singular or plural, and if plural may be preceded by its own cardinal as in *the three youngest*.

Comparative adjective doesn't take *the*. It is not identifying but attributive, as in

[20] a. Mary is **the cleverer**.

b. Mary is **cleverer**.

The word *the cleverer* in [20a] is not common and the word *cleverer* in [20b] is not an elliptical clause. It presupposes by reference, but not by ellipsis; it cannot be 'filled out' by a noun Head or a noun substitution. look at the three clauses here. *apples are cheap, apple are cheaper ('than pears')* and *apples are cheapest ('in autumn')*. Those are all attributive clauses. Here those consisting of adjectives (*cheap, cheaper, and cheapest*) are not elliptical forms. A nominal group with a true comparative as Head is elliptical under conditions; these are less common than elliptical superlatives, The presupposed nominal group may be count singular, count plural or mass as in

[21] I'll buy you some **prettier**.

Superlative and, less often, comparatives may presuppose exophorically, as in *you take the biggest ('of the things in front of you')*.

Finally, other items functioning as Epithets are adjectives that are neither superlative nor comparative. These items do not very often occur as Head in ellipsis, as follows:

[22] a. **The green** suits you very well

b. **Green** suits you very well.

In [22a] *the green* is elliptical. Here we could have *the green one*, with substitution instead of ellipsis, and in [22b] *Green* is noun.

METHODOLOGY

The research is using a qualitative-quantitative descriptive method. Good (1963) states that descriptive studies may include

present facts or current conditions concerning the nature of a group of persons, a number of objects, or a class of events, and it may involve the procedures of induction, analysis, classification, enumeration, or measurement. The data taken from the novel *The Lord of The Rings: The Hobbit* by J.R.R. Tolkien. It is published by Houghton Mifflin company, USA in 1982. It is selected because the novel gives a plentiful spoken and written data for Ellipsis analysis; it covers a wide range of different types from informal to formal conversations. The researcher analyzed three chapters in the novel. The first chapter is **An Unexpected Party** 8.636 words, the second chapter is **Roast Mutton** 5.254 words, and the third chapter is **A Short Rest** 2.876 words. Thus, the whole data analyzed was 92.082 words. Then the data of the Nominal Ellipsis were sorted in: (1) Deictics (Specific, Non-specific and Post-deictic), (2) Numerative (Cardinal, Ordinal and Quantifier) and (3) Epithet (Comparative, Superlative and Adjective). These are coded as the tabel 1.

Tabel 1: Types of Nominal Ellipsis

Type of Ellipsis Analysis	Coding
Nominal Ellipsis	E
(1) Deictic as Head	1
i. specific deictic	11
ii. non-specific deictic	12
iii. post-deictic	13
(2) Numerative as Head	2
i. ordinal	21
ii. cardinal	22
iii. quantifier	23
(3) Epithet as Head	3
i. superlative	31
ii. comparative	32
iii. adjective	33

The data is also classified in the Distance in sentences cataphorically or anaphorically. These are cohesive items intervened or not intervened by other sentences or phrases. These can be classified: (1) 'Immediate' (Presupposing an item in a contiguous sentence); and (2) 'Not immediate'. The Not immediate consists of: (1) 'Mediated' (having one or more intervening sentences that enter into a chain of presupposition); and (2) 'Remote' (having one or more intervening sentences nor involved in the presupposition), or both. These are Coded: Immediate (o), Mediated (M), Remote Non-Mediated (N), Cataphoric (K), Anaphoric (A). Most of the data are anaphora (A), so the researcher writes only cataphora (K) put in Type column in Table 2.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The three chapters of the novel-92.082 words were sorted and classified in the Nominal Ellipsis functions: (1) Deictics, (2) Numeratives, and (3) Epithets. It resulted in the tabel 2 below.

Tabel 2: The Nominal Ellipsis Data

Sentence Number	Cohesive Item	Type	Distance	Presupposed item
Deictics				
1	these	E.11	o	The best rooms
2	those	E.11	o	such particularly excellent fireworks
3	yours	E.11	o	your service
4	At yours and your family's	E.11	o	your service
5	my father's	E.11/K	o	my grandfather's escape
6	those	E.11	o	trolls
7	William's	E.11	o	a voice
8	These	E.11	M2	Moon-letters are rune-letters
9	William's	E.11	o	a voice
10	Tom's	E.11	o	a voice

11	William's	E.11	o	a voice
12	William's	E.11	o	a voice / 18
13	Any	E.12	o	some cake-seed cake
14	Some four	E.12	N1	the four dwarves
15	each	E.12	o	the twelve dwarves
16	None	E.12	o	The dwarves
17	most of all	E.12	o	some elves
18	each	E.12	M2+N1	The dwarves
19	None	E.12	o	any more writing
20	none	E.12	N2	the very sight of dwarves
21	another	E.13	o	an uninvited dwarf
24	another	E.13	o	one side
23	others	E.13	o	white stones
24	another	E.13	N5	a beautiful grey ring of smoke
25	all the same	E.13	o	Expert Treasure-hunter instead of Burglar
26	the like	E.13	o	the most marvellous and magical toys
Numeratives				
27	Two	E.22	o	three angry trolls
28	One	E.22/K	o	two of the songs
29	Two	E.22	o	an inn
30	FIVE	E.22/K	o	another dwarf
31	four more	E.22	o	more dwarves
32	Lots	E.23/K	o	Lots of dwarves
33	the last green	E.21	o	the trees
Ephitets				
34	more	E.32	o	the very sight of dwarves
35	one of the best	E.31	o	funny queer fits
36	the feet of the nearest	E.31	o	the great mountains
37	a nasty, dirty	E.33/K	o	wet hole
38	his solid	E.33/K	o	comfortable father
39	secret once	E.33	N2	the secret entrance.
40	a small	E.33/K	o	curious key
41	Yellow	E.33	N2	The one with the yellow stockings

Then, the data are classified in the (1) Types of Nominal Ellipsis used; (2) Elements of the Ellipsis presupposed the antecedent; and (3) What Nominal Ellipsis frequently used in the Novel, the results are indicated and discussed in the Table 3 below.

Table 3: Data Analysis of the Nominal Group

Deictics			Total	Numeratives			Total	Ephitets			Total
specific deictics	Non-specific deictics	Post-deictics		Ordinals	Cardinals	Quantifiers		Superlatives	Comparatives	Adjectives	
12	8	6	26	1	5	1	7	2	1	5	8
46,2%	30,7%	23%	63,4%	14,3%	71,4%	14,3%	17%	25%	12,5%	62,5%	19,5%

DEICTICS. The data indicates that the novel involves three sub-sets of the Deictics: (1) *Specific deictic*, (2) *Non-specific deictic*, and (3) *Post-deictic*. The *Specific deictic* dominates in the novel. There are 46,2% data indicating *Specific deictics*. This is followed by 30 % *Non-specifics* and 23 % *Post-deictics*. The *Specific deictics* occupy the highest rank. Those are dominated by possessive pronouns and demonstrative forms, such as: *these, those, yours, my father's, william's, etc.*, and other sub-sets: *Non-specific deictics* spread as in: *any, some four, each, and none*, and *Post-deictics* are dominated by *another/others*. Besides that, the *Anaphoric* forms are more dominant than the *Cataphoric* ones (The data are showed in the Table 2). There are only one data showing the *Cataphora* (K). This becomes the deictics' elliptical features. Here are some examples:

[23]

- *The best rooms were all on the left-hand side (going in), for these were the only ones to have windows, deep-set round windows looking over his garden and meadows beyond, sloping down to the river. (HBT.1)*
- *He hung his hooded cloak on the nearest peg, and "Dwalin at your service!" he said with a low bow. "Bilbo Baggins at yours!" (HBT.3)*

(The words *these* and *yours* refer anaphorically to the elements in the group *the best rooms* and *your service*).

The cohesive items based on the Distance are most frequently used in *Immediate* and some are found in *Mediated* and *Remote-non mediated* forms as in

Immediate

[24]

"Kili at your service!" said the one. "And Fili!" added the other; and they both swept off their blue hoods and bowed. "At yours and your family's!" replied Bilbo, remembering his manners this time. (HBT.4)

The words "At yours and your family's!" are Deictics. Those refer anaphorically to the elements *your service*. The cohesive elements are not being intervened by other sentences (*Immediate*); The complete elements are *At your [service]* and *your family's [service]*.

Mediated

[25]

"Moon-letters are rune-letters, but you cannot see them," said Elrond, "not when you look straight at them. They can only be seen when the moon shines behind them, and what is more, with the more cunning sort it must be a moon of the same shape and season as the day when they were written. The dwarves invented them and wrote them with silver pens, as your friends could tell you. These must have been written on a midsummer's eve in a crescent moon, a long while ago." (HBT.8)

The word *these* refers to the elements *Moon-letters*. There are two intervening sentences that enter into a chain of presupposition (*Mediated*); The complete elements are *these [moon-letters]*. The element *moon-letters* is ellipsed as it has already been recovered at the antecedent.

Remote-Non-Mediated

[26]

Trolls simply detest the very sight of dwarves (uncooked). Bert and Bill stopped fighting immediately, and "a sack, Tom, quick!" they said, before Balin, who was wondering where in all this commotion Bilbo was, knew what was happening, a sack was over his head, and he was down. "There's more to come yet," said Tom, "or I'm mighty mistook. Lots and none at all, it is," said he. (HBT.20)

There are two intervening sentences not involved in the presupposition (*Remote*). The *none* refers anaphorically to the elements *the very sight of dwarves*. Although the elements *of the dwarves* are ellipsed, it can be understood because the word *none* refers to the *dwarves*. Thus, The complete elements are *none [of the dwarves]*.

NUMERATIVES. The data indicates that Numeratives involves three sub-sets: (1) *Ordinals*, (2) *Cardinals* and (3) *Quantifiers*. The *Cardinals* occupy the first rank amongst the other sub-sets. It has 71,4% and both the *Ordinals* and *Quantifiers* have the same percentages 14,3%. The *Cardinals* are rather contrastive than the other sub-sets. Here are examples: *three angry trolls – two* (HBT.27), *two of the songs – one* (HBT.28), *an in – two* (HBT.29), *another dwarf – five* (HBT.30), and *more dwarves – four more* (HBT.31), and the *Ordinals* and *Quantifiers* are such as: *the trees – the last green* (HBT.33), *lots of dwarves-lots* (HBT.32).

Besides that, the data indicates that the *Anaphoric* forms are more dominant than *Cataphoric* ones. In the seven elliptical numerative forms, there are three data indicating *Cataphoric* forms as in *...one or two of the songs* (HBT.28). *another dwarf had...- it was five* (HBT.30) and *lots of dwarves-lots* (HBT.32). Those are in *Cardinal* and *Qualifier*; Based on the Distance amongst sentences, the data indicates that the whole sentences/phrases' ties are *Immediate* forms or not in *Mediated* or *Remote (Non-Mediated)* ones. For examples:

Immediate

[27]

At first they had passed through hobbit-lands, a wild respectable country inhabited by decent folk, with good roads, an inn or two, and now and then a dwarf or a farmer ambling by on business. (HBT.29)

The *two* is a *Cardinal*. It presupposes elements *an inn*. Here the elements *an inn* presupposed in a contiguous phrase. It is not being intervened by other sentences. The complete elements are *an inn or two [inns]*.

[28]

"There's more to come yet," said Tom, "or I'm mighty mistook. Lots and none at all, it is," said he."No burra-hobbits, but lots of dwarves. That's about the shape of it!" (HBT.32)

The word *lots* is a *Quantifier*. It presupposes elements *lots of dwarves*. Here the elements *dwarves* presupposed in a contiguous sentence. It is not intervened by other sentences. The complete elements are *lots of dwarves*.

EPHITETS. The data indicates that in the Ephetets involve three subsets: (1) *Superlatives*, (2) *Comparatives*, and (3) *Adjectives*. The *Adjectives* dominate in each sentences' tie. There are 62,5% data indicating *Adjectives*. This is followed by 25% *Superlatives* and 12,5 % *Comparatives*. The *Adjectives* are such as: *wet hole – a nasty, dirty* (HBT.37), *comfortable father – his solid* (HBT.38), *the secret entrance – secrete once* (HBT.39), *curious key – a small* (HBT.39), *the one with yellow stockings – yellow* (HBT.41); the *Superlatives* are such as: *funny queer fits – one of the best* (HBT.35), *the great mountains – the feet of the nearest* (HBT.36), and the *Comparatives* are such as: *the very sight of dwarves – more* (HBT.34). In the eight Ephetets, There are four data showing the *Cataphora (K)* such as: *wet hole - a nasty,dirty* (HBT.37), *comfortable father - his solid* (HBT.38), and *curious key - a small* (HBT.40). Besides that, the ties amongst sentences/phrases (Distance) are most frequently used in *Immediate*, and some are found in a *Remote-non mediated*, and a *Mediated form*. For examples:

Immediate

[29]

"Also," went on Gandalf, "I forgot to mention that with the map went a key, a small and curious key. Here it is!" he said, and handed to Thorin a key with a long barrel and intricate wards, made of silver. "Keep it safe." (HBT.40)

The word *a small* is an *Adjective* and the ellipsed element is the *key*. Here the *key* presupposed in a contiguous sentences / phrase or it is less being intervened by other sentences. The complete elements are *a small [key] and curious key*.

Remote (Non-mediated)

[30]

... that is the secret entrance. You see that rune on the West side, and the hand pointing to it from the other runes? That marks a hidden passage to the Lower Halls. "It may have been secret once," said Thorin. (HBT.39)

The word the *secret* is an *Adjective*. It is upgraded in its status to be a *Head*. It refers to the elements *the secret entrance*. It is intervened by two sentences not involved in the presupposition. The complete elements are *secrete entrance once*.

Mediated

[31]

"The one with the yellow stockings," said Bert. "Nonsense, the one with the grey stockings," said a voice like William's. "I made sure it was yellow," said Bert. "Yellow it was," said William. (HBT.41)

The word *yellow* is an *Adjective*. It is upgraded in its status to be a *Head*. It refers to the elements *the one with the yellow stockings*. It is intervened by one sentence that enters one presupposition *the grey stocking*. The word the *yellow* presupposes the elements *The one with the yellow stockings*.

CONCLUSSIONS

The Nominal Ellipsis presupposes the antecedent. The presupposed elements are in cataphora or anaphora. Most of the Nominal Ellipsis occur anaphorically. There are six data indicating cataphoras.

The Nominal Ellipsis immediately dominates the noun and its complements as the presupposed elements. Here the upgraded identity/status occurs e.g. the elements-the Deictics, Numeratives, or Ephetets to be a *Head*.

In analysis of the three chapters - 92.082 words, there are 41 Nominal ellipsis in the novel *The Lord of The Rings: The Hobbit*. The data indicates that the *Deictics* are 63,4%; the *Epithets* are 19,5%; and the *Numeratives* are 17% (Tabel 3).

The *Deictics* occupy the first rank. These are dominated by *Specific deictics*: the possessive pronoun and demonstrative forms. In the twenty six cohesive items based on Distance, there are only one indicating *Mediated* and three *Remote-non mediated* and the remains are in *Immediate*.

The *Ephitets* occupy the second rank. These are dominated by Adjectives. In the eight cohesive items of the *Ephitets* (Distance), There are two indicating *Remote-non mediated* and the remains are in *Immediate*.

The *Numeratives* occupy the third rank. The *numeratives* are dominated by *Cardinals*. It is contrastive. The data got is 71,3%, and the other subsets: *Ordinal* and *Quantifier* are only 14,3%. In the seven cohesive items of the *Numeratives* based on Distance), The whole are in *Immediate*. It indicates that cohesive items in sentences are not intervened by other sentences.

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APPENDIXES

1. The best rooms were all on the left-hand side (going in), for these were the only ones to have windows, deep-set round windows looking over his garden and meadows beyond, sloping down to the river. (HBT.1)
2. Not the man that used to make such particularly excellent fireworks! I remember those! Old Took used to have them on Midsummer's Eve. (HBT.2)
3. He hung his hooded cloak on the nearest peg, and "Dwalin at your service!" he said with a low bow. "Bilbo Baggins at yours!" (HBT.3)
4. "Kili at your service!" said the one. "And Fili!" added the other; and they both swept off their blue hoods and bowed. "At yours and your family's!" replied Bilbo, remembering his manners this time. (HBT.4)
5. "I have often wondered about my father's and my grandfather's escape. I see now they must have had a private Side-door which only they knew about. (HBT.5)
6. Yes, I am afraid trolls do behave like that, even those with only one head each. After hearing all this Bilbo ought to have done something at once. (HBT.6)
7. "Dawn take you all, and be stone to you!" said a voice that sounded like William's. But it wasn't. (HBT.7)
8. "Moon-letters are rune-letters, but you cannot see them," said Elrond, "not when you look straight at them. They can only be seen when the moon shines behind them, and what is more, with the more cunning sort it must be a moon of the same shape and season as the day when they were written. The dwarves invented them and wrote them with silver pens, as your friends could tell you. These must have been written on a midsummer's eve in a crescent moon, a long while ago." (HBT.8)
9. "No good roasting 'em now, it'd take all night," said a voice. Bert thought it was William's. "Don't start the argument all over-again. Bill," he said, "or it will take all night." (HBT.9)
10. "No good boiling 'em! We ain't got no water, and it's a long way to the well and all," said a voice. Bert and William thought it was Tom's. HBT.(10)
11. "The one with the yellow stockings," said Bert. "Nonsense, the one with the grey stockings," said a voice like William's.(HBT.11)
12. "No good roasting 'em now, it'd take all night," said a voice. Bert thought it was William's.(HBT.12)
13. "A little beer would suit me better, if it is all the same to you, my good sir," said Balin with the white beard. "But I don't mind some cake-seed cake, if you have any." (HBT.13)

14. He had only just had a sip-in the corner, while the four dwarves sat around the table, and talked about mines and gold and troubles with the goblins, and the depredations of dragons, and lots of other things which he did not understand, and did not want to, for they sounded much too adventurous-when,ding-dong-a-ling-dang, his bell rang again, as if some naughty little hobbit-boy was trying to pull the handle off. "Someone at the door!" he said, blinking. "Some four, I should say by the sound," said Fili. (HBT.14)
15. Thereupon the twelve dwarves-not Thorin, he was too important, and stayed talking to Gandalf-jumped to their feet and made tall piles of all the things. Off they went, not waiting for trays, balancing columns of plates, each with a bottle on the top, with one hand, while the hobbit ran after them almost squeaking with fright: "please be careful!" and "please, don't trouble! I can manage." (HBT.15)
16. The dwarves rushed out of their great gate; but there was the dragon waiting for them. None escaped that way. The river rushed up in steam and a fog fell on Dale, and in the fog the dragon came on them and destroyed most of the warriors-the usual unhappy story, it was only too common in those days. (HBT.16)
17. For some elves tease them and laugh at them, and most of all at their beards. (HBT.17)
18. Elves know a lot and are wondrous folk for news, and know what is going on among the peoples of the land, as quick as water flows, or quicker. But the dwarves were all for supper as soon 'as possible just then, and would not stay. On they all went, leading their ponies, till they were brought to a good path and so at last to the very brink of the river. It was flowing fast and noisily, as mountain-streams do of a summer evening, when sun has been all day on the snow far up above. There was only a narrow bridge of stone without a parapet, as narrow as a pony could well walk on; and over that they had to go, slow and careful, one by one, each leading his pony by the bridle. The elves had brought bright lanterns to the shore, and they sang a merry song as the party went across. (HBT.18)
19. "That remains to be seen," said Gandalf. "Is there any more writing?" "None to be seen by this moon," said Elrond, and he gave the map back to Thorin; and then they went down to the water to see the elves dance and sing upon the midsummer's eve. (HBT.19)
20. Trolls simply detest the very sight of dwarves (uncooked). Bert and Bill stopped fighting immediately, and "a sack, Tom, quick!" they said, before Balin, who was wondering where in all this commotion Bilbo was, knew what was happening, a sack was over his head, and he was down. "There's more to come yet," said Tom, "or I'm mighty mistook. Lots and none at all, it is," said he. "No burra- hobbits, but lots of these here dwarves. That's about the shape of it!" (HBT.20)
21. And what would you do, if an uninvited dwarf came and hung his things up in your hall without a word of explanation? They had not been at table long, in fact they had hardly reached the third cake, when there came another even louder ring at the bell. "Excuse me!" said the hobbit, and off he went to the door.(HBT.21)
22. The tunnel wound on and on, going fairly but not quite straight into the side of the hill - The Hill, as all the people for many miles round called it - and many little round doors opened out of it, first on one side and then on another. (HBT.22)
23. Bilbo was astonished. The only path was marked with white stones. Some of which were small, and others were half covered with moss or heather. (HBT.23)
24. Then Bilbo sat down on a seat by his door, crossed his legs, and blew out a beautiful grey ring of smoke that sailed up into the air without breaking and floated away over The Hill. "Very pretty!" said Gandalf. "But I have no time to blow smoke-rings this morning. I am looking for someone to share in an adventure that I am arranging, and it's very difficult to find anyone." "I should think so - in these parts! We are plain quiet folk and have no use for adventures. Nasty .disturbing uncomfortable things! Make you late for dinner! I can't think what anybody sees in them," said our Mr. Baggins, and stuck one thumb behind his braces, and blew out another even bigger smoke-ring. (HBT.24)
25. Burglar wants a good job, plenty of Excitement and reasonable Reward, that's how it is usually read. You say Expert Treasure-hunter instead of Burglar if you like. Some of them do. It's all the same to us. (HBT.25)
26. Altogether those were good days for us, and the poorest of us had money to spend and to lend, and leisure to make beautiful things just for the fun of it, not to speak of the most marvellous and magical toys, the like of which is not to be found in the world now-a-days. (HBT.26)
27. But just at that moment William came up behind and popped a sack right over Thorin's head and down to his toes. And so the fight ended. A nice pickle they were all in now: all neatly tied up in sacks, with three angry trolls (and two with burns and bashes to remember) sitting by them, arguing whether they should roast them slowly, or mince them fine and boil them, or just sit on them one by one and squash them into jelly: (HBT.27)
28. I wish I had time to tell you even a few of the tales or one or two of the songs that they heard in that house. (HBT.28)
29. At first they had passed through hobbit-lands, a wild respectable country inhabited by decent folk, with good roads, an inn or two, and now and then a dwarf or a farmer ambling by on business. (HBT.29)
30. It was not four after all, it was five. Another dwarf had come along while he was wondering in the hall. (HBT.30)
31. Bilbo rushed along the passage, very angry, and altogether bewildered and bewuthered-this was the most awkward Wednesday he ever remembered. He pulled open the door with a jerk, and they all fell in, one on top of the other.More dwarves, four more! And there was Gandalf behind, leaning on his staff and laughing. (HBT.31)
32. "There's more to come yet," said Tom, "or I'm mighty mistook. Lots and none at all, it is," said he. "No burra- hobbits, but lots of dwarves. That's about the shape of it!" (HBT.32)
33. The trees changed to beech and oak, and hire was a comfortable feeling in the twilight. The last green had almost faded out of the grass, when they came at length to an open glade not far above the banks of the stream. (HBT.33)
34. Trolls simply detest the very sight of dwarves (uncooked). Bert and Bill stopped fighting immediately, and "a sack, Tom, quick!" they said, before Balin, who was wondering where in all this commotion Bilbo was, knew what was happening, a sack was over his head, and he was down. "There's more to come yet," said Tom, "or I'm mighty mistook. (HBT.34)
35. "Excitable little fellow," said Gandalf, as they sat down again. "Gets funny queer fits, but he is one of the best, one of the best-as fierce as a dragon in a pinch." (HBT.35)
36. The far bank was steep and slippery. When they got to the top of it, leading their ponies, they saw that the great mountains had marched down very near to them. Already they I seemed only a day's easy journey from the feet of the nearest. (HBT.36)
37. In a hole in the ground there lived a hobbit. Not a nasty, dirty, wet hole, filled with the ends of worms and an oozy smell, nor yet a dry, bare, sandi hole with nothing in it to sit down on or to eat: it was a hobbit-hole, and that means comfort. (HBT.37)
38. Still it is probable that Bilbo, her only son, although he looked and behaved exactly like a second edition of his solid and comfortable father, got something a bit queer in his makeup from the Took side, something that only waited for a chance to come out. (HBT.38)
39. "There is a dragon marked in red on the Mountain, said Balin, "but it will be easy enough to find him without that, if ever we arrive there." "There is one point that you haven't noticed," said the wizard, "and that is the secret entrance. You see that rune on the West side, and the hand pointing to it from the other runes? That marks a hidden passage to the Lower Halls. "It may have been secret once," said Thorin. (HBT.39)
40. "Also," went on Gandalf, "I forgot to mention that with the map went a key, a small and curious key. Here it is!" he said, and handed to

Thorin a key with a long barrel and intricate wards, made of silver. "Keep it safe!" (HBT.40)

41. "The one with the yellow stockings," said Bert. "Nonsense, the one with the grey stockings," said a voice like William's. "I made sure it was yellow," said Bert. "Yellow it was," said William. (HBT.41)



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