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MOTIVATION AND THE ATTAINMENT OF LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines motivation in the light of its affective roles in learning of English language as a second language. It acknowledges the lack of motivation for both the students and the teachers of English but emphasizes the fact that the assumed need of English language by the learners will to a large extent affect the attainment level of ESL learners. There is an attempt to unravel the implication of different kinds of motivation on language learning with special attention to the kinds of motivation used by the learners of English as a second language in Nigeria and how learners can maximise this for an improved proficiency in it.

KEYWORDS: motivation, language learning, second language, acquisition, first language

INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that a child whose mental and physical capabilities lie within the normal range will grow up to acquire a language and most of the time need arises for the learning of more language(s). Motivation in language learning can be the drive that compels one to learn or study a language. In other words, motivation is the factor that spurs learners of language to learn a particular language.

There are two major types of motivation: Extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. The extrinsic motivation operates when learners learn as a factor external to them while intrinsic motivation comes into play when a language is learnt because of factors internal to the learner. From psychological perspective, motivation is regarded as the internal drive directing behavior towards some end (Firth, 1997). Also Huit (2001) submits that motivation is an internal state or condition that serves to activate or energise behavior and give it direction. From both definitions, it is obvious that in psychology, though external factors are acknowledged, motivation is approached through internal factors. The internal condition is highly emphasized.

In Nigeria, the importance of English Language cannot be over emphasized based on the roles it performs especially in the educational sector. No wonder, Bamgbose (1971) says that English Language is most noticeable in the field of education and Bamisaye (1995a) acknowledges its status as the Nigeria's most important language, thereby describing it as a 'legal alien'.

The second language is a language that is learnt after the first language has been acquired. There is no gain saying that the learning of English Language by students in Nigeria has become as indispensable as the air that one breathes since the success and survival of a student in school will, to a large extent, depend on his knowledge of English. At this juncture, it is pertinent to emphasize that a second language (L2) is not always learnt. There could be instances of second

language acquisition, in which case a child is exposed to two languages at an early age, thereby acquiring the two languages simultaneously.

In Nigeria, most children learn English language as a second language at school. In this case, the teachers serve as the role model. No wonder, Bamisaye (1995a) aptly points to the fact that the learners as well as the teachers of English language face a lot of problems in learning/teaching endeavours in Nigeria. The issue of motivation constitutes one of the major problems associated with language learning which, according to this paper, will be approached by examining the kinds of motivation for learning the language. This is the goal of students learning the language.

MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Adegbite (2003) asserts that motivation is the desire or determination to learn a language. In learning any language, there is a goal that is set to be achieved. The goal will motivate individual learners or students of language in the process of learning and eventual attainment in the language. Therefore, one can say that motivation in language learning refers to the orientation and attitude of a learner towards target language learning and the community of the language. It is with due consideration of this factor that motivation in language learning can be classified into Instrumental and Integrative motivation (Gardener & Lambert 1972; Munkaila & Haruna, 2001).

Learners of a language are said to have been instrumentally motivated when the orientation is based on an interest to learn a language for utilitarian purpose i.e., to transact a business, in order to succeed in an examination etc. The instrumental motivation is recognized by Ariyo (2004b) as extrinsic motivation, which he describes as learning of a language as a sort of utilitarian adventure.

Integration motivation, on the other hand, refers to when learners are oriented to learn about the culture of the language community and cultivate a sense of belongingness toward the community. In such a case, learners will be willing to adapt the behaviour. Ariyo (2004b) asserts that language learning correlates with intrinsic motivation positively if the aim is to identify with the culture of native speakers of the language. Therefore, integrative motivation encompasses not only the language but the culture associated with the language.

THE IMPLICATION OF INSTRUMENTAL MOTIVATION

Pride and Holmes (1974) submit that motivation is instrumental in form, if the purpose of language study reflects the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement such as getting ahead in one's occupation, securing a job and the likes, if this definition is taken 'carte blanche,' then instrumental motivation is premised on the notion of learning a language for specific purpose[s].

Instrumentally motivated learners focus on areas of need. Since the learning of a target language is directed towards certain goals, efforts and energy invested in learning decrease once those goals are achieved or when the learners assumed they have learnt enough to achieve the goals. It

is a pertinent observation that different languages reflect different cultural practices. The culture of a particular language environment differs from another. Therefore, learners that are instrumentally motivated have little knowledge about the culture of the community of the target language.

Another distinct factor is the use of the second language. Learners are not likely to use the target language outside the context for which the language is learnt. Even in schools, learners are basically pre-occupied with sailing through tests and examinations, which in most cases, are basically theoretical in approach. Once, they can successfully achieve that, they are no more interested in putting the language into use outside the school environment.

Learners that are instrumentally motivated have little knowledge about the lexico-grammatical system, meaning system and sound system of the language. Suffice to say that the knowledge of a learner at each level of the grammar of the language will also depend on the goals. A student that does not intend to study English in any tertiary institution might not pay adequate attention to the sound system of the English language.

Instrumentally motivated learners can hardly attain near native – like proficiency, let alone native – like proficiency in the target language as long as the orientation remains the same. The fact remains that they do not even desire to be.

THE IMPLICATION OF INTEGRATIVE MOTIVATION

Pride and Holmes (1972) staunchly argue that a language may be learnt as a means of being accepted in another cultural group because of dissatisfaction experienced in one's culture. Also the interest to learn another culture might just be the same as the learner's own culture. It is along this reasoning that Ariyo (2004b) asserts that language learning correlates with intrinsic motivation positively if the aim is to identify with the culture of the native speakers of the language. The point being emphasized here is that learning about the culture of the target language is the crux of the matter in integrative motivation.

Learners are encouraged to speak the target language in both formal and informal environments. No doubt, there will also be certain needs, but the focus is not only on immediate needs, but a continuous learning of culture until they become 'linguistic members' of the language community. Learners are exposed to wide stylistic variations of the target language coupled with a deep knowledge of the verbal behavior. Also, the learners will cover extensively the phonology, morphology, semantics and syntactic systems of the target language. No wonder, Adetuyibi and Osundahunsi (1984b:140) agree that this type of motivation (integrative) will stimulate learners to think creatively and to express their thoughts intelligibly.

Integratively motivated learners are emotionally attached to the culture of the target language, therefore, they possess a sense of belonging to the language community of the target language. There will be more successful learning when a target language is learnt in order to be part of those that speak the language. This leads to better learning and the learners could attain near proficiency in the target language.

In an ESL situation, the learners of English have acquired a language (first language) and in most instances, an ESL learner is a linguistic adult. It becomes obvious that English will be the second sequential language. In apt reference to the submission of Ariyo (2004a), there exists different purpose for teaching English in Nigeria. As a matter of fact, teaching or learning of the language, since it is an L2 is goal oriented. No wonder, Adegbite (2003) stresses the fact that motivation is an affective element in language acquisition.

According to the provision stipulated in the National Policy on Education (1981):

Government will see to it that the medium of instruction in the primary school is initially the mother tongue or the language of immediate community and at a later stage, English.

From the quoted of the National Policy on Education, there is the provision for the use of both indigenous language and English language as media of instruction in early and later primary school respectively. The use of English by ESL learners is most noticeable in the formal setting; therefore the learning environment is restricted. These cannot but have grave consequences on the attainment level of learners of English.

Adegbite (2003) opines that in Nigeria, English is learnt mainly through formal instruction in the classroom. He reiterates further that this context for learning English in a second language environment contrasts in certain respects from the context whereby second language learning takes place in English as a mother tongue environment. This observation captures the linguistic environment of learners of English as a language in Nigeria.

Davies (2006) acknowledges the fact that second language learners could possess communicative competence in the target language but he aptly excludes areas such as accentual speed and judgment of grammatically. Despite this, it is pertinent to say that communicative competence is not one of the major goals in Nigeria. The concern of Nigerian learners is to achieve the functional purpose for which English language is meant to serve and the success of such purposes.

The functional purposes of English in Nigeria include: Language of Administration and Government; Mass media; Education; Science and Technology; Religion; Business and Commerce; Law and Politics; International relations (Ariyo,2004a).These functions of English are utilitarian in purpose, therefore, it seems quite unnecessary for second language learners to pursue native speakers competence in the language.

The L2 learners are not exposed to models that are native speakers. Most L2 learners are taught by teachers who also learnt the language as L2. In essence, they do not have access to language resources from the natives. The ESL environment is not conducive for the learning process; an attempt to use English as a native speaker might be socially unacceptable expect for a few elite parents that encourage their children to be simultaneous bilinguals whereby they learn and use English both at home and school.

The mastery of the language of instruction determines the performances of learners in their academic pursuit. Therefore, the level of academic attainment will also go a long way to influence the level of proficiency in the language. No wonder, Ariyo (2004b) submits that people of high academic attainment are better in English language proficiency.

Adegbite (2003) opines that most Nigerian learners of English have instrument reasons for learning the language, which show through their low level achievement in it. He further observes that the impersonal and distant communicative role, which English plays in the lives of individuals and the society as a whole, keeps the standard of the language low. The question that readily comes to the mind is, how can the attainment level of ESL learners' proficiency be increased despite the fact they are instrumentally motivate?

Learners need a change in approach to orientation. Though, the fact remains that the learning of English is a sort of utilitarian adventure, learners should approach the learning with a positive attitude and they should not set a limit or target for themselves.

In linguistic, the native speaker serves as a resource and also a standard setter (Davies, 1991). The focus or goal of ESL learners is not to be sacrificed on the altar of attaining native speaker proficiency since this will lead to loss of identity but ESL learners should accept the native speakers' use of the English language. In this case, a learner will not be perceived as a 'linguistic bastard' if he sounds 'too English' especially in the academic or school setting.

Students are usually tested based on the Standard English and not necessarily as expected from ESL students. An instance is the test of Oral English, which a candidate is expected to have mastered correct pronunciation of sounds since there is no different Phonology of English for ESL learners.

The fact that integrative motivation leads to better learning does not make an ideal option for learners of English as a second language because it results in loss of cultural identity. Even, Adegbite (2003) rightly observes that children that are encouraged to learn English without recourse to their mother tongue end up failing to achieve mastery of either language.

Despite the main premise of this work which has been strongly articulated afore time, Native speakers also need to encourage ESL learners as rightly observed by Kubota (2001) thus:

There is the need for Native Speakers to develop positive attitude towards other speakers of English...They should develop skills to complement them

This submission is very far removed from the fact that ESL is inferior to NE, since the possibility of cross cultural communication cannot be ruled out, hence, through complementary cross cultural communication; both ESL learners and speakers will not suffer cultural loss.

CONCLUSION

There is no doubt; motivation is an affective factor in language learning. Both teachers and learners are to approach the learning and teaching of ESL with positive attitudes stressing that good English should be used intelligibly with the right words, grammar, pronunciation and meaning. That is, the ability to discern 'what to say', 'how to say it', 'to whom to say it' and 'in

what context'. By this, a speaker knows the appropriate words to use in appropriate manner to the right person in the right situation which fall within the research objectives of linguists interested in pragmatics.

I acknowledge that the points in this paper are by no means exhaustive they could go a long way in assisting teachers and learners of ESL. Therefore, the fact that the various purposes for learning of ESL, have been accomplished should not discourage continuous learning, since there would also be room for improvement, which will improve the attainment level of such learners in English.

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THE EFFECT OF FORM-FOCUSED VS. MEANING-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION ON READING COMPREHENSION THROUGH CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION AMONG IRANIAN GUIDANCE SCHOOL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed to investigate the effect of form-focused vs. meaning-focused instruction on the development of reading comprehension among Iranian elementary EFL learners in a content-based context. Therefore, SAMA junior high school (related to Islamic Azad University) in Mashhad, was chosen as the research site. A general language proficiency test of Nelson (book1, Elementary 050A) was used to measure their general language ability. Also, standard KET reading comprehension test was implemented to examine the participants' reading comprehension development level. Participants were divided into: form-focused instruction (FFI) group, meaning-focused instruction (MFI) group, and a control group. The numbers of students were 30, 28 and 28 respectively. The FFI group performed activities such as underlining structures in texts. The MFI group was assigned activities such as pair/group discussion, while the control group did not receive meaning/form-focused instruction. The data were analyzed via SPSS software to compare the means of the groups involved. The results ascertained that form and meaning-focused groups significantly outperformed the control group. It also disclosed that form-focused group performed better than meaning-focused group on KET reading comprehension test unexpectedly. As a conclusion, it might be generalized that both form-focused and meaning-focused methods of teaching can promote the reading comprehension of EFL learners in a content-based context.

KEYWORDS: Reading comprehension, Focus on forms, Focus on form, Form-focused instruction, meaning-focused instruction, content based instruction.

INTRODUCTION

There is a discussion among many scholars about the effective type of instruction. Some (Krashen, 1994) believe that exposure to input is enough for learners to acquire the language while the others (Long, 1991; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Norris & Ortega, 2000) refer to the effectiveness of attention to form. According to Doughty and Williams (1998), pedagogical interventions embedded in communicative activities can be effective in overcoming classroom limitations on second language acquisition (SLA). Therefore, form-focused instruction and meaning-focused instruction were two types of instruction which have been used for investigating on this issue (the effective type of instruction) in this study.

One of the major skills in second language acquisition is reading comprehension. Reading is the cornerstone of a learner's success in school and consequently through his/her life since it is one of the basic life skills the lack of which affects the students' academic growth (Anderson, Heibert, Scott & Wilkinson, 1985). According to Grabe (1995), in all students' academic careers, students must learn to make the transition from learning to read to reading to learn other information. There is little discussion in most reading development discussions on how this transition to academic learning from reading can be made. Therefore, some questions have been raised on the relationship between reading instruction and content-Based Instruction (CBI) and the role of CBI in reading instruction. It is worth to know that CBI provides a natural framework for incorporating text-structure awareness and formal knowledge of language structure and also demonstrating how language serves useful functions for communicating. CBI is useful for language skills development in many L2 contexts (also Mohan, 1990; Crandall, 1993). Thus, because of the advantages of CBI, the background context of this study was content-based instruction.

Teachers can measure their students understanding level through different ways one of which is reading comprehension. Because reading with comprehension is the basis of all content areas, it is essential that a variety of needs relating to reading comprehension to be met. Furthermore, many researchers (Fotos & Hinkel, 2007; Nassaji, 2007) studied the effectiveness of two types of instruction (Focus on form and focus on meaning) on different areas in learning second language context specially their effect on productive skills (speaking and writing), but here in this study the researcher was interested in investigating receptive skills such as reading comprehension and wanted to know whether these types of instructions could affect reading comprehension or not. The main purpose of this study is the assessment of students' reading comprehension through form/meaning-focused instruction in order to figure out which type will lead to better results.

In this study, the teacher can motivate the learners positively; giving the students of each group the chance to participate in the form/meaning-focused activities (depending on the experimental group they are assigned to), giving them a fresh opportunity to work in small groups with their classmates on language activities which will give them a strong sense of motivation and accomplishment. Therefore; the students are self-motivated and take an active role in their own learning process. It also provides language teachers with information about different activities which is needed in each experimental group. Language teachers might be encouraged to examine different activities during their teaching process of different skills.

Fortunately, studies have contributed to the field of SLA and applied linguistic in general. This is achieved through searching more on a subject which has not been fully expounded in previous studies on reading comprehension development. This study tries to look at reading comprehension development from a new viewpoint. Therefore, in the present study, the researcher has been interested in investigating the effects of two various types of instruction (form-focused and meaning-focused instruction) that may affect the development of reading comprehension indirectly. Consequently, the implementation of this study tries to answer the following research questions:

1. Does implementing focus on form in the context of content-based instruction have any significant effect on reading comprehension development among the Iranian guidance school students?
2. Will meaning-focused tasks through content-based instruction lead to development of reading comprehension skill of the Iranian guidance school students?

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Some L2 scholars believe in the role of implicit instruction more than explicit language learning (e.g., Krashen, 1994; Long, 1996), but empirical studies show that explicit attention to form in communicative contexts is more effective (Spada, 1997; Norris & Ortega, 2000; Roy Lyster, 2004). Focus on form instruction is a kind of instruction that may hold up the important factors of communicative approach such as student-centeredness and authentic communication, and, on the other hand, maintains the value of the occasional study of some L2 grammatical forms (Long, 1991; Alex Poole, 2005).

Long (1991) and Long and Robinson (1998) believed that focus on form instruction is different from instructions which are aimed at teaching grammatical forms, rather than using language for communication. This type of instruction, which they call focus on forms instruction, focuses on the grammatical forms that the teacher can transmit to his/her students so it is teacher-centered, but focus on form instruction is learner-centered due to its aim of responding to the learners' perceived needs in a spontaneous manner.

Both focus on forms and focus on meaning instruction are valuable and complement each other, but focus on form instruction keeps a balance between these two by calling on the teachers and the students to attend to form when it is needed in a communicative class (Long, 1991, Long & Robinson, 1998, Poole, 2005). Ellis (2001) claimed that form focus instruction is any type of planned or unplanned instructional activity which leads learners to pay attention to form.

Spada (1997, p. 73) asserted, "FFI will mean any pedagogical effort which is used to draw learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly. This can include the direct teaching of grammar language through grammatical rules or reaction to learners' errors". According to Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2002), there are three kinds of basic approaches in form-based instruction. Table 1 shows the syllabus, primary focus and distribution of them. As the table shows, the focus on forms has intensive distribution and structural syllabus and its primary focus is on form. The planned focus on form has tasked based syllabus an intensive distribution and its primary focus is on meaning, in contrast, the incidental focus on form has tasked based syllabus but extensive distribution and its primary focus is on meaning.

Table 1: Types of form-based instruction

| Type | Syllabus | Primary focus | Distribution |
|-----------------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1. Focus on forms | Structural | Form | Intensive |
| 2. Planned focus-on-form | Tasked-based | Meaning | Intensive |
| 3. Incidental focus-on-form | Tasked-based | Meaning | Extensive |

Source: Ellis et al. (2002, p.420)

According to Long and Doughty (2009), fluent reading comprehension requires some processing sub skills and linguistic knowledge bases in order to allow the reader to comprehend texts to the level required. Researches on L2 syntax and discourse knowledge have shown that there are strong relations between these two language knowledge bases and reading comprehension. Researches on Dutch students have shown that grammatical knowledge is a powerful predictor of reading comprehension abilities of students. Studies of Schoonen, Hultijn and Bossers (1998), Van Gelderen et al. (2004) and also both Alderson (2000) and Enright, Bridgeman, Cline, Eignor, Lee, and Powers (2002) (in reading assessment research) have shown the same result that is syntactic knowledge is strongly related to reading comprehension.

Content-Based Instruction (CBI) has been defined as teaching content or information in the second language being learned without direct effort for teaching the language itself (Krahnke, 1987). There are several general subjects that are used in CBI: mathematics, science, and social studies. Crandall (1995) cited that Kessler and Quinn (n.d.) introduced Science Learning and Second Language Acquisition as an example of CBI that is the lesson gives new science concepts to learners through the text and enables them to acquire the language skills in a way that while they interact with the new input, they can develop their language skills too.

Also to support the positive side of CBI, Crandall (1995) cited that according to Penfield and Ornstein-Garlicia's (1981) suggestion, teachers may use the learners' first language to introduce and discuss new scientific concepts, depending on the class situation. The effectiveness of teaching science through CBI is revealed in bilingual as well as monolingual English environments. English can be developed along with learning science (pp. 71-72).

Scholars stated that for a child to comprehend an author's written message it requires him/her to be able to analyze and sort through multiple layers of text meaning. The layers are broken down into four separate processes: First, in order to comprehend a written passage properly, a learner must be able to decode the words on the page (Wagner & Tannenbaum, 2007). Second, he/she needs to hold the information in working memory for long enough time in order to process the information more extensively (Gathercole & Alloway, 2008). Third, the learner must have sufficient vocabulary, grammar and syntactical skills so that he/she can organize and interpret the text efficiently (Paul, 2006; Wallach, 2008). Fourth, learners need to access higher order thinking

skills in order to process the text and go beyond the surface layer of it and infer possible meaning (Wolf, 2008).

Furthermore, there are several studies in which researchers have experimentally attempted to increase attention to form within an overall focus on meaning. For example, Hulstijn (1989) measured the effect of exposing learners to target texts and giving them activities which require focus either on meaning or on form. He found that meaning group scored better than formal group and even showed no disadvantage on form-oriented activities (also Doughty, 1991). Similarly, Spada and Lightbown (1993, p.218) decided to compare a purely communicative control group with another communicative group but with focus on form added to it. However, they declared that it was the unplanned “context embedded focus on form” that occurred unexpectedly in their control group (by the “wayward” teacher) that caused comparison subjects to outperform the experimental group.

Finally, since there is not enough research in the educational context in reading comprehension, this study tries to analyze English teaching and learning in the context of education in Iran from practical perspectives, through ‘focus on form’ and ‘focus on meaning’ theories so, it wants to disclose whether form-focused instruction or meaning-focused instruction has any effect on the development of reading comprehension among elementary learners in a CBI setting.

METHODOLOGY

Participants and Setting

For the purpose of this study, SAMA guidance school (related to Islamic Azad University) in Mashhad, Ghasem-abad was chosen as the research site. All the students in this school participated in content classes such as science, math and computer. They were at elementary level, however, they were more competent than their peers in other schools due to their content classes and extra English classes they had in SAMA institute.

Among 100 students, 86 students were qualified for the research due to the result of Nelson test. Their age ranged from 13-14. They were divided into three groups of 28, 28, and 30 participants. Two groups were chosen as the experimental groups and the other as the control group. Therefore, 86 students were taught under three different conditions: each class was randomly assigned to one condition: the form-focused instruction group (N=30), the meaning-focused instruction group (N=28), and the control group (N=28).

Instrumentation

First, Nelson English language test, series 050A, developed by Fowler and Coe (1976) was used to determine the learners’ level of proficiency and homogenize the students in terms of English language proficiency. It consisted of two sections: structure and vocabulary in the form of multiple choice questions. There were, 50 items and the time allotted was about 40 up to 45 minutes. The Nelson test is a standard test, however, in order to test the reliability of the test in this study for these students in Iran, a Kuder-Richardson was calculated to determine the degree of internal consistency. The analysis was done considering the data from the whole participants taking part in the study. The value gained through the analysis is 0.602 which is considered at an acceptable level of reliability.

Second, a reading comprehension test from Cambridge Key English Test (2008) (KET) was administered as both pre-test and post-test. It consisted of four reading comprehensions each with seven multiple questions.

Design

The design of this study is quasi-experimental design, since it was impossible for the researcher to set learners randomly to these three classes. The subjects in this study were somehow intact, but the researcher administered two tests: 1) Nelson English language test, series 050A, developed by Fowler and Coe (1976) as homogeneity test and selected 28, 28, and 30 participants in each group. 2) A reading comprehension test from Cambridge Key English Test (2008, KET) as a pre-test in order to make sure that they are at the same level of language proficiency. KET was used to compare the data from pretest and post-test in order to see which treatment is efficient. After that the researcher divided the students into two experimental and one control groups. Experimental groups received treatment, while the control group did not. After the treatment, the participants were asked to take the reading comprehension test, again as a post-test. The results were compared with the subjects' grades which were obtained previously in pre-tests. Therefore, the design of this study would be intact group pretest-posttest design.

Procedure

The researcher went to SAMA school and talked about this study with the guidance school principal. After accepting the request, she introduced the researcher to her colleagues and let her start the study. This study was conducted in the second semester of 1390-91 in SAMA guidance school in three groups. First, the Nelson English language test was administered. The test takers were 100 female students. Only 86 students passed the test. The rationale for administering this test is to determine the subjects with nearly the same proficiency level. The passing mark was 30 out of 50. Those who scored 30 – 35 have been considered to have the same level of proficiency for this study. After the test administration, the subjects who acquired the acceptable score were chosen to contribute to the investigation in each group. Then, two groups were randomly considered as experimental groups and one as control group. After that the researcher used another test (KET reading comprehension tests) as a pretest in order to find out students' ability level of reading comprehension before doing the treatment. Next, the appropriate form and meaning-focused instructions were implemented as a treatment for each experimental group. Treatment was implemented in two months for about 16 sessions. At the end of term, the two experimental groups along with the one control group were given KET reading comprehension tests again as the post test.

In FFI group, it was tried to involve the learners more with form and grammatical points. It is important to mention that because the subjects of the study were school students they used their own books (their content books: Science in English) like other groups in this research. At first, the teacher introduced the topic by asking direct or indirect questions and showing related pictures for motivating learners and activating their background knowledge. Then, the students were asked to read a text from their course book (Science by Poursafar & YousefiNamin, 2010) paragraph by paragraph. Students had no dictionary for unknown words. However, when students wanted to ask the meaning of a word, the teacher would provide the necessary meaning of the word. When reading was completed, she addressed the questions or comments of the students.

After completing the text, the students did some activities after the teacher's modeling the steps of the activities. In this activity, each pair of students read the text again and tried to underline the structures that they saw. Students had 5 to 10 minutes for this activity depending on the length of the text. After that the teacher asked some volunteers to come to the board and discuss or even teach the points they knew about the forms other students could ask their related problems on that structure. Moreover, they had some home activities. The teacher divided them in some groups and assigned some tasks to each member. They had to find a text, of course related to their own lesson in school which is science, from internet or short story books. Then they read it, underlined the form structures and made questions and answered them.

The next step was checking and reviewing their individual tasks with their friends and then delivered their work to the teacher. Another activity which they had to do was a kind of short class research. In this activity, each group chose one topic from their book and they read at least two related texts about it. Then, they tried to write a short paragraph about whatever they understood from their studies with their own sentences and also they had to care about the form and structure of their sentences. The researcher's aim in assigning these different activities was just motivating the students and keeping them fresh. Besides the different activities, the researcher had a short list of grammatical points which most of the subjects had problem with, and tried to focus on those points more than others in the activities. She made this list through analyzing the results of the Nelson test.

In the second experimental group, MFI, the first part of this treatment is similar to the form-focused instruction group that is the teacher had a kind of warm up by talking about the topic in order to awaken students' background knowledge. Then, the students were asked to read a text paragraph by paragraph and state the main idea of each paragraph. The teacher answered the students' questions or comments about words' meaning. Upon the completion of the text, students had pair or group discussion tasks. The teacher gave discussion topics based on the texts of students' course book (Appendix). First, students worked in pairs, and discussed the topic. Then the entire groups discussed the topics in class with each other while the teacher managed and observed the discussion. They had some home activities, too. The teacher divided them in some groups and assigned some tasks to each member. They had to find a text, which is related to their own lesson, from internet or short story books. Then, they have to read it at home and discuss about the main idea of their text in class. Also, for motivating the students they sometimes have short class research activity like the form-focused group but, in this group students give lecture about the texts which they had read (the teacher did not ask them to be careful about the structures during their lecture).

Within the control group, the teacher talked about the topic in order to activate student's background knowledge. Then the students read the text paragraph by paragraph, and after which the teacher provided learners with the new words and paraphrased the text. Learners' homework included a text which was summarized and paraphrased by the students, and the text's questions were answered. The teacher was the authority and the only source of knowledge, and students were passive recipients of knowledge presented to them.

Finally, on the last session in all three groups, the KET reading comprehension test was administered as the post-test of the students' achievement in reading comprehension.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to sort and display data in a meaningful way, the researcher went through different statistical procedures. The Kolmogorov-smirnov normality test beside the one way ANOVA (or equivalent tests such as Welch if needed) and scheffe post hoc test were used in three groups of form-focused instruction, meaning-focused instruction and control groups in pretest, posttest and language proficiency tests.

After checking the normality of data by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for all data in KET reading comprehension test (Table 2), in order to ensure the homogeneity of groups at the beginning of the research, one-way ANOVA (or equivalent tests such as Welch if needed) was used.

Table 2: Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for KET

| Group | Variable | N | Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z | p-value |
|---------|----------|----|----------------------|---------|
| Control | Pre | 28 | .970 | .303 |
| | Post | 28 | 1.011 | .259 |
| Form | Pre | 30 | .759 | .612 |
| | Post | 30 | 1.146 | .145 |
| Meaning | Pre | 28 | .692 | .725 |
| | Post | 28 | .492 | .969 |

To ensure the homogeneity of groups with respect to reading comprehension, one-way ANOVA was used. As Table 3 shows there is no significant difference ($F=1.312$, $P=.275 > 0.05$) among three groups with respect to reading comprehension. The results show P-Value equals .098 which is more than $\alpha = 0.05$.

Table 3: Results of one-way ANOVA for pretest

| | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | P-value |
|----------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|---------|
| Between Groups | 15.120 | 2 | 7.560 | 1.312 | .275 |
| Within Groups | 478.229 | 83 | 5.762 | | |
| Total | 493.349 | 85 | | | |

After two months (about sixteen sessions) of treatment, the KET reading comprehension test was administered again in control and experimental groups. In order to find out each group's reading comprehension development, the three groups were presented with the same reading comprehension test as pretest. Since equality of variance which is one of the ANOVA defaults is

not established (the Levene test was used to ensure the constancy of variances), it is better to use ANOVA equivalent tests such as WELCH, Brown-Forsythe. Table 4 shows there is a significant difference among three groups according to the treatment that they have received. Results show that Welch and Brown-Forsythe tests' P-Value are 0.002 and 0.007 respectively, which are less than is $\alpha = 0.05$. The null hypothesis can be rejected with 95 percent. This means that there is a significant difference between scores in experimental and control groups.

Table 4: Results of WELCH, Brown-Forsythe for Posttest

| | Statistic ^a | df1 | df2 | Sig. |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|-----|--------|------|
| Welch | 7.145 | 2 | 52.029 | .002 |
| Brown-Forsythe | 5.260 | 2 | 71.910 | .007 |
| a. Asymptotically F distributed. | | | | |

The highest rank in the experimental group is the form group which got 11.13 and the other experimental group (meaning group) that obtained 10.85 is ranked as second. The control group (9.10) is ranked as third.

Table 5: Results of Scheffe post hoc test for posttest

| Group | N | Subset for alpha = 0.05 | |
|---|----|-------------------------|---------|
| | | 1 | 2 |
| Control | 28 | 9.1071 | |
| Meaning | 28 | | 10.8571 |
| Form | 30 | | 11.1333 |
| Sig. | | 1.000 | .921 |
| Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed. | | | |
| a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 28.636. | | | |
| b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed. | | | |

As Table 5 shows, there is a significant difference in form and control groups. Also there is no significant difference in form and meaning groups. Therefore, it can be said that students' reading comprehension development in form focused group is much better than control group while there is not a very significant difference in the reading comprehension development of students in form focused group and meaning-focused group.

CONCLUSION

The whole findings of this study can be clarified in light of research null hypotheses:

1. Attention to form in content based classroom has no impact on the development of Iranians' guidance school students' reading comprehension,
2. Meaning-focused tasks through content based instruction will not lead to the development of reading comprehension.

In order to test the null hypotheses, three groups of 28, 28, 30 students were selected through applying a Nelson English Language Test (Book1, elementary learners) from among 100 EFL learners. Next, learners received different treatment base on the research aims. Finally, the students' score in reading comprehension tests (KET) were compared through different statistical analyses.

The result of the first null hypothesis was rejected surprisingly, showing the fact that learners achieved higher reading comprehension development in form-focused instruction group. Although, it was expected that focus on form will not impact on the development of reading comprehension. The second null hypothesis was rejected, too. But, statistical results show that meaning-focused instruction have less impact on reading comprehension development than the form-focused instruction. In fact, there is not very much significant difference between these two groups.

These findings also indicated that form-focused activities (such as underlining structures) can familiarize learners with grammatically correct and meaningful sentences while meaning-focused activities (such as discussion) help learners to be fluent even with ungrammatical meaningful sentences. So, when they (subjects in meaning-focused group) were encountered the correct forms in text, they were unfamiliar with those forms. The form and meaning activities were implemented generally and the students did not aware of the aim of those activities which were reading comprehension development.

Implementation of procedures that help learners process comprehensible input while at the same time giving them opportunities for language awareness, has been one of the greatest challenges for EFL teachers. In other words, effective language teaching needs input processing and acquisition, which is combined with focus on form (Bourke, 2008). Language awareness has to do with the raising of learners' awareness of features of the target language. Therefore, the teacher's role is not the "all knowing one", but he/she is a facilitator of learning.

Another point is that the teacher should realize the importance of pair/group work for learners' language learning in general. Pair/group work gives students a strong sense of motivation and accomplishment. Students can help each other to perform the activities which they do not handle by themselves. In this study, participants in both experimental groups were involved in pair/group work and tried to handle their problems in understanding meaning of texts and also their linguistic difficulties with the help of their peers and their teacher.

Seba's case study in 2008 confirms the role of focus on form in group work for enhancing reading comprehension. Moreover, Shak (2006) referred in her article that learners find their own linguistic shortcomings and develop strategies for solving them during working with a partner. This process which includes cognitive comparison tends to raise learners' awareness of certain grammatical structures. Therefore, this study also tried to use the positive points of the previous researches' results in its experimental groups by putting participants in several groups and assigning different activities proper to each experimental group. Also, the role of the teacher was the mediator and the facilitator.

Finally, familiarity with the activity procedures is an important point in accurate accomplishment of the activity. Therefore, teacher's modeling of the activity is useful at the first sessions of instruction. Moreover, it is critical to provide students with feedback because students tend to remember their incorrect solutions. Consequently, the teacher as a facilitator of learning process needs to be available during activities and attends to the accuracy of the final product.

Some important limitations to this study which should be noted: First, this study was conducted in the context of Mashhad SAMA junior high school which is a CBI context; therefore, more investigation could be carried out in order to see whether similar results will be obtained in other settings. Moreover, randomizing the subjects was not possible because these classes already existed at schools. Therefore, subjects were intact and a quasi-experimental design was implemented. Then, the female students were the only participants in the study, therefore, the factor of sex was not cleared up that is it is not obvious whether utilizing form-focused and meaning-focused instruction would be more beneficial for a particular sex or not.

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APPENDIX

Discussion Topics

Students talked about the following topics:

1. Talk about plants. How do plants grow from seeds?
2. Talk about different kinds of animals. How do some animals without backbones live?
3. Discuss about the properties of matter. What makes up matter?
4. Talk about the galaxy. What do you know about sun, moon, and planets? Discuss about the earth moves.

5. Talk about whatever you know about your body. The importance of bones and muscles for your body.
6. Discuss about your body health needs. How can you stay healthy? What causes disease?
7. Talk about energy. What do you know about different kinds of energy? Discuss about different energy changes in your body and in nature.
8. Talk about the universe. How do scientists learn from space?

CORPORA USE IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH WRITING

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ABSTRACT

This study mainly focuses on how to use corpora to help students develop their English writing skills. The rapid growth of technology has made it more easily available for teachers and students to have access to online corpora. However, the use of corpora in the English writing classroom is still a practice many teachers are not very familiar with. Hence, the paper makes a summary of the characteristics of the main popular British and America Corpora. Then it demonstrates online corpora are useful resources to aid students in two aspects ---words choice, sentence-level errors correction. The results indicate that Corpus-Assisted instruction is one of the positive and effective ways in teaching English writing, as well as to minimize the teacher's workload.

KEYWORDS: English, Corpora, Writing skills, Word choice, Errors correction

INTRODUCTION

In [linguistics](#), a corpus (plural *corpora*) or text corpus is a large and structured set of texts (now usually electronically stored and processed). They are used to do statistical analysis and [hypothesis testing](#), checking occurrences or validating linguistic rules on a specific universe.

McEnery (2006), define a corpus in modern linguistics as “a collection of sampled texts, written or spoken, in machine-readable form which may be annotated with various forms of linguistic information” (p. 4). That is to say, a corpus is a compilation of natural texts stored into a computer that contains interpretative linguistic information that is useful for the analysis of a language. According to Cook (2003), through the systematic analysis of corpora, it is possible to observe the different patterns and regularities of language use.

[Jabbour \(2001\)](#) points out that “a corpus approach befits teaching second language reading and writing, since both activities are text oriented and make use of words and word combinations, or lexical patterns, within the confines of discourse” (p. 294). In other words, a corpus approach provides meaningful input into the language side of L2 writing instruction, while important rhetorical concerns and issues may be in the teaching and learning of writing in another language, the language domain—syntax, punctuation, style, vocabulary development, etc.—also commands attention. L2 writers, particularly below the advanced level of proficiency, are also language learners eager to develop greater knowledge and command of the linguistic resources necessary for effective writing. A corpus is now seen as a primary contributor of these resources because, as [Tao \(2001\)](#) observes, of its “potential to make explicit the more common patterns of language use” (p. 116).

Corpus-based activity has also been considered beneficial to L2 writing by offering learners a rich experience of real language ([Thurstun J. & C.N Candlin, 1998](#)). Corpora, which are, as noted earlier, databases of authentic language uses culled from multiple sources, provide learners with large quantities of real-life target language discourse. Exposure to these examples of genuine language use can enrich learners' understanding of specific uses of target words in a wide variety of contexts and expand their English knowledge. Students' encounters with these multiple samples of discourse combinations should then contribute to growth as L2 writers.

This paper will mainly focus on how to use corpora to help students develop their English writing skills. In details, the paper will demonstrate online corpora are useful resources to aid students in two aspects---words choice, sentence-level errors correction. It proves to be that Corpus-Assisted instruction is one of the positive and effective ways to develop students' English writing skills, as well as to minimize the teacher's workload.

THE REALITY OF EVER-INCREASING TEACHER'S WORKLOADS

Gene Fowler, American journalist and biographer said: "Writing is easy. All you do is to sit staring at a blank sheet of paper until drops of blood form on your forehead." Writing can be a slow, painful process even in our mother tongue, but when it is in a second language the problems (and the pain) are magnified. Given the amount of conscious effort involved in the writing process, learners in English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) classrooms understandably expect feedback on their work and may feel discouraged if it is not provided ([Hedge 1988](#)).

The difficulty for the teacher, however, is in balancing the needs of individual students for meaningful feedback with the unfortunate reality of ever-increasing workloads. In our universities, for example, it is not uncommon for teachers to have at least 3 English classes, with 70 or so students per class. This means around 121 essays to mark for each assignment every other week, especially CET-4 is approaching, this number can easily double or triple.

THE MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF ONLINE CORPORA

In response to the needs and difficulties of writing, Here, the paper strongly recommend the teachers and students who teach and learn English writing the four popular free-online corpora—two America English and two British English Corpora. They are believed to be beneficial in English writing.

The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)

The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) (<http://corpus.byu.edu/coca>) is the largest freely-available corpus of English. The corpus contains more than [425 million words](#) of text and is equally divided among spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic texts. It includes [20 million words each year from 1990-2011](#) and the corpus is also updated once or twice a year (the most recent texts are from March 2011). Because of its design, it is perhaps the only corpus of English that is suitable for looking at [current, ongoing changes](#) in the language.

The interface allows you to search for [exact words or phrases, wildcards, lemmas, part of speech, or any combinations of these](#). You can [search for surrounding](#) words (collocates), within a ten-word window (e.g. all nouns somewhere near *faint*, all adjectives near *woman*, or all verbs near *feelings*), which often gives you good insight into the meaning and use of a word. The corpus also allows you to easily [limit searches by frequency and compare the frequency](#) of words, phrases, and grammatical constructions, in at least two main ways:

By genre: comparisons between spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic, or even between sub-genres (or domains), such as movie scripts, sports magazines, newspaper editorial, or scientific journals.

Over time: compare different years from 1990 to the present time. You can also easily carry out semantically-based queries of the corpus. For example, you can contrast and [compare](#) the collocation of [two related words](#) (little/small, democrats/republicans, men/women), to determine the difference in meaning or use between these words. You can find the frequency and distribution of [synonyms](#) for nearly 60,000 words and also compare their frequency in different genres, and also use these word lists as part of other queries. Finally, you can easily create your own lists, of semantically-related words, and then use them directly as part of the query.

Word and Phrase Information

WORD AND PHRASE. INFO (<http://www.wordandphrase.info>). This site allows you to see detailed information on the top 60,000 words (lemmas) of English, based on data from the [Corpus of Contemporary American English \(COCA\)](#).

WORDS: You can see the overall frequency for each word, as well as the frequency of words in different kinds of English -- spoken, fiction, magazines, newspapers, and academic writing. For each word you can also find the 20-30 most frequent collocates (nearby words) and see 200 or more concordance lines (words in context). You can also see a list of synonyms and (from WordNet) words with more specific and more general meanings, and in all of these cases you can click to see the entries for those related words as well.

TEXT: You can enter any text that you would like in the form at the left -- for example, a paper that you've written, or a newspaper article that you've copied from another website. After inputting the text, you can then see useful information about words and phrases in that text. First, it will highlight all of the medium and lower-frequency words in your text and create lists of these words that you can use offline. This frequency data can help language learners focus on new words, and it can allow you to see "what the text is about" (i.e. text-specific words). You can also have it show you the "academic" words in your text.

Second, you can click through the words in the text to see a detailed "word sketch" of any of the words -- showing their definition, and detailed information for the word from COCA -- collocates (which provide meaning into the meaning and usage of the word), re-sortable concordance lines, and the frequency of the word (overall, and by genre). Finally, you can do powerful searches on selected phrases in your text, to show related phrases in COCA. In this way, this resource is like a "collocational thesaurus" to see what related phrases are most likely in different styles of English.

For example, if you click on the words *potent argument* in the text that you enter, it will suggest alternate ways to express this (e.g. *powerful* or *convincing argument*), and it will show you the frequency of those phrases in COCA -- overall, and by genre. This will help you use "just the right phrase", based on a huge collection of native English texts.

The British National Corpus (BNC)

The British National Corpus (<http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/>) provides a representative sample of contemporary English, as experienced by a British speaker- though the issue of representativeness is a very thorny one. BNC is a 100 million word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20th century, both spoken and written. The latest edition is the *BNC XML Edition*, released in 2007.

Written part: The written part of the BNC (90%) includes, for example, extracts from regional and national newspapers, specialist periodicals and journals for all ages and interests, academic books and popular fiction, published and unpublished letters and memoranda, school and university essays, among many other kinds of text.

Spoken part: The spoken part (10%) consists of orthographic transcriptions of unscripted informal conversations (recorded by volunteers selected from different age, region and social classes in a demographically balanced way) and spoken language collected in different contexts, ranging from formal business or government meetings to radio shows and phone-ins.

The Bank of English (BoE)

The Bank of English (<http://www.collins.co.uk>) is another well-known British corpus, has sub-corpora of informal speech, various newspapers, books and magazines, BBC World Service broadcasts, and spoken and written data from the USA and Australia.

USING CORPORA TO DEVELOP STUDENTS' ENGLISH WRITING SKILLS

Proper Word Choice

Language can be used as a means to control people and influence what they think and do (Bourdieu, 1991; Fairclough, 1995). The choice of words, sentence structure, register, or discourse structure can radically alter people's perceptions toward a method, a belief, or an ideology. Strong word choice is characterized not so much by an exceptional vocabulary chosen to impress the reader, but more by the skill to use everyday words well.

Here's a problem in students' writing like "负责" in the sentence "我负责学生会", they always confuse by the words and phrase such as run, manage, be in charge of, be responsible for. Based on the evidence from corpora, students would be well advised to stay clear of the word "run" and the phrase *in charge of*, both of which would seem to be associated with power (e.g., *run the show*, *in charge of the country*). In addition, the data show that "run" frequently occurs with nouns which describe non-human entities and may give the feeling to the native-speaker audience that their new masters regard them as automatons who simply have to be told what to do. Meanwhile, the verb "manage" or a phrase such as "responsible for" which do not seem to carry the same connotation of power and are more frequently associated with people. Given the corpus evidence, the students finally use the utterances such as *I am responsible for Student Union* or *I manage the Student Union* and to avoid phrases like *I am in charge of Student Union* or *I run the Student Union*.

Another example is that a student who wants to use the word “*inquire*” in an essay might be confused about which words best “collocate,” or link, with that word. By connecting to a corpus database and then typing in the word “*inquire*,” also known as a keyword because it activates a search procedure and something called a “concordance program,” the student would eventually see a long list of actual uses of the word with different collocations. These uses occur in the form of portions of sentences, with the keyword positioned in the middle of them. The purpose of the concordance program is to produce such a list. Each example of the keyword in use is a concordance, and the concordancing program provides a series of concordances, as reflected in the following samples for the keyword “*inquire*”:

They will then be able to offer advice and first hand experience when parents *inquire about* good local schools.

When he started to *inquire about* my life, I deflected the conversation by saying that I had sold one of the famille rose vases.

They were both widows, so there was no husband's welfare to *inquire about*.

There is, however, no general duty actively to *inquire about* contracts between others.

The American military government resented the presence of UNTCOK since it was bound to *inquire into* many features of the political scene,

They *inquire into* the consequences of historical events.

Occasionally special committees were set up to *inquire into* particularly important or topical questions.

The Royal Government had decided to recommend the appointment of a Royal Commission to *inquire into* the possible limitation or modification of the death penalty. We first acknowledge the person and only *inquire into* facts later if necessary.

If you search <http://www.wordandphrase.info/analyzeText.asp>, some samples for the same word can be shown as the following:

| | | | | | | | |
|---|------|---|---------|-------|-------------|------------|--|
| 1 | MAG | ...rader's dockside headquarters to buy a hat or sweatshirt and | inquire | about | a | future | sail . Same time next year ? Arrou |
| 2 | SPOK | ...says he 's already contacted the city 's budget department to | inquire | about | a | payback | for a search that included more 100 police |
| 3 | FIC | ... , laughing now , too , and so I do n't | inquire | about | a | special | number , or if we should carry bu |
| 4 | MAG | ...Ruben S. Ojeda , Pasadena (626/564-2688) // You should | inquire | about | a | tile | 's durability . Every ceramic tile can r |
| 5 | ACAD | ...was sent to a national sample of 360 school psychologists to | inquire | about | about | current | accountability practices . Pot |
| 6 | SPOK | ...I accompanied her to University of Chicago emergency room to | inquire | about | admittance | or | to inquire about getting som and that |
| 7 | NEWS | ...at the narrow mobile home 30 miles north of Detroit to | inquire | about | an | unsigned | " sexually suggestive " note f found on |
| 8 | MAG | ...of on-site baby-sitting services ? You may also want to | inquire | about | available | activities | in and around your lodg area . By |
| 9 | MAG | ...by the Grief Recovery Institute . Call your local hospital and | inquire | about | bereavement | programs | . Check your local newspaper for |

The information above is known collectively by the more technical term, “concordance output.” Students can study this output, or information, closely and see how a keyword operates in context with closely related words. They can also obtain a second key type of output known as “collocate output.” Collocate output indicates how often (within the larger corpus) a keyword is collocated, or linked, with specific surrounding words. Students will encounter additional statistical information about the frequency of this collocation. With this information at hand, students can then compose their own sentences using the keyword with increased knowledge of how to link the word with appropriate collocates.

Sentence-level Correction

Teachers face difficult decisions on how to best utilize limited time and resources both inside and outside the classroom to correct students’ essays. A greater focus on accuracy is likely to reduce the amount of actual writing practice students get and affect their fluency, while less attention to mistakes may deprive them of the tailored feedback they need to develop their interlanguage. In addition, practical realities can often outweigh any pedagogical considerations, with teachers simply too busy to provide more individual feedback even when they believe it would be beneficial.

One effective way to encourage students to focus more on error correction, while at the same time providing them with the support they need, is to train them in methods to query online corpora. Here is an example to demonstrate how to use online corpora to improve student’s drifts, let us look at some student writing errors:

- A. ‘Since then, the food price started to soar... ’
- B. ‘...the boy’s confidence changed greatly ’
- C. ‘... Her parents died for a car accident’

Ask students to work in pairs, try to decide what the problems are with each of these sentences.

Analysis:

In (A), a search using the keywords *since+then* in COBUILD (or COCA and WordandPhrase.Info) gives the following example sentences (known as concordance lines) from the corpus: Episcopal church services has increased by 23 *since* then. [p] What difference would it make if Constitutional Committee in 1991 and have *since* then served on panels dealing with a wideas a grade A8 administrator in May 1993 and *since* then have worked in Directorate-General 1Aoldest members. They were elected in 1920 and *since* then their relationship has been a close18 months ago after a bloody military coup. *Since* then thousands of Haitian refugees have been

From these examples, we can see that “*since then*” is typically used with the present perfect tense in native speakers’ texts (have + past participle) and we can conclude that (i) should be rewritten as ‘Since then, the food price has started to soar ... ’

In (B), a search for *confidence+changed* in COBUILD (or COCA and WordandPhrase.Info) produces the following: Lookup Error: No matches.

This means that there are no examples of this pattern in the whole COBUILD corpus, which is made up of 56 million words! We can therefore conclude that this is not a natural expression. So how would a native speaker write this idea? A search using the keyword “*confidence*” produces the following example concordance lines:

Gary seems to grow in *confidence* the more he plays.
I was tearful all the time and I lost my *confidence*.
I couldn't sleep and I suffered from lost and bewildered. How can I regain my *confidence*?
I should be reaching and I have got my *confidence* back.
He felt that the market reached its lowest point in the first half of last year and that a number of signs now pointed to returning *confidence*.
Only the person to whom the duty of *confidence* is owed will be allowed to sue; in other words, an outsider who is adversely affected by trading in shares to which the information relates, will again have no remedy.
It would not have the *confidence* of the people, so it would never work.

From these examples, we can see that there are many ways to describe how confidence changes in English, depending on whether it increases or decreases.

In (C), a search using the keywords “*car accident*” in the BNC produces the following example concordance lines: CN3 815 To take one example, a man was killed in a car accident. CEK 1948 Her husband dies in a car accident alongside another woman and driven by grief and jealousy, she investigates his secret life and becomes G15 2972 For many years, Marek wrote, he had believed his mother when she said his father had been killed in a car accident. HH0 2263 In fact I cause a car accident by obstructing someone's driveway. HWL 7 I covered the mouthpiece and said: `Salome's been involved in a car accident.

We can see from these examples that ‘was killed in ...’ (passive construction) or ‘somebody died in ...’ are more appropriate structures to use.

To sum up, such an approach allows students to learn how to revise their drafts. This experience is both meaningful and valuable. In the course, students go beyond the language they learn in the classroom and in their books, what’s more, have a better understanding and enrich knowledge of the use of English language.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we explored both British and America Corpora provide significant and authentic resources for English teaching and learning. Teachers can develop instructional materials and activities involving a corpus-based orientation; students can make a proper choice of words in English writing and revise their drafts within Corpora. In the course, students go beyond the language they learn in the classroom and in their books, what’s more, have a better understanding and enrich knowledge of the use of English language. So, it’s one of the best ways to improve student’s English writing skills; as well as minimize the teachers’ workload. However, corpora may sound reasonable in theory, applying it to the classroom is challenging, because the information it provides appears to be so chaotic. For this reason, it is the teacher's responsibility to harness a corpus by filtering the data for the students. Personally, I support having students conduct their own analyses. This paper, of course, is only the tip of the iceberg. The further studies on how to use Corpora to develop students’ English writing skills are expected more and need both educators and researchers corporate effort.

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THE USE OF EFL STUDENTS' L1 IN ENGLISH CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

This empirical study was carried out to observe classroom dynamics in terms of the quantity of use of L1 in two third grader high school intact classes in Andimeshk, Iran. The aim of the study was to investigate both students and teachers' perceptions and attitudes toward the use of Farsi (L1) in English (L2) classes. After analyzing the data gathered using classroom observations and interviews, it was concluded that an excessive use of Persian (L1) could have a demotivating effect on the students. The outcomes of this study were in line with other similar studies carried out in different contexts. One of these studies of which this research is a replication was conducted by Mahmoudi (2011). This study also showed that the over use of L1 in L2 classes might lead to students' dissatisfaction.

Key Words: L1 (Persian), L2 (English), Attitudes.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the history of language teaching in general and English language teaching in particular, the role of the students' native language and its influence on the L2 learning has been the focus of many linguists, researchers and teachers. Since the time when classical languages including Greek and Latin were taught to many learners there has been a general assumption that the only job of the students was to translate either from Latin and Greek to their L1 or vice versa. Then when audio-lingualism was in its heyday, the use of learners' L1 was supposed to be totally banned. The reason was the assumption that there might be negative influence coming from L1 to L2 learning. The use of the students' native language in foreign language classes has always been a matter of "to be or not to be". This is a very controversial area as different theories of second

language acquisition propose different hypotheses about the value of L1 use in L2 classes. Some theories have advocated a monolingual approach because they believe that the processes of L2 and L1 learning are identical. They believe that maximum exposure to L2 and least exposure to L1 are of crucial importance may obstruct L2 learning process (Krashen, 1981; Cook, 2001). Yet, some language experts and educationalists have argued against the complete elimination of L1 from L2 classes (Nation, 2003; Larsen-Freeman, 2001) and have reiterated that a judicious and well-planned use of L1 can give positive results. As it was mentioned at the beginning of this introduction, the role of the native language has had a rocky history during the course of second language acquisition research. This subfield of SLA has come to be known as language transfer. It has always been assumed that, in a second language learning situation, learners rely extensively on their native language.

Lado, in his early and influential book, *Linguistics Across Culture* (1957: 2), states this clearly:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture – both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced natively.

Lado's work and much of the work of that time was based on the need to produce pedagogically relevant materials. To produce these native language –based materials, it was necessary to do a contrastive analysis of the native language and target language (Gass & Selinker, 2008). This entailed making detailed comparisons to find similarities and differences between L1 and L2.

In this study, the point which requires special attention is the attitudes and perceptions of teachers and pupils as the key players of L2 classes towards using L1. Teachers' and students' attitudes on the use of L1 in L2 classes have been sought in different countries and contexts of English language teaching. Schweers (1999) conducted a research on the use of Spanish as the students' L1 in English classes at the University of Puerto Rico to see how frequently the teachers used L1 in their English classes. He reported that almost all students supported the use of Spanish in English classes. The students believed that using L1 in English classes could lead to better understanding of texts and this made students feel more comfortable, less tense and less lost. The researchers added that using L1 led to positive attitudes toward learning English and also it encourages them to learn more English. In the same line, Kim Anh (2010) studied the attitudes of Vietnamese university teachers towards using Vietnamese (L1) in teaching English. A questionnaire and a semi-structured interview were used to collect the data. The findings of the study indicated that judicious use of L1 is found to be necessary in some situations in teaching English. In this research, almost all the participants supported the use of L1 in their classes. They stated that L1 was part of their teaching method and could play a positive role in their classroom. Such a view is in line with that of Atkinson (1987) who sees L1 as a classroom resource.

Tang (2002) conducted a similar study in the Chinese context. The data was collected through interviews and classroom observations. The results were to a large extent similar to those of Schweers' (1999) research in the context of Puerto – Rico, but Tang's research added two more reasons for using L1 in L2 classrooms including: effectiveness and being less time consuming. The study revealed that the use of L1 in L2 classes not only doesn't hinder L2 learning but also it helps teaching and learning.

The use of Persian in teaching English in Iran has also been under Scrutiny. Nazary (2008) for instance, elicited the attitudes of Tehran University students towards the use of Persian in English classes. Based on the results obtained from this study, the author concluded that Iranian university students in an unmistakable divergence from the previous studies were reluctant to use Farsi in their L2 (English) classes. This divergence prompted another study conducted by Mahmoudi (2011). The study was carried out to observe classroom dynamics in terms of the quantity of use of Persian on two pre–university Iranian classes. The aim of the study was to seek both the students and the teachers’ perceptions and attitudes towards the use of Persian in English classes. The findings of the study showed that an excessive use of Persian could have a de – motivating effect on students.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The aim of this empirical study is to address the following research question:

- What are third grader high school teachers and students’ attitudes towards the use of Persian (L1) in English (L2) classrooms?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In order to obtain the necessary data for the study two third grader intact high school English classes were selected. There were 25 students in class A and 28 students were in class B. All participants in both classes (A & B) were male. The teaching methodology employed in the two classes will be described in the observation section given below. The age range of the students in both classes was 16–18. The classes were taught by two teachers, holding MA degrees in TEFL. The last but not the least point to put here is that both these schools from which these classes were selected were private schools located at affluent and privileged parts of the city. The study was carried out in Khozestan, Iran.

Instruments

Two instruments were employed to collect the data. They were: observation and interview conducted by the researcher. Both classes were observed to reflect the quantity of Persian (L1) and English (L2) use. In order to provide the researcher with an in–depth understanding of the interviewees’ perceptions, attitudes and feelings semi-structured interviews were employed. Both the teachers and the students were interviewed in Persian. Each interview lasted about 10 to 15 minutes.

Procedures

It lasted a period of 70 days (10 weeks) to collect the required data for the study. That is to say, during this period, every week both classes were observed by the researcher for about 30 to 40 minutes each session. The researcher took note on what happened in both classes on the part of

the teachers and the students. Based on their mid-term scores, 4 students from each class as high achieving and low achieving students were interviewed. The reason why the students were selected from the extreme points was to see whether they held different or similar attitudes towards the use of Persian and English in their classes. The two teachers were also interviewed to have their attitudes towards the use or no use of L1 (Farsi) in their English (L2) classes.

FINDINGS

The instruments used in this study were observations and semi-structured interviews. Here the main points observed in classes A and B are briefly highlighted.

Class A observation

Throughout the course of observation of class A, the observer could see that the major part of class time was given to focus on grammar exercises, translation of texts, sentences and giving Persian equivalents for all the words and expressions in each lesson. In teaching reading the teacher read the text aloud line by line and translated every sentence and word in the text. After covering the whole text this way, the teacher using Persian explained any and every grammatical point to the class, and the students were supposed to take notes in their L1. The teacher also did his best to translate each sentence into the students' L1. For instance, he occasionally wrote a sentence on the board and encouraged a collective translation of each sentence into Persian.

Class A was nearly observed for about 280 minutes during a ten session program. It was observed that about 70% was purely Persian and the remaining 30% was given to reading over the text, or reading out grammar exercises by the students and teacher. A few words were read aloud by the teacher to show where the stress pattern was. Although the teacher was the only voice in the classroom, he did not have the necessary control over the class. For example, many students were either busy doing assignment for other subjects or they were very noisy. Generally it seemed that the majority of the pupils were not very interested in participating in class activities. Many were bored and tired. That is a general lack of motivation and interest was felt in the class.

Class B observation

In terms of the method of teaching which assigned the teacher and students' behavior in the classroom, this class was different from class A. For example, in teaching reading there was an activation session during which the teacher asked a few general relevant questions to activate the students' background knowledge so there might be better comprehension by them. Then the students were supposed to read the paragraphs of the text one by one. After each paragraph two or three questions relevant to the content of the paragraph were asked so the students' comprehension could be checked for. In case there were any new words in the text the teacher did not provide the students with Persian equivalents for the words. But he informed students of the clues they could use to guess the meaning of the words. He also employed other techniques including giving synonyms, antonyms, examples and the like so the students might get the meaning.

In teaching grammar, the instructor put the grammatical topic of the lesson on the board and gave examples in L2 to show how this structure or grammar point is used. He also asked students to refer to the paragraphs of the passage to underline or specify the sentences constructed based on the grammar point just introduced. It seemed that the teacher was going to focus the students'

attention to the new structures given in the text thereby they could perceive how these structures are actually used in a real context.

The major part of the class time was given to English (L2) to do most of the activities in class. Of course, where necessary a short time explanation in students L1 (Persian) was given by the teacher. Most likely, this teacher chose his way of teaching based on his student's English background in English. That is, most of the students in class B have attended private language institutes. This probably helped both the teacher and the students to be more at ease when English was used in their classes.

Interviews

In order to be better informed of the attitudes and perceptions of teachers and students in both classes one-to-one interviews were conducted with the two teachers and four students in each class. The interview was based on the following questions.

- 1) How much of class time do you speak Persian in your English classes and why do you think teachers should or should not speak Persian in their English classes?

Teacher A:

One main reason to use Persian in my English classes is that I'm always concerned about my students' proficiency in English and I'm afraid they may not understand me. In addition, the use of L1 (Persian) in teaching L2 (English) has been a norm in our English classes and learners expect to be taught the same way. Parents are also concerned about using English by teachers. Because they think that using L2 will have a detrimental effect on the students comprehension of the lesson's which in turn adversely affects their final exams. The teacher himself is not the only one to decide how much Persian to use in teaching English. There are always beyond the class forces regarding this issue. To sum everything up, it is highly that teacher A and his student were not so comfortable to use English in their class because of variables which were not easy to be controlled by the teacher.

Teacher B:

As far as my students can follow me, I try my best to use English (L2) in my English classes. But this does not mean that I don't use Persian while I'm teaching English. I sometimes use L1 in my classes when it is necessary as I think in certain cases using L1 will help me provide a non-threatening environment which is of crucial importance for my English students.... I believe that the way English is taught in Iran will lead us nowhere as our products, our students, have not shown to be very successful in oral communication in English. Of course I'm not here to say that the use of Persian should be banned in our classes, but I'm against the improper over use of L1. It should be used properly.....

- 2) How often do you think teachers should use Persian in their English classes?

Teacher A:

I think the use of L1 is more beneficial in teaching English in our current educational system because the purpose of teaching English in our country is not oral communication.... See the English textbooks. They speak for themselves! I believe the use of L2 depends on the level and background of the students. The needs of the students should also be accounted for. That is to

say, most of our students think of English as a credit course to pass not as a course which may open a window on a new world. Under the current circumstances of English teaching in Iran I believe using L1 is an effective way of teaching L2. You know the students and their families' satisfaction directly influences the teachers' promotion and other fringe benefits of teachers.

Teacher B:

A false belief about teaching English is that, English teachers should by no means employ their student L1 in teaching English to their students. But L1 is inevitably used in both learning and teaching English. However, overusing L1 is not the only way to teach L2 (English). One occasion in which the use of L1 may be of high benefit is when communication in English (L2) fails to happen. In addition, I believe we should not be led by the students and their families' emotions and feelings not to use L2 in our classes.... I think we teachers should be duty – bound and we should try our best to follow the correct principles, because professional issues including theoretically supported methodology of teaching should be dealt with accordingly.

In addition to the teachers of classes A and B two high achieving and two low achieving students were interviewed to see how they think of the use or no use of L1 (Farsi) in teaching L2 (English) by their teachers. The researcher did his best to elicit the students' responses for the following questions.

- 1) Should teachers use L1 in teaching English classes?
- 2) If not, why should teachers not use L1 in teaching English (L2)?
- 3) If yes, in what situations should teachers employ L1?

The high achieving student (class A):

As we participate in our English class, we should always think of the purpose for which we study English. I believe that is communication.... If we attend our English classes to seek that purpose we should hear and speak English to learn it. I think our teacher should speak English in the classroom because this is the only place where we can learn English and practice English. But unfortunately I sometimes think we have two Persian literature teachers as both our Persian literature teacher and our English teacher teach the same way (they both speak Farsi). And this demotivates me to come to our English class not because of the teachers' personality but because of his overuse of Farsi in teaching English. We hear a little English but a lot of Persian. It's very boring to be in an English class where you really learn no English....

The low – achieving student (class A):

Our English teacher speaks Persian most of the time. He translates everything into Farsi. He explains grammar in Persian. We memorize many words and grammar rules. But we cannot use them to speak or write in English. Sometime the class gets very monotonous and boring. We ask our teacher to speak English but he doesn't do it. Definitely we are deprived of the chance of using English even in our English class because of overusing Persian.... Our teacher doesn't want us talk, think or discuss in English. We don't know why we should call such a boring class as English class.

The high – achieving student (class B):

I believe that to learn English in order to communicate with English speaking people we have to listen, speak and discuss in English. Luckily, we have a very active class because our teacher speaks English. His way of speaking is very encouraging. We understand him because he speaks very clearly. He uses very easy words when he speaks. When there is a feeling of non–

understanding our teacher recognizes it. Therefore, he occasionally uses Persian so we may not get confused. Our teacher always encourages us to participate in class activities. For example, he asks us to express ourselves in English. He sometimes uses audio and visual aids in the class to add more fun to classroom activities. Our previous teacher was the only voice in the classroom. We heard little if any English from him and we did not speak English. I like both my English teacher and my English class because now I feel English

The low – achieving student (class B):

When our English teacher speaks English we enjoy our time although we do not understand everything. I think using Persian in English class is very helpful when we cannot understand difficult words and grammar. I believe using Persian is helpful for weaker students who have not had a chance to attend private institutes.... Though my English is not good, I feel our new teacher has managed to make us feel more motivated and interested to learn English. We need to hear English and speak English any way to learn it... . Although one students' view is not easily conclusive , that is to say , one cannot easily generalize and idea expressed by one student to all the other students , it can , however , be a clue for the researcher to see how the students may perceive the use or nonuse of English in their classes

DISCUSSION

Inspired by the rise of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), some experts in the field of language learning and teaching have rejected any use of L1 in L2 learning classes (Atkinson, 1987) while others have advocated the use of L1 as an efficient way to make it easy for the students to understand L2 (Nation, 2005). According to Larsen–Freeman (2012) judicious use of the students' native language is permitted in CLT classes. She further believes that, where ever possible, the target language should be used not only during communicative activities, but also for explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and they realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, not just an object to be studied.

In the same line many experts believe that one main area of concern should be the attitudes and motivation of students to learn and use L2. Depending on the learner's attitudes, learning a second language can be a source of enrichment or a source of resentment. According to Light Bown (2003) if the speaker's only reason for learning the second language is external pressure, internal motivation may be minimal and general attitudes towards learning may be negative. Based on the above mentioned reasons and many studies done in the field, learners' perception, motivation and attitudes towards L2 have been found to be of crucial importance in mastering it. The main aims of this empirical study were to observe the two classes in terms of the quantity of use of L1 as well as to reflect the attitudes and perceptions of the students and teachers towards using Persian (L1) in English (L2) classes. As stated above, the two classes were observed. In class A the teacher mainly used Farsi to do almost anything in the class.

That is to say, the class was dominated by grammar – translation method. In class B however, great attempt was done on the part of the teacher to use English and involve students in group

work activities. The teacher in class B also did use audio – visual aids so the students could be exposed to English more.

In class A the purpose of language learning was found to be reading and translation. The class was then a Grammar Translation Method (GTM) oriented one.

In terms of varieties of activities the two classes were observed to be very different. In class A there was a monotonous and fixed pattern. Most activities were in the fixed framework of translating from either L1 into L2 or vice versa. A great deal of class time was allocated to grammar explanation in Persian. The students were also asked to answer after reading questions and memorize English words together with their Persian equivalents. As the researcher observed the classroom for 10 weeks, it was found that the students did not enjoy their class time. They were very passive and bored. That is to say, the class was not lively. The passivity of the students in class A, as Dornyei (2001; 73–74) believes, could be attributed “first and for most” to the monotony of language tasks. He warns that “both teachers and students can easily turn into the familiar routines. The routines, then, can easily turn into a monotonous ‘daily grind’, with the class losing its edge. Monotony is intensively related to variety.

In class B on the other hand a variety of activities, exercises and tasks were given to the students to do. Group work, pair work, audio visual aids, combining reading with speaking activities in English were used by the teacher so he might better involve every student into the classroom dynamics.

Indeed, in class B the teacher was aware of the importance of employing various types of activities so that the monotony of the class atmosphere may lessen.

Using such a kind of diverse language tasks and activities, as Dornyei (2001) puts it, could guarantee the breaking of learning monotony and making teaching – learning an enjoyable experience to both teachers and their pupils.

In order to better delve into the students attitudes and perceptions about the use of L1 (Persian) in their L2 (English) class interviewing with teachers and students was another source of data. Teacher A was greatly in favor of using Persian in his class because he believed in the context of Iranian schools, the syllabus designed and the content of the books are not very suitable for teaching and learning English communicatively. He also claimed that in terms of their proficiency the Iranian students are not homogeneous. He mentioned the lack of enough time and the likes and disliked of the students’ parents related to the method that teachers apply in their classes. However such a stance is rejected by Larsen – Freeman (2012) who believes that L1 should be used only judiciously.

As another source of data two students from each class were also interviewed. These students were high achiever and low achievers in both classes. That is from each class a high and a low achieving student was interviewed. After they were interviewed both high and low achieving students in class A and B had rather similar attitudes towards using Persian in their English classes. All four students were in favor of using more L2 in their English classes. Of course, this is in sharp contrast with Butzkam (2003; 36) who believes “with growing proficiency in the foreign language, the use of native language becomes largely redundant and the foreign language will stand on its own two feet”. The findings of this study are not also in line with another study conducted by other researchers including AL–Nofaie (2010) and Brooks Levis, (2009). They both claimed that in their context L2 learners are in favor of using L1 in L2 classes.

The findings of the present study are yet in line with another two studies carried out by Mahmoudi (2011) and Nazary (2008). In the first study a group of pre – university students were observed and interviewed to see what their perception and attitudes towards the use of L1 in teaching L2 were. The study came to the conclusion that L2 domination in L2 classes is supported. The present study is, of course, a replication of the study done by Mahmoudi but in a different context and on different subjects. The second study was carried out by Nazary. The participants were a group of Tehran University students. They were found to be reluctant to use L1 (Persian) in L2 (English) classes on the grounds that any minutes of using L1 will diminish a minute of their exposure to L2.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study are in line with the previous studies done in the Iranian context. The study shows that the third grader high school students like pre–university students in Mahmoudi’s study (2011) and university students in that of Nazary were supportive of L2 domination in their English classes and they were reluctant of excessive use of Persian (L1) in the context of Iranian schools. However, the results of this study are by no means prescriptive, because as Ellis (2008; 801) points out, the use of L1 in L2 classes depends on the instructional contexts. Another important point for conclusion is that there is a relationship between teachers’ attitudes and their classroom practice. This goes along with Richards (1982) viewpoint that teachers’ classroom practices could be viewed as reflections of their beliefs and perceptions about the nature of language and how language is learnt. As it is evident from the findings of this study then we can sum everything up that although a teacher like teacher A in this study blames other external factors that might have a detrimental effect on his effectiveness, teacher B teaching under more or less the same conditions indicated that a teacher can effectively and efficiently take benefit from the least to the best of the advantage. We teachers should not be waiting for an ideal class to come. Our effectiveness is when we can make a change in our students' perception and attitudes towards English which can be to their benefit.

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THE EFFICACY OF EX-IMPLICIT IN BETWEEN IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT GRAMMAR TEACHING APPROACH ON SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS' WRITING

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ABSTRACT

Implicit knowledge, also known as tacit knowledge or intuitive knowledge may manifest itself in one's behaviour or judgments about grammaticality, but it cannot be articulated. Explicit knowledge on the other hand can be verbalized and explicated. For example, native speakers of English intuitively know the regularities in the use of a definite, indefinite or zero article, but are generally unable to describe the principles. This article contrasts implicit knowledge with explicit knowledge and explains the difficulties in implicit and explicit learning. Finally, it will present the pedagogical implementation of explicit and implicit grammar teaching and learning in an integrated approach namely Ex-implicit Grammar Teaching Approach in the classroom context.

KEY WORDS: Implicit knowledge/ learning/ teaching, Explicit knowledge/ learning/ teaching, SLA, pedagogical implementation, Ex-implicit Grammar Teaching Approach

INTRODUCTION

Bialystok (1994) claimed that explicit knowledge can be learnt at any age. However, there are age-related constraints for L2 learners before they develop their own abilities to learn a second language. As Krashen (1982) argued, the use of explicit knowledge may enable L2 learners capable of learning only those rules that are formally and functionally simple.

The author believes that we cannot separate those two types of knowledge, namely implicit and explicit knowledge, because implicit knowledge is formed in a learner's memory and will be transferred to explicit knowledge when the teacher activates the learner's memory by interaction and feedback and use all this activated information as input for the target task. Paradis (1994) asserted that the difficulties associated with learning need to be examined separately in relation to the type of knowledge (implicit/explicit). On the other hand, Ellis (2006) suggests that when investigating learning difficulty in the construct of implicit knowledge, it may require tapping into what a learner intuitively feels to be target-like. Further aspects involving random and time

pressured or automatic processing of stored linguistic knowledge are also essential but would require elaborate research techniques. In contrast, investigating learning difficulties in the context of explicit knowledge may be easier since the focus and concern generally relate to task performance in controlled environments. Other concerns may include motivational techniques and response elicitation that can be done free of any time pressure.

This article consists of six main sections; the introduction is presented in section one, the literature review comes in section two, the discussion is presented in section three, the pedagogical implementations will be presented in section four, while conclusion will be presented in section five, and finally, the references is in section six. In the following, literature review will be presented.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Vygotsky's discussion (1887) in Wells (1994, p.1) pointed out that scientific concepts in contrast with spontaneous concepts have four features: Generally; systematic organization, conscious awareness, and voluntary spontaneous concepts are developed inductively and unconsciously: where they are hard to be reasoned with, while scientific concepts are developed deductively and purposely. He adds that the scientific concepts provide the framework and the systematic meaning to a new presented item and it usually takes place in school learning.

In the same line, Lantolf (2008, p. 42) in Ellis (2008) pointed out that the implicit knowledge is acquired without learner's awareness of its existence as the acquisition of the mother language, while explicit learning is totally opposite, it is acquired intentionally.

In this field, an issue arose seeking to identify the nature relationship between these two knowledge: Lantolf (2008, p 43) and Ellis (2005, p. 144) mentioned that three independent positions are suggested in the way that implicit and explicit knowledge relate to each other: The first position is: *the non-interface position* where the two types of knowledge do not relate to each other and it describes the implicit knowledge as the bridge to spontaneous performance. The second position is: *the strong interface position* where the explicit knowledge can be implicit knowledge through continuous practice. The third position is: *the weak interface position* where the ability of transformation from implicit knowledge to explicit knowledge is through drawing the learner's attention:

Lantolf (2008, p. 42) made a comparison between the three positions recognized by Ellis (2005), to the Vygotsky theory, he concludes that the implicit knowledge tends to take the same spontaneous knowledge path, while explicit knowledge is not quite the same with scientific knowledge, this is because the explicit knowledge do not necessarily be systematic and correct and generalization of particular behavior as the scientific knowledge do.

The aim of this article is to draw on insights from the applied linguistic literature and Second Language theories (SLA) to develop the practical approach of teaching writing which is called Innovated Writing Process (IWP) approach suggested by Mourssi (2012d). The IWP aims at improving Second/Foreign Learners of English level of writing as well as speaking, see Appendix A, where the teacher can integrate the skill of writing with speaking. He/she can change the teaching method according to the mistakes or points of weakness of his/her learners; this highlights the role of error analysis leading to metalinguistic feedback which can be achieved following a Communicative Grammar Language Teaching Approach (CGLTA) where the teacher interacts freely with learners. This allows for his/her learners to participate in the task,

and to raise a high degree of awareness on the learners' part. This will lead learners to be able to interact, negotiate and discuss, which, in turn, results in preparing them to revise and redraft and improve their writing as well as speaking in a suitable educational and interactional environment (Mourssi, 2012b). This, in turn, will lead us to the importance of the pedagogical implementation of explicit and implicit grammar teaching and learning in an integrated approach namely Ex-implicit Grammar Language Teaching Approach in the classroom context. First, the difficulties in implicit and explicit learning will be presented in the following part.

Difficulties in Implicit and Explicit Knowledge/Learning

According to Ellis (200, p. 431), the distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge of L2 learners can shed light on the reason why some grammatical structures are more difficult to learn than others. To substantiate, Ellis (2005) conducted an experiment using 17 grammatical structures and traced the learning difficulties in each of these structures by applying both explicit and implicit forms of knowledge. Findings show that structured items identified as easy within the context of implicit knowledge were, on the other hand, described as difficult in the constructs of explicit knowledge. With its inverse relational structure, there was no correlation between the ranks of orders concerning the difficulty experienced with the 17 grammatical structures. A regression analysis demonstrated that both types of knowledge (explicit and implicit) can predict general proficiency.

In explaining the difficulties most L2 learners confront, Ellis (2006, p. 432) hypothesized that some features are naturally easier or more difficult to learn than others due perhaps to the manner the human mind manages its intrinsic properties. Therefore, learning difficulties are still a universal phenomenon; L2 learners of all nationalities confront the same type of ease and difficulty over the same features and structures. One empirical study that supports Ellis' (2006) hypothesis draws on the theory of "natural order" (Dulay & Burt, 1973; Krashen, 1977) in relation to second language acquisition. Ellis (2006) suggested the need to differentiate between implicit and explicit knowledge forms present in an L2 learner based on the seven principal dimensions tabulated below:

Table 1: Ellis' Seven Principal Dimensions (2006, p. 433)

| <i>Dimension</i> | <i>Implicit knowledge</i> | <i>Explicit knowledge</i> |
|--|--|---|
| <i>1 – Awareness</i> | <i>It involves unconscious awareness</i> | <i>It entails conscious awareness</i> |
| <i>2 – type of knowledge</i> | <i>It is procedural knowledge</i> | <i>It is declarative knowledge</i> |
| <i>3 – Systematicity and certainty of L2 knowledge</i> | <i>It is highly systematic when established in a learner's inter language (Tarone 1988)</i> | <i>It is imprecise, inaccurate and inconsistent (Sorace 1985)</i> |
| <i>4 – Accessibility of knowledge</i> | <i>It allows automatic processing</i> | <i>It requires more controlled processing (Preston 2002)</i> |
| <i>5 – Use of L2 knowledge varies according to the specific conditions under which learners are asked to perform tasks</i> | <i>Learners access their implicit knowledge when they are pressured to perform the same task rapidly, so their speech is less accurate</i> | <i>When learners have plenty of time to plan production on-line, their speech becomes more accurate because they access their explicit knowledge (Yuan and Ellis (2003)</i> |
| <i>6 – Self report</i> | <i>It is not verbalisable</i> | <i>It is verbalisable</i> |
| <i>7 – Learnability</i> | <i>It is not learnable at any age</i> | <i>It is learnable at any age</i> |

Implicit Knowledge in Contrast with Explicit Knowledge

One way of distinguishing explicit knowledge from implicit knowledge is by determining whether the learner is aware or unaware of the underlying regularities and knowing the extent whether a learner can or cannot verbalise these regularities. Hulstijn (2006, p. 130) provides good definitions of the difference between: Explicit/Implicit knowledge, Explicit/Implicit teaching, and Explicit/Implicit learning. The author believes that Second/Foreign Learners of English may have a good amount of explicit knowledge and are conscious of the rules of using English grammar. However, with random grammar generation, they have not internalized this form of explicit knowledge. Implicit learning is generally described as non-conscious learning. In contrast, explicit learning is conscious learning. To illustrate, a table of comparison is provided below:

Table 2: Explicit and Implicit Learning

| <i>Explicit learning</i> | <i>Implicit learning</i> |
|---|---|
| <i>* It involves conscious operations such as hypothesis formation and testing</i> | <i>* It does not have or does not involve conscious operations. It is unconscious.</i> |
| <i>* The learner is aware of what has been learned</i> | <i>* Learner is learning without being aware of what has been learned.</i> |
| <i>* It is concerned with learning language items (e.g. vocabulary) by means of overt strategies such as: memorization techniques, direct grammar explanations, analyzing mistakes, and knowing the difference between L1 and L2.</i> | <i>* It refers to learning primarily by means of unconscious exposure to input.</i> |
| <i>* Explicit teaching: information about a language is given to the learners directly by the teacher or text book.</i> | <i>* Implicit teaching: information about the language is given to the learners indirectly by teacher or text book.</i> |

With regard to implicit and explicit learning, Hulstijn (2006, p. 131) mentioned that explicit and implicit learning are the two for which the least consensus exists. He explained that explicit learning is input processing with conscious intention to find out whether the input information contains regularities to work out the concepts and rules with which these regularities can be captured. He added that implicit learning is input processing without such an intention, it takes place unconsciously. He noted that learning is defined with reference to the nature of the knowledge learned, in other words, explicit and implicit learning is the learning of explicit and implicit knowledge. The discussion will be presented in the following section.

DISCUSSION

Relating to how to implement these findings in the Ex-implicit Grammar Teaching Approach suggested in the Innovated Writing Process approach (Mourssi, 2102d, see Appendix A for details) the researcher believes that teachers can use the learner’s implicit knowledge in the first stages of writing process. It can be used in brainstorming and giving ideas related to the target topic in general and to the target linguistic item in particular. Then, students can draw up their first draft, revising, and (re)drafting their writing after receiving explicit grammar teaching for the linguistic items which could not be understood implicitly. Receiving both implicit and explicit grammar teaching in an integrated approach, namely Ex-implicit grammar teaching approach, they can concentrate more on the forms, having enough time to rewrite, asking their peers or teacher in performing the task properly without feeling shy or hesitating to ask for help in front of their classmates. Achieving these stages in an organized manner might help Second/Foreign Language Learners participate effectively in writing tasks. This, in turn, will lead to actual

improvements in their internalized grammatical system and, in turn, result in improving their speaking as well as their writing.

Hulstijn (2006, p. 129) is convinced that there are good theoretical and educational reasons to involve implicit and explicit learning in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research. By comparing some differential factors between L1 and L2, Hulstijn (2006, p. 129) was able to ascertain that success in the acquisition of an L1 is the result of full mastery of and ample exposure to the language since childhood. L2 learners, on the other hand, require a comprehensive range of both theoretical and practical inputs. Thus, L1 leans toward universal and natural forms of acquisition whereas L2 acquisition is dependent upon variables and differentials. There are scholars working in different disciplines who have argued that L1 acquisition relies on the processes of implicit learning whereas the acquisition of L2 relies on both implicit and explicit learning (Krashen, 1981; Bley, Vroman, 1991; Dekeyser, 2003; Ellis, 2004 and 2005).

To achieve success in SLA which is similar to some extent to success in first language acquisition, it is generally considered then that one needs to increase and provide learners of L2 with comprehensive input theoretically and practically. With regard to writing, in other words, wherever learners commit errors or mistakes, the teacher has to analyze and explain the nature of these mistakes in his interaction (metalinguistic feedback, Mourssi, 2012b), where all of these gaps will be taken as comprehensive input or will be used as intake for the writing task. We can consider all what is presented explicitly to the learners as input to be formed in the learners' memory and form their implicit knowledge. This knowledge can be activated later when learners expose to similar linguistic items stored in their memory. There are many factors which form the input received by learners, among them is the method of teaching, degree of awareness, motivation to write, speak and participate in the writing activity, in addition to the amount of learners' exposure to L2.

Ellis (2006, p. 434) examined the learning difficulty of certain grammatical structures in the context of implicit knowledge and identified several variables that make grammatical features either easy or difficult, and these were: frequency, saliency, functional value, regularity and processability. Ellis (2004) surmised that L2 learning in the context of explicit knowledge consists of analytical and meta-linguistic knowledge forms, whereby the meta-linguistic constitutes conscious representations of linguistic structures that can be verbalized on demand, whereas analytical knowledge consists of lexis for labelling linguistic structures.

Hulstijn (2006, p. 130) assumed that curriculum planners, material designers, teachers, and learners all have some vested interest in knowing which linguistic domains L2 learning might best benefit from in either implicit or explicit learning modes. To comment on Hulstijn's point of view related to implicit and explicit learning, first of all, I think that his point of view depends on previous findings of Ellis related to the same area.

According to the researcher's point of view, he thinks both types of implicit and explicit memories have to be used in the target linguistic item, where the teacher should draw on both categories of memories in teaching the target linguistic item. The learners' degree of awareness

and the role of the teacher to motivate learners to verbalize their knowledge and interpret it as they write, revise and redraft are crucial. Moreover, teachers and learners often have to decide when and where they use their implicit knowledge in the different stages in writing activity, requiring them to have a sufficient amount of lexical and grammatical items and knowledge of the difference between forming target-like sentences in the L1 and the L2. In the following, pedagogical implementations of ex-implicit grammar teaching will be presented.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLEMENTATIONS

Lantolf (2008, p. 44) in Ellis, (2008) associates procedurization with explicit knowledge, he mentions that the possibility of explicit knowledge to be transformed to implicit knowledge or automatized with conscious control looks like when an individual learns how to shift gears in driving a car. He followed the same image which was made by Leantief (1981) in illustrating the significant distinction between spontaneous and scientific knowledge.

Based on the language learners' level and the individual differences, and the important role of interaction in acquiring second language grammatical rules, I think that Ex-implicit Grammar Teaching Approach and implementing IWP approach in writing might help second language learners acquiring both simple and complex rules related to forming target-like sentences in L2.

Ellis (2002) preferred the instruction to be in explicit knowledge but the domain aim should be on building the implicit knowledge. This means that explicit acquired knowledge is proceduralized to be an implicit knowledge as the weak interface position believes. He mentions that this could be done through engaging students in communication activities. This view was supported by Lantolf (2008, p. 44) who recommended to enhance the acquisition of implicit knowledge, the explicit knowledge should be associated with engaging students with communicative activities, explicit grammar is appropriate and more sufficient to be used because in this way learners will be motivated for analyzing rules for themselves. All what is mentioned support my contribution to knowledge, which comes in presenting the pedagogical implementation of explicit, and implicit grammar teaching and learning in an integrated approach namely Ex-implicit Grammar Teaching Approach in the classroom context in order to improve students' written accuracy and fluency as well. An integrated type of feedback which gathers between implicit and explicit feedback, namely Ex-implicit feedback, will be presented in the following part

Ex-implicit feedback

Explicit and implicit feedback are the two types of corrective feedback, Ellis (2008, p. 339) stated that implicit feedback is no obvious indicator that an error has been committed, but explicit feedback indicated an error has been committed. Explicit feedback takes several forms based on the source of problem indicated. Ellis, (2008, p. 339) ensured that a number of studies have investigated the effects of implicit and explicit feedback on SLA. He added that both types of corrective feedback are effective in promoting acquisition of the grammatical structures.

For example, Carroll and Swain, (1993); Nagata, (1993); Carroll, (2001), Rosa and Leow, (2004), demonstrated that explicit feedback was more effective than implicit feedback. Similarly, Ellis, Loewn, and Elam's (2006) study of the effects of recasts and metalinguistic feedback on the acquisition of English past tense *-ed* also found that explicit type of feedback is more effective than implicit feedback. On the contrary, Leeman (2003) found that implicit feedback is more effective than explicit feedback. In my point of view, I think that it is difficult to form a conclusion regarding which type is more effective, but I think it is better to gather between both

types in the classroom context and form Ex-implicit feedback, where explicit feedback can be more effective with low level language learners, while implicit feedback can be more effective with higher level language learners. In addition, recasts feedback which represents the implicit type of corrective feedback can vary enormously and explicit feedback also can be varied depending on whether it only indicates an error had been committed in order to provide correction, or it includes metalinguistic information.

To implement and follow a certain type corrective of feedback whether it is implicit or explicit or integrating both in a form of Ex-implicit, there are two very important factors which have to be taken in consideration, they are: the nature of the target structure-simple or complex – and the level of language learners, having in consideration the individual differences. In my point of view, I think following explicit feedback is more effective with simple rules with beginner learners of English, and following ex-implicit feedback is more effective with complex rules with higher level of learners.

Some studies support my conclusions: (Dekeyser, 1995; Robinson, 1996; Ayoun, 2001), proved that implicit instruction is more effective than explicit instruction, while Scott (1989) and deGraff (1997) proved that explicit instruction is more effective for learning complex structures.

In a study based on one structure was related to regular simple past tense carried out by Ellis (2008), he concluded that typical learner errors in the simple past –*ed* involve either omission or miss formation only. Ellis (2008) concluded that the most effective feedback in promoting acquisition of –*ed* simple past is the metalinguistic feedback. On the contrary, Doughty, and Varela (1998); Han (2002, p. 357) didn't find a positive effect for recasts on the acquisition of grammar. In the case of both Doughty and Varela and Han, the recast treatment was provided over several weeks and the recasts were repeated at the same error. This the recasts became salient to the learners, and it was extremely brief-consisting of a single word. As a result, the recasts will have only limited effect on any grammatical structure.

In general, because Second/Foreign Language Learners are usually older when they start acquiring a second language they are more developed cognitively than First Language Learners. This comes with an exception which would be the compound bilingual, who learn the second language at the same time as the first language. This point was supported by: Marinova-Tedd, Barshal, and Snow, (2000), who mentioned that old learners appear to have distinct advantages in several areas: they tend to learn more quickly than first language learners, they have greater knowledge of the world in general than first language learners, they can control over the input they receive related to L2 than first language learners, they have the ability to learn and apply rules which an aid in facilitating the acquisition process, they already have a first language from which they can transfer strategies and linguistic knowledge.

Some researcher do not support the author's idea here: Richard-Amato (2003) pointed out that being older may not always be advantages us in learning a second language; Long (1990) mentions it seems that older learners have some maturational constraints affecting the language acquisition process; MacIntyre and Charos (1996) mentioned that old learners may find themselves afraid to make errors; Newmarks, (1983) commented that old learners may have poor

attitudes and lack motivation, depending on their feelings and their condition in learning L2; Schachter, (1974) and Kleinmann, (1977) added old learner may avoid using certain structures altogether because they are not part of their first language repertoire.

CONCLUSION

Based on what is mentioned above, it can be concluded that we can integrate both types into what is termed in the current article as Ex-implicit Grammar Teaching/learning where implicit teaching/learning may be effective with high level language learners while explicit teaching/learning may be effective with low level language learners. Since any language has both simple and complex rules, ex-implicit teaching/learning may be effective with both, having in consideration the level of the language learners and the individual differences.

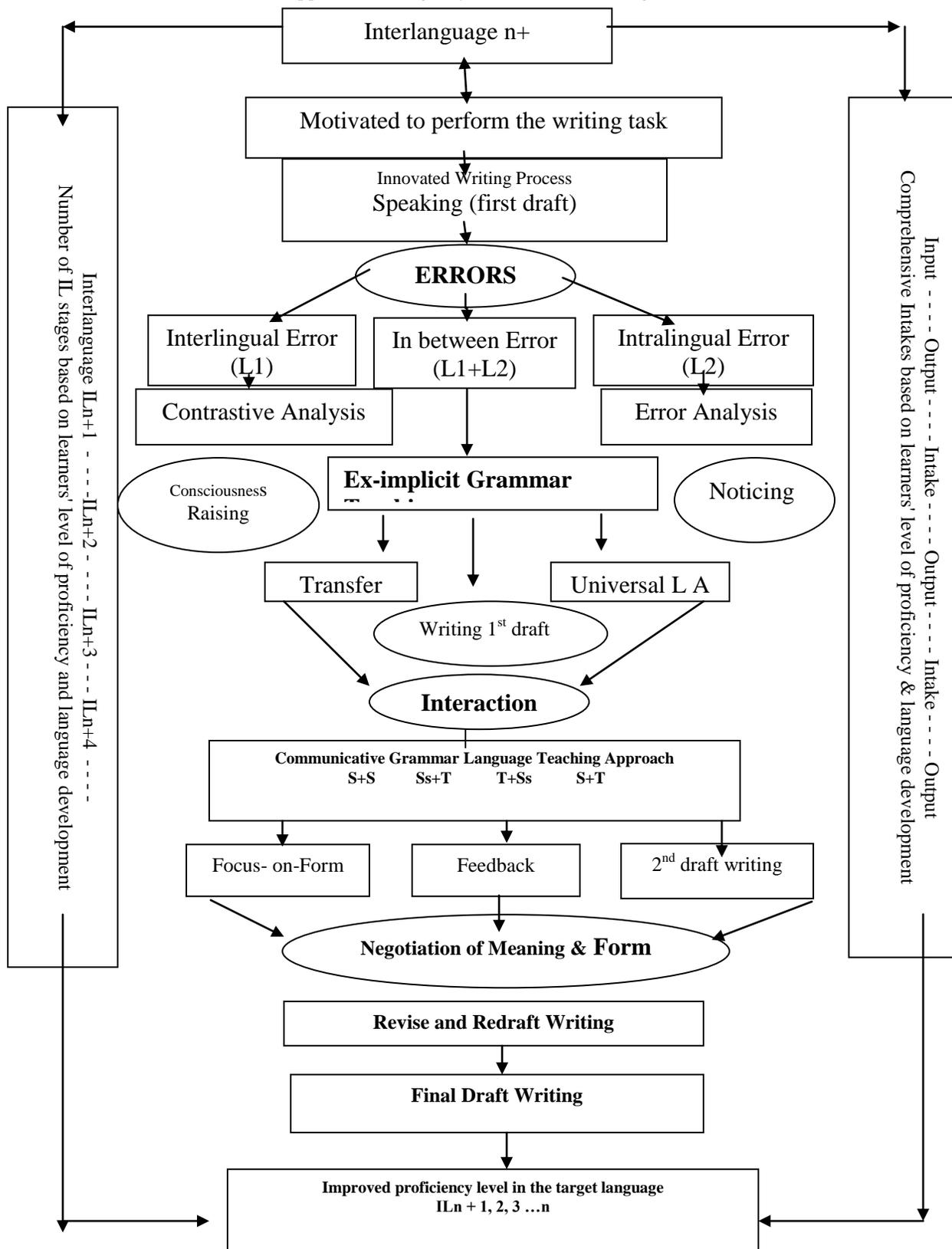
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Appendix A: Stages of the Innovated Writing Process



THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG GENERAL ENGLISH UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' SELF-EFFICACY, THEIR ANXIETY, AND THEIR ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This study was an attempt to explore the possible relationships among university students' self-efficacy in General English (GE) course and their achievement in this course. Moreover, the differences in GE course achievement among university students of Humanities, Sciences, and Engineering were examined. Furthermore, it checked the relationship between GE achievement among such students and their level of anxiety. Also, the differences among anxiety mean scores of students of humanities, sciences, and engineering were explored. The results of the study indicated that first there is a significantly positive relationship between the university students' self-efficacy and their achievement in GE course. Second, there is a negative correlation between GE university students' self-efficacy and their level of anxiety. In other words, university students of humanities suffered more than other university students. Third, there are significant differences in GE course achievement among the three groups. Fourth, there are significant differences in self-efficacy among the three groups of university students. Fifth, the differences in anxiety among the three groups of students were significant. In addition, the results of teachers' interviews were also in agreement with those of the questionnaires. The results of this study can invite the attention of GE course teachers to the fact that encouraging their students to find ways to enhance their self-efficacy and manage their anxiety can be highly useful for them to achieve higher scores in GE course.

KEY WORDS: Self-efficacy, Anxiety, general English, Humanities, Engineering, Sciences, achievement.

INTRODUCTION

Few studies have paid adequate attention to the relationship between psycho-affective factors and anxiety. The studies cover a wide range of issues such as the relationship between gender and anxiety, self-perception and anxiety (Kitano, 2001), the effect of gender, nationality, and first language experience on classroom anxiety (Machida, 2001), apprehension of negative evaluation and higher level of anxiety (Kitano, 2001), the relationship between affective factors and anxiety links with language proficiency (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Gardner et al, 1977; Yamashiro & Mclaghlin, 2001; Yashima, 2002), and risk-taking, motivation, as predictors of language achievement and anxiety. Due to the importance of the role of psycho-affective factors which influence language anxiety and consequently the EFL learners' performance, it appears important

to examine the effect of such factors like self-efficacy on anxiety level and achievement of foreign language learners. The available literature on psycho-affective variables indicates the scarcity of research concerning the effect of self-efficacy on GE learners' anxiety and achievement. This motivated the researcher to focus his concentration on examining the effect of GE university students' self-efficacy on their anxiety and achievement.

Self-efficacy is closely related to the concept of motivation (Jarvis, 2005; Dörnyei, 2005). In other words, the higher the more self-efficacious the students are, the higher their level of motivation is. In addition, a number of research conducted in EFL literature have confirmed the pivotal role of motivation on foreign language learning success. Thus, exploring the foreign language learning process in light of self-efficacy is a useful research avenue which can be very beneficial as a focus of EFL studies.

Furthermore, the lack of adequate research on GE university students is clear. University students in Iran just study English as a foreign language in a three credit course. It is obvious that this course cannot provide university students with much exposure to English. Therefore, investigating the level of psychological factors such as self-efficacy and anxiety to get a better understanding of the current psychology of GE university students can initiate conducting much more practical research in this neglected realm.

Self-efficacy practice has caught the attention of EFL/ESL researchers since 1990s (Gimenez, 1999). However, the need to carry out research on self-efficacy focusing on GE students at the level of university is strongly felt. Another important variable in university GE studies is anxiety whose significance was established in a load of research. Bearing in mind the importance of these two variables, this study focuses on the relationships among GE university students' self-efficacy, their anxiety, and achievement.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Self-efficacy

Researchers have explored the utility of Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy in a wide range of settings for understanding behavior for over 20 years. Self-efficacy is essentially an individual's belief in his or her ability to perform a specific task or behavior. Bandura (1997) emphasized that self-efficacy is not a general quality possessed by individuals, but rather specific beliefs an individual may have around particular tasks or behaviors. For example, an individual with higher social self-efficacy is said to have greater confidence in his or her ability to interact with others socially.

In other words, Bandura (1997) has defined self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). To put it other way, self-efficacy is referred to the judgments of what individuals are able to do with whatever skills they possess rather than the judgments of the skills themselves. Research studies show that self-efficacy is a flexible concept (Klassen, 2004). Therefore, it is useful to explore the self-efficacy sources and the factors that contribute to the concept of self-efficacy.

In addition, because individuals with levels of self-efficacy incline to set themselves more ambitions and goals, to do their best and be more persistent while encountering problems (Bandura, 1995; Schwarzer & Fuchs, 1996) they prefer to have more mastery experiences. Besides, since the relationship between self-efficacy and behavior is reciprocal, such individuals' self-efficacy will stay at high level or even increase.

In contrast, individuals with lower levels of self-efficacy tend to set less goals and ambitions, allocate less effort and surrender easier when facing difficulties. As a result, they will have less frequent mastery experiences and their chances of failure may rise as well. As a consequence, due to their attribution style, their level of self-efficacy will drop. Therefore, as maintained by Bandura (1995), "disbelief in one's capabilities creates its own behavioral validation" (p. 4). As Bandura (1997) dubbed, there are four significant sources of self-efficacy: Mastery or enactive experience, vicarious experience, social persuasion, and physiological or emotional state.

Mastery or enactive experience refers to the past experience of success or failure. "Successes raise efficacy appraisals; repeated failures lower them, especially if the failures occur early in the course of events and do not reflect lack of effort or adverse external circumstances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 399). A strong sense of efficacy is likely to be developed through repeated successes. To put it in another way, if an individuals have already performed a certain behavior well, then they are likely to have stronger self-efficacy beliefs with regards to that behavior. Bandura (1997) posited that performance accomplishment, or *enactive mastery*, is the most influential source for self-efficacy beliefs.

Social persuasion is the third primary informational source for self-efficacy beliefs. If others give individuals reinforcement for a behavior, then they are likely to have higher self-efficacy for that behavior. Self-appraisals of competence are partly based on the opinions of significant others who presumably possess evaluative power (Bandura, 1997). People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the abilities to accomplish a given task are more likely to persist longer when confronted with difficulties and develop a sense of self-efficacy. Raising unrealistic beliefs of a person's self-efficacy coupled with failure when performing the task, however, will only discredit the persuader and further undermine the person's perceived self-efficacy. Therefore, encouragement is a powerful tool for increasing self-efficacy beliefs in others

Research on self-efficacy

Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy has proven especially useful for researchers in the field of counseling psychology. Specifically, research in the areas of vocational and academic behavior has been productive over the past 20 years. As the body of literature related directly and indirectly to self-efficacy theory is so vast, the following review will focus primarily on the literature directly relevant to the field of counseling psychology, namely vocational and academic behavior. The application of self-efficacy theory to vocational behavior and career counseling primarily originated with the research of Hackett and Betz (1981). Hackett and Betz addressed that women were significantly underrepresented in many managerial and professional occupations (e.g., lawyer, physician, engineer, professor). The model proposed by Hackett and Betz, based on Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, was created for better understanding the influences of women's socialization on their career development patterns. The argument is made that self-efficacy beliefs are significant for determining whether more women will begin choosing nontraditional careers for females.

More recently, Peggy Hsieh and Schallert (2008) tried to consider the interrelationship of the two constructs of self-efficacy and attribution theory and also their influence on language learners' achievement. They focused their study on 500 undergraduates in French, German, and Spanish. In their regression analysis of the EFL learners' achievement; they found self-efficacy as the strongest predictor of their achievement. More interesting, they noticed that internalizers, learners who attribute their failure to internal factors, such as lack of effort, had higher levels of self-efficacy than externalizers, those who attribute their failure to the external factors, such as luck.

Roberts and Dyer (2005) examined the effect of web-based online teaching of vocabulary on EFL learners' self-efficacy, motivation, and critical thinking. They maintained that individualized online activities may contribute more to students' achievement than the traditional face-to-face class. They presented the web based lecture in the form of text-based Power Point presentation. They found that the effect of such online activities significantly influenced their self-efficacy, motivation, and critical thinking. Also, they recommended that EFL teachers take advantage of online course to boost their learners' self-efficacy which in turn improves their motivation. Furthermore, they discovered that online courses can orient learners to positive attitudes towards learning English.

Goaker (2005) explored the effect of peer teacher training programs on the self-efficacy and instructional skills of TEFL teachers. He compared the difference in self-efficacy mean scores of two groups of teachers, one experimental, and the other control. The student teachers were selected from English language teaching Department of European University of Lefke, North Cyprus doing their Teaching Practicum course (EDU 420) as part of a B.A. Teacher education program. The findings of this study indicated that those student teachers trained through peer teacher training showed higher orientations of self-efficacy and instructional skills than those with such program. Thus, the findings implied that peer coaching training programs

Adams (2004) explored the effect of peer model performance in the seminar course of postgraduate students on their self-efficacy in this course. Prior to the study he maintained that such task for international postgraduate is daunting, and the literature both in Australia and abroad confirms their lack of self-efficacy in this course. This paper presents findings He observed a seminar performance of a peer to that of a senior academic to check the level of self-efficacy of the students at an Australian university. Participants responded to a 19-item questionnaire which measured self-efficacy for four areas of seminar presentation: speech, display, content, and presenter presence. The findings demonstrated that the use of a peer model performance was more effective pedagogical for improving students' self-efficacy in this course.

Also, within the realm of research self-efficacy Unrau and Beck (2004) examined research self-efficacy of two groups of university students: 75 speech language pathology students and 60 Social Work students. There were interested in investigating whether such students' research self-efficacy might change under the influence of research and practice courses. They found that taking part in both courses improved these students' research self-efficacy. In other words, whenever courses in these two majors are accompanied by applied research leaning and opportunities to practice them out of class, they can augment students' research self-efficacy.

Talking about teacher self-efficacy, PekkanliEgel (2009) examined the effect of English EFL pre-service teachers' reflection on their teaching efficacy. To do so, they assessed 67 undergraduates' self-efficacy beliefs at one of the Turkish faculties of education. He found that feedback plays a pivotal role in teachers' reflection which, in turn, improves their self-efficacy. Thus, providing more feedback for themselves, EFL teachers can improve their mastery experience, leading to higher levels of self-efficacy.

Saka and Surmeli (2010) explored the relationship between pre-service teachers and their communication skills. They found a positive and high correlation between the two variables. In other words, the more self-efficacious the teachers were, the more skillful they were in their communication.

Wong (2005) explored the relationship between graduate ESL students' self-efficacy and their language learning strategies. The participants were also pre-service language teachers from a teachers' college in Malaysia. He discovered six categories of language learning strategies from the participants' responses. His findings demonstrated that there was a positive and high significant relationship between the two variables. In line with the above findings, the findings of the interviews showed that high self-efficacy pre-service ESL teachers expressed more frequent use of language learning strategies than those with lower levels of self-efficacy.

More recently, Graham (2011) analyzed the effect of listening strategies on EFL learners' self-efficacy and sense of control in listening comprehension. His findings showed that listening strategies can positively influence EFL learners' self-efficacy. In turn, this boosted self-efficacy can contribute to higher level of achievement.

Anxiety

Many researchers have tried to identify the construct of anxiety, a significant individual difference in language learning, for many years. Within different fields of study such as psychology, anthropology, and education new insights and perspectives on the concept of anxiety have been explored. Most of the findings in the nineteenth century relate anxiety to a sense of threat and fear to individuals' psychological state while interacting with the environment (Freud, 1920).

In later decades, anxiety was considered a state of apprehension or an ambiguous sense of fear which is indirectly associated with an object (Scovel, 1978). Later, Rholes, Riskind, and Neville (1985) asserted that anxiety might have rooted in an expected physical peril which is accompanied by depression. In other words, anxiety occurs when a loss is anticipated. However, Spielberg (1976) had made a distinction between fear and anxiety. Fear appears due to a "real objective danger in the environment" (p. 6).

Two major classifications of anxiety have been discussed in the literature; the first one is a dichotomous distinction between 'debilitative' and 'facilitative' anxiety and the second one a trichotomy of anxiety into 'trait', 'state', and 'situation specific'. Facilitative anxiety is an encouraging and positive derive that can best be defined as enthusiasm before a challenging task. On the other hand, debilitative anxiety involves feeling of fear that hinders the process of learning (Matsuda & Gobel, 2003). The earlier research studies conducted on anxiety indicated that different levels of both facilitative and debilitative anxiety might be present in the same individuals at the same time. For example, Albert and Haber (1960) pointed out that "an individual might possess a large amount of both a anxieties, or of one but not the other, or of none of either" (p. 213). Scovel (1978) also asserted that the two kinds of anxiety may function

together because both “work in tandem, serving simultaneously to motivate and to warn, as the individual gropes to learn an ever changing sequence of new facts in the environment” (p. 139).

Moreover, some researchers such as Kuhl and Bechmann (1985) have distinguished between static and dynamic anxiety. Static anxiety refers to 'ruminating about the causes and feelings' (Ford, 1992, 113) and the dynamic one refers to taking real action in order to tackle a problem or lessen feelings of apprehension.

Trait anxiety has been described as the probability of individuals becoming anxious in any situation (Spielberger, 1983) or “a constant condition without a time limitation” (Levitt, 1980, p.11). In other words, this tendency to become anxious is a permanent personality trait. On the other hand, state anxiety is a transitory emotional condition, which is activated by the nervous system, such as the stress felt before taking a test (Kim, 2001). Moreover, Spielberg (1966, p. 12) had defined state anxiety as a “transitory state or condition of the organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time”.

Situation specific anxiety refers to the anxiety consistently felt in a specific situation. In other words, as McIntyre and Gardner (1991) maintained, it can be regarded as the trait anxiety limited to a specific situation. They also maintained that the situation specific attitude towards anxiety “offers more to the understanding of anxiety because the respondents are queried about various aspects of the situation” (p. 91). Oh (1990) presumed that foreign language anxiety is a “situation specific anxiety that students experience in the classroom which is characterized by self-centered thoughts, feelings of inadequacy, fear of failure, and emotional reactions in the language classroom” (p.56).

Also, Von Worde (2003) described some examples of internal, physical, and functional manifestations of anxiety in foreign language students. He illustrated the internal and functional reactions to language anxiety in the statement of one the participant of his study: “I just completely blank out and everything is like a jumble in my head” (p. 5). Some other students “reacted by losing patience or becoming angry” and some also they had to “look ahead in the book” (p.5). The physical responses were reported to be headaches, shaking, food tapping, clammy hands, and pounding heart.

Research on language learning anxiety

The role of anxiety in language learning was not put much emphasis because previous studies usually generated contradictory results and were hard to interpret (Chastain, 1975; Scovel, 1978). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) believe that using general measures of anxiety is the reason to generate contradictory results. Based on the situation-specific perspective, recent studies have focused on anxiety which is specific to language situations. After examining the concept of language anxiety empirically, researchers find language anxiety is distinct from any other type of anxiety and is not merely a composite of other anxieties (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

In order to identify and measure foreign language anxiety, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), in which 33 question items

ask respondents to respond to situations specific to foreign language learning anxiety and reflect the three components of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Ganschow & Sparks, 1996). For example, they ask questions about students' anxiety in situations like speaking in front of the language class, taking exams in language course, and perceiving other students' evaluation of them. Due to the scale's success on construct validation and reliability, FLCAS has been widely adopted by many researchers to explore learners' foreign language anxiety (Aida, 1994; Chang, 1999; Ganschow et al., 1994; Ganschow & Sparks, 1996; Liao, 1999).

According to Horwitz (2001), when researchers interested in the field of anxiety tried to use FLCAS findings with regard to anxiety and language achievement turned to be uniform. Thus, anxiety was regarded to have a pivotal role on EFL learners' success. Using FLCAS researchers have found a consistent negative correlation between the two variables.

Recent studies into the nature of the relationship between anxiety and reading performance show that higher levels of anxiety influence the reading process in several ways (Sellers, 2000). First, high levels of anxiety may direct 'attentional capacity' away from the reading process. Second, anxiety can slow down the application of such reading processes as letter and word recognition. Third, anxiety can influence the learner's decision-making process, for example, deciding on meaning or on what strategy to use. Reading anxiety has also been studied.

By using the Language Reading Anxiety Scale: a five-point, 20-item Likert scale questionnaire specifically developed to measure reading anxiety), Saito et al., (1999) explored links between general FL anxiety and FL reading anxiety among learners of French, Japanese, and Russian. They found that FL reading anxiety is related but distinguishable from general FL anxiety.

Similarly, Matsuda and Gobel (2001) conducted a study concerning English majors in a Japanese university and found no statistically significant relationship between the foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCAS) and the foreign language reading anxiety (FLRAS) as a whole. However, by conducting factor analyses they found that some subcomponents of the two scales were closely related.

MacIntyre et al. (1998) cite several studies (Cle´ment et al. 1977; 1980; 1994; MacIntyre et al. 1997) that mark close relationship between foreign language anxiety and self-evaluation, and they consider the plausibility of considering the two variables as a single construct: self-confidence. Furthermore, factor analyses in Cheng et al. (1999) and Matsuda and Gobel (2001) highlight the important role of "self-confidence" in identifying components of foreign language anxiety.

Also, Cheng et al. (1999) found a significant relationship between "Low Self-confidence in Speaking English" and "Low Self-confidence in Writing English." Likewise, Matsuda and Gobel (2001) observed a strong link between "Low Self-confidence in Speaking English" and "Reading Confidence/Enjoyment." Supporting these findings, Gardner et al. (1997) report high correlations and consistency for the measures of Language Anxiety, Self-confidence, and Can Do ratings of proficiency.

In other words, confident learners claim low anxiety and feel that they have the ability to perform well, while less confident learners suffer from higher anxiety and feel that they lack the ability to do well. The Can Do ratings mentioned above are learners' perceptions of their own abilities, and

it has been observed that learners often overestimate or underestimate their proficiency (Gardner et al. 1977; MacIntyre et al. 1997; Spezzini & Oxford, 1998). Research also points to the relationship between foreign language anxiety and learners' actual proficiency and performance, although findings to date have yielded somewhat inconsistent results.

As a great deal of research indicates a negative relationship between anxiety and proficiency (e.g., Aida, 1994; Bailey, 1983; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Phillips, 1992), the effects of facilitative anxiety have also been reported (e.g., Bailey, 1983; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Tobias, 1986; Brown, et al., 2001). In turn, the causal issue remains controversial. While Clément (1980) reports that self-confidence leads to achievement, Gardner et al. (1997) based on their causal modeling that yielded a statistically significant path from achievement to self-confidence—suggest that proficiency leads to self-confidence. Yashima (2002), however, tested the Gardner theory in a Japanese EFL setting and reported that the path from L2 proficiency to self-confidence was not significant.

In a closely related investigation, Ghonsooly (2003) examined reading anxiety produced as a result of practice TOEFL and IELTS tests and found that testees had greater anxiety with the reading section of IELTS than the one in the TOEFL. For these testees, vocabulary was the most anxiety provoking element compared to the length and structural complexity.

Saito *et al.* (1999, p. 203) examined reading anxiety and found that it is influenced by two factors: a) unfamiliar scripts, b) unfamiliar cultural material. The first factor deals with sound-symbol correspondence; thus, the weaker such a correspondence is, the more anxiety the reader experiences. L2 Readers experience this kind of anxiety when they try to decode the text but fail to make it comprehensible. To date, most of the studies done clearly reflect the debilitating aspect of anxiety in L2 reading research leaving us stranded with the critical question of how to reduce the negative effects of high anxiety.

With regard to the factors moderating the effect of anxiety on language achievement such as age and gender several research has been conducted. Some researchers considered age an important moderating factor within the relationship between anxiety and language learning achievement. Onwuegbuzie (1999) found a positive and significant correlation between anxiety and age. He used multiple regression analysis to analyze the collected data. To put it another way, older language learners experience higher levels of anxiety than the younger ones.

Talking about the moderating effect of gender, many researchers have reached consistent results about such effect within the interrelationship of anxiety and language learning achievement (Chang, 1997; Daly, Kreiser, & Rogharr, 1994; Felson & Trudeau, 1991). Most of them assert that female language learners experience higher levels of anxiety than the male ones. Padila, Cervantes, Maldonado, and Garcia (1988) reported that female language learners were more likely to be under the influence of language anxiety than the male ones.

Elkhafaifi (2005) discovered that male and female language learners' level of anxiety depends on the type of anxiety they experience. For example, female Arabic language learners showed

significant higher levels of general language anxiety than the male ones. However, no statistically significant difference was observed with regard to gender in Arabic listening anxiety.

To the best of the researchers' knowledge, there has been no research on university students' self-efficacy and anxiety in the domain of GE studies. Only few studies have been conducted in the field of general education; however, they are only available through paid membership. Unfortunately, due to the restriction in the country the researchers could not access these articles. The dearth of research on GE university students' achievement with regard to their self-efficacy and anxiety is a good justification for the present effort which is trying to investigate such constructs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study seeks answers to these questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between GE university students' Self-efficacy and their GE achievement?
2. Is there any significant relationship between GE university students' Self-efficacy and their anxiety?
3. Are there any significant differences in GE achievement of GE university students of Humanities, Sciences, and Engineering?
4. Are there any significant differences in self-efficacy of GE university students of Humanities, Sciences, and Engineering?
5. Are there any significant differences in anxiety of GE university students of Humanities, Sciences, and Engineering?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

270 university students at the faculties of Engineering, Sciences, and Humanities at Shahid Beheshti University and Tehran University participated in this study. 90 students who were attending their General English Course at each of these three faculties were selected through stratified random sampling. It should also be noted that their participation was quite voluntary. The participants ranged between 19 and 24. They were both male and female.

Instruments

EFL learners' self-efficacy Instrument

For the purposes of this study, the Persian version of Self-efficacy scale developed by Ghonsooly and Elahi (2010) was used to measure the participants' self-efficacy. This scale contains 11 five-point Likert-type items which produce a possible range of scores from 11 to 55 with higher scores reflecting higher levels of self-efficacy and lower scores reflecting lower levels of self-efficacy. Cronbach's alpha of the questionnaire is 0.82 which indicates a high reliability. The participants' Grade Point Averages (GPA) of their General English Course exams also served as the instrument to measure their General English achievement.

Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale

The other instrument used in this study was the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) which was developed by Saito et al. (1999). It consists of 20 five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. Students' self-reports of anxiety is elicited by this scale over various dimensions of reading, their target language reading perceptions, and their perceptions of the difficulty level of reading in their own language compared with the target language (Saito et al. 1999, p. 204)

Interview

An *unstructured* interview with 10 students of each group was conducted about the amount of time and effort they spent on GE homework and tasks. Their attitudes towards GE course, their attempts and efforts to gain higher scores in this course were also examined. Each interview took about half an hour. Unstructured format was used in this study because as Dörnyei (2007) words:

It allows maximum flexibility to follow the interview in unpredictable directions, with minimal only interference from the research agenda. The intention is to create a relaxed atmosphere in which the respondent may reveal more than he/she would in informal contexts, with the interviewer assuming a listening role.....This kind of interview is most appropriate when a study focuses on the deep meaning of particular phenomena (p. 136).

Data collection

Before distributing the questionnaires, the participants were informed briefly about the purposes of the study and the possible implications their results may have for GE teachers and university students. They were told that all the collected information would be kept confidential. They answered the two questionnaires in about 30 minutes. Ten days after the final exam of GE courses, the participants' GPA of all their GE exams during the semester was provided by their teachers.

Data analysis

The collected data were put into SPSS software to be analyzed. The Pearson product moment formula was used to answer the first and the second questions. One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to answer the third, fourth, and fifth questions of the study.

RESULTS

The first research question deals with the possibility of any significant relationship between GE university students' self-efficacy and their GE achievement. The statistical technique of Pearson-product moment Correlation was used to investigate this research question. Table 1 summarizes the correlation coefficient between the two variables.

Table 1: The Relationship between GE university students' self-efficacy and their GE achievement

| | | SE | GEA |
|-----|---------------------|-------|-------|
| SE | Pearson Correlation | 1 | .751* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .000 |
| | N | | 136 |
| GEA | Pearson Correlation | .751* | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .002 | |
| | N | 90 | |

Note: *SE*= Self-efficacy, *GEA*= General English Achievement

As seen, the correlation coefficient for the two variables in question turned out to be 0.75 which is significant at $P < 0.05$. This correlation is moderately high and positive. Therefore, it can be concluded that the higher GE university students' self-efficacy is, the better achievers they are. Thus, the first null hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 level of significance ($r = 0.75, p < 0.05$).

The second research question seeks to establish whether there is any relationship between GE university students' self-efficacy and their anxiety. Pearson-product moment Correlation was used in order to investigate this relationship. Table 2 summarizes the correlation coefficient between the two variables.

Table 2: The relationship between GE university students' self-efficacy and their anxiety

| | | SE | Anxiety |
|---------|---------------------|--------|---------|
| SE | Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.729* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .002 |
| | N | | 136 |
| Anxiety | Pearson Correlation | -.729* | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .002 | |
| | N | 90 | |

As shown in the table above, the correlation coefficient was calculated to be -0.72, which is significant at $P < 0.05$. This correlation is moderately high and negative. Therefore, it can be concluded that the higher GE university students' self-efficacy is, the less their anxiety is. Thus, the second null hypothesis was rejected at 0.05 level of significance ($r = 0.729, p < 0.05$).

The third question regards the significance of the possible differences between the achievement of university students of Humanities, Sciences, and Engineering in GE. The following table shows the mean scores of the two groups.

Table 3: Mean Achievement Scores of the three groups of university students

| Students | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|-------------|----|-------|----------------|-----------------|
| Humanities | 90 | 12.75 | 2.49 | .29 |
| Sciences | 90 | 14.63 | 1.56 | .28 |
| Engineering | 90 | 16.27 | 1.48 | .25 |

As seen in table 3 the achievement mean scores of the three groups of students are different. University students of engineering have the highest mean score, 16, and 27. The university students of Humanities have the lowest mean scores, 12, 75. Finally, university students of sciences have the middle mean score of achievement among the three groups, 14, 63. Table 4 demonstrates whether such differences in mean scores are significant or not.

Table 4: Determining the Significance of the Differences in Achievement Scores

| GE | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|------|
| Between Groups | 216.50 | 2 | 108.25 | 68.93 | .000 |
| Within Groups | 370.63 | 267 | 1.57 | | |
| Total | 587.14 | 269 | | | |

The above table demonstrates that the differences among the three mean scores is significant. However, the analysis of variance indicates just the difference among the three groups, but in order to find out which pairs were significantly different, the Scheffe test was run.

Table 5: A comparison of GE mean scores of the three groups of university students

Scheffe

| Fields | N | Subset for alpha = 0.05 | | |
|-------------|----|-------------------------|-------|-------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Humanities | 90 | 12.75 | | |
| Science | 90 | | 14.64 | |
| Engineering | 90 | | | 16.27 |
| Sig. | | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Table 5 demonstrates that the difference in mean scores among the three groups is significant at $p < 0.05$ and students of Engineering have obtained higher scores in self-efficacy than students of Sciences and Humanities.

The fourth research question deals with the possible significance of differences among the three university groups' self-efficacy. Table 6 shows the self-efficacy mean scores of the three groups.

Table 6: Mean SE Scores of the three groups of university students

| Students | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|-------------|----|-------|----------------|-----------------|
| Humanities | 90 | 18.61 | 2.49 | .29 |
| Sciences | 90 | 29.96 | 1.56 | .28 |
| Engineering | 90 | 39.61 | 1.48 | .25 |

As shown, the mean score of Engineering students is 39.61, that of Sciences students is 29.96, and that of Humanities students is 18.61. Table 7 demonstrates that the difference in mean scores among the three groups is significant at $p < 0.05$ and students of Engineering have obtained higher scores in self-efficacy than students of Sciences and Humanities.

Table 7: Determining the Significance of the Differences in Self-efficacy Scores

| SE | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|
| Between Groups | 71429.884 | 2 | 35714.942 | 21.895 | .000 |
| Within Groups | 384956.86 | 267 | 1631.173 | | |
| Total | 456386.74 | 269 | | | |

As indicated, the differences among the three mean scores of self-efficacy in the three groups are significantly different. The next table, Scheffe test, demonstrates which pairs of groups are significantly different in self-efficacy.

Table 8: A comparison of the self-efficacy mean score of the three groups of university students.

| Fields | N | Subset for alpha = 0.05 | | |
|-------------|----|-------------------------|-------|-------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Humanities | 90 | 18.61 | | |
| Sciences | 90 | | 29.96 | |
| Engineering | 90 | | | 39.61 |
| Sig. | | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Table 9 indicates that the difference in self-efficacy mean scores among the three groups is significant among all the pairs. In other words, university students of engineering are significantly more self-efficacious than the other university students and university students of humanities are the least self-efficacious students.

Table 9: Multiple Comparisons of the three pairs

| (I) Fields | (J) Fields | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Science | Humanities | 5.350* | 6.406 | .706 | -10.43 | 21.13 |
| | Engineering | -33.650* | 6.406 | .000 | -49.43 | -17.87 |
| Humanities | Science | -5.350* | 6.406 | .706 | -21.13 | 10.43 |
| | Engineering | -39.000* | 6.386 | .000 | -54.73 | -23.27 |
| Engineering | Science | 33.650* | 6.406 | .000 | 17.87 | 49.43 |
| | Humanities | 39.000* | 6.386 | .000 | 23.27 | 54.73 |

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

The fifth research question deals with the possible significance of difference among the three university groups' level of anxiety in GE course. Table 9 shows the anxiety mean scores of the three groups.

Table 10: Mean anxiety mean scores of the three groups of university students

| Students | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|-------------|----|-------|----------------|-----------------|
| Humanities | 90 | 72.25 | 1.22 | .32 |
| Sciences | 90 | 59.14 | 1.17 | .29 |
| Engineering | 90 | 44.81 | 1.61 | .38 |

As shown, the mean score of Engineering students is 44.81, that of Sciences students is 59.14, and that of Humanities students is 72.25. Table 11 demonstrates that the difference in mean scores among the three groups is significant at $p < 0.05$ and students of Engineering have obtained lower scores in anxiety than students of Sciences and Humanities.

Table 11: Determining the Significance of the Differences in Anxiety Scores

| Anxiety | Sum of Squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|----------------|----------------|-----|-------------|--------|------|
| Between Groups | 61241.724 | 2 | 35714.942 | 21.895 | .000 |
| Within Groups | 26516.389 | 267 | 1631.173 | | |
| Total | 374172.581 | 269 | | | |

As indicated, the differences among the three mean scores of anxiety in the three groups are significantly different. The next table, Scheffe test, demonstrates which pairs of groups are significantly different in self-efficacy.

Table 12: A comparison the anxiety mean score of the three groups of university students.

| Fields | N | Subset for alpha = 0.05 | | |
|-------------|----|-------------------------|-------|-------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Humanities | 90 | 72.25 | | |
| Sciences | 90 | | 59.14 | |
| Engineering | 90 | | | 44.81 |
| Sig. | | 1.000 | 1.000 | 1.000 |

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

Table 13 indicates that the difference in anxiety mean scores among the three groups is significant among all the pairs. In other words, university students of engineering are significantly less anxious than the other university students and university students of humanities are the most anxious students.

Table 13: Multiple Comparisons of the three pairs

| (I) Fields | (J) Fields | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. | 95% Confidence Interval | |
|-------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------|------|-------------------------|-------------|
| | | | | | Lower Bound | Upper Bound |
| Science | Humanities | 4.740* | 5.102 | .407 | -8.83 | 18.75 |
| | Engineering | -22.320* | 5.221 | .000 | -45.55 | -17.87 |
| Humanities | Science | -4.740* | 5.102 | .407 | -18.75 | 8.83 |
| | Engineering | -28.000* | 5.221 | .000 | -48.28 | -19.66 |
| Engineering | Science | 22.320* | 5.102 | .000 | 17.87 | 45.55 |
| | Humanities | 28.000* | 5.221 | .000 | 19.66 | 48.28 |

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

Interview Results

The results of the interviews corroborated those of the questionnaires. Most Engineering students believed that they were capable of good communication and reading ability in English. They maintained that through regular exercise they have reached a better level of English. 8 out of 10 believed that besides being advantageous for their future career, learning English gives them a sense of pleasure and prestige, so they felt they should make all their efforts to accomplish in GE course. For example, an engineering student said "I have high motivation to learn English. I try very hard to have good grades and gain a sufficient level of competence in English." In general, more than seven of Engineering students asserted that their previous experiences, especially at

the institutes, were beneficial to their success in GE course. In addition, they mentioned that their teachers have played a pivotal role in their positive attitude towards GE course. Eight of them pointed out that they want to have higher speaking and reading abilities like their teachers. Some of their teachers were good models for them. Talking about anxiety, more than eight interviewed engineering students did not have any major problems in handling their stress in GE course. One said "When you have good attitude towards English, you try very hard to tackle possible problems". More than six emphasized that their high motivation can contribute to coping with the anxiety in GE course.

Also, interviews with students of Sciences indicated that more than half of them were keen on learning English. For instance, one of them said "My teachers' encouragements have provided me positive attitudes towards English." Another one said "Spending more time with my classmates while doing English helped me to succeed in GE course." Furthermore, more than six of them took advantage of their teachers' advice to deal with the sources of anxiety in GE course. One said "Unfamiliar words, difficult pronunciation, and finding the main ideas of the passage paragraphs are among the anxiety makers; however, by following my teacher's tips I can tackle them."

In spite of the fact that both GE students of Engineering and Sciences revealed high levels of self-efficacy in GE, university students of Humanities showed the opposite. Seven out of ten were not highly motivated to learn English. They believe that their negative attitude towards English roots in their previous bitter experiences especially at high school. Three of them explained that even teachers treat them differently from other university students. One said "our teacher frequently compared our performance in GE with the other university students, especially engineering students." On the side of anxiety, almost all of the interviewed students expressed their high levels of anxiety with GE. One said "What I suffer most in GE course is my high level of anxiety; I think my low abilities in this course are really embarrassing, especially when I do not understand the unfamiliar words and phrases.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study are in agreement with those previously mentioned in the review of literature. For example, MackIntyre and Gardenr (1955), and Trylong (1987) found a negative relationship between students' anxiety and their self-ratings of language proficiency. Moreover, Kitano (2001) indicated that there is a negative relationship between Japanese university students' language anxiety and their self-perception. As to second research questions involving the relationship between self-efficacy and foreign language reading anxiety, a significant negative relationship was observed between the two variables. High self-efficacious participants experienced lower anxiety than low self-efficacious participants. As Bernhardt (1997) maintains the result may be interpreted by the fact that high self-efficacious participants feel really confident because of the experiences they have gained in solving problems and the approaches they have developed based on those problem solving experiences. This corroborated what was observed in the interviews. For instance, having good attitude towards English, university students of engineering and sciences expressed lower anxiety compared with the other university

students. They benefited from their teachers' advice to manipulate their anxiety arising from not knowing unfamiliar words or phrases. This indicates that they have taken advantage of useful vicarious experiences in their GE course which in turn has led to lower levels of anxiety. On the other hand, university students of humanities suffered from higher levels of anxiety compared to other university students. Their mastery experiences were full of anxiety. Teachers somehow labeled them as "those with low ability".

However, it is interesting that Cubukcu (2008) found no significant relationship between language anxiety and self-efficacy, contrary to the findings of the present study. Furthermore, he reported no difference between high self-efficacious learners and low self-efficacious in language anxiety. Nevertheless, he pointed out that this contrast might occur due to the Turkish educational setting, the learners' lack of ability, or their sense of embarrassment to express their opinions directly in public. In addition, the response to the first research question in this study showed a positive relationship between GE university students' self-efficacy and their achievement in this course. High self-efficacious learners also performed better than low self-efficacious learners in GE achievement. Such findings are in agreement with those of Wigfield (1994, cited in Pintrich and Schunk, 1996) and Chen (2007, cited in Rahimi & Abedini, 2009). Wigfield considered self-efficacy a good predictor of school students' achievement. Besides, Chen (2007) found a significant relationship between EFL learners' listening achievement and their self-efficacy. Chen's (2007) findings and those of the current study both indicate that EFL learners' self-efficacy is a significant factor in the achievement of higher scores in English language skills such as listening or reading comprehension. Furthermore, these findings can be interpreted in the light of the possible link between self-efficacy and use of language learning strategies; that is, high self-efficacious learners might use more suitable language learning strategies than those with lower levels of self-efficacy. Such postulate can be supported by the research conducted by Siew and Wing (2005), and also Magogwe and Oliver (2007). They all emphasized the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy and use of language learning strategies.

CONCLUSION

Self-efficacy in GE refers to individuals' perceptions of their abilities of success in this course, mainly reading comprehension activities. Individuals with high levels of self-efficacy perceive themselves of carrying out GE course activities. However, those with lower levels of self-efficacy consider themselves incapable of standing chances of success in GE. The researcher tried to see if this factor has a bearing on GE university students' anxiety and achievement.

As another part of the study, the significance of any difference between the self-efficacy of university students of engineering, sciences, and humanities, was also investigated. The results showed a significant difference in GE achievement between the three groups of students. Students of engineering turned out to be better language achievers, excelling students of sciences and humanities.

This study also explored the significance of any possible relationship between GE course and anxiety. Such correlation appeared to be highly negative, $-.72$. Following statistical analysis demonstrated that the difference among the three pairs of university students was significant, with the student of humanities suffering from the highest level of anxiety compared with the other pairs.

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Appendix A

FLRAS Questionnaire (English)

Directions: Statements 1 through 20 refer to how you feel about reading English. For each statement, please indicate whether you (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4), disagree, or (5) strongly disagree by marking the appropriate choice. Please give your first reaction to each statement and mark an answer for every statement.

NOTE: SA=strongly agree, A=agree, N=neither agree or disagree, D=disagree, SD=strongly disagree

1. I get upset when I am not sure whether I understand what I am reading in English.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
2. When reading English. I often understand the words but still cannot quite understand what the author is saying.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
3. When I am reading English. I get so confused I cannot remember what I am reading.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
4. I feel intimidated whenever I see a whole page of English in front of me.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
5. I am nervous when I am reading a passage in English when I am not familiar with the topic.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
6. I get upset whenever I encounter unknown grammar when reading English.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
7. It bothers me to encounter words I cannot pronounce while reading English.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
8. I usually end up translating word by word when I am reading English.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
9. By the time you get past the funny letters and symbols in English, It's hard to remember what you're reading about.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
10. I am worried about all the new symbols you have to learn in order to read English.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
11. I enjoy reading English.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
12. I feel confident when I am reading in English.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
13. Once you get used to it, reading English is not so difficult.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
14. The hardest part of learning English is learning to read

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
15. I would be happy just to learn to speak English rather than having to learn to read as well.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
16. I don't mind to reading to myself, but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to read English aloud.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|
17. I am satisfied with the level of reading ability in English that I have achieved so far.

| | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|----|
| SA | A | N | D | SD |
|----|---|---|---|----|

THE INFLUENCE OF EFL STUDENTS' SELF-ESTEEM ON THEIR SPEAKING SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating the relationship between the EFL intermediate students self – esteem and their speaking skills. Accordingly, two groups of university students were selected as the low and high self – esteem participants. This was done by their responses given to a questionnaire developed by Lui et al. (2005) to measure self – esteem. After selecting the participants, the researcher utilized a standard oral proficiency test based on the scales provided by Farhadi et al. (1995), measuring five sub skills of vocabulary, structure, pronunciation, fluency and comprehensibility to evaluate the speaking ability 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-esteem students were found to be more inclined to involve themselves in the conversations and other spoken activities on the classroom including the oral production of stories in English. It was found that there is a statistically significant correlation between the students self – esteem and their verbal performance.

KEY WORDS: self – esteem, speaking ability

INTRODUCTION

The affective domain is difficult to describe scientifically. A large number of variables are implied in considering the emotional side of human behavior in the second language learning process. Based on Brown (2007, p. 153), affect refers to emotion or feeling. The affective domain is the emotional side of human behavior, and it may be juxtaposed to the cognitive side. Brown further claims that the development of affective states or feelings involves a variety of personality factors, feelings both about ourselves and about others with whom we come in contact. Understanding how students feel, respond, believe and value is an exceedingly important aspect of a theory of second language acquisition.

Self- Esteem, as one important factor of human affective domain, has been found to play an extremely important role in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). In this line, Brown (2007, p. 154) proposes that no successful cognitive or affective activity can be carried out without some degree of self – esteem, self – confidence and self – efficacy – belief in your own capabilities to successfully perform that activity. Many definitions have been given for self-esteem. But the following is the most well accepted definition given by Coppersmith (1967, pp. 4-5):

By self – esteem, we refer to the evaluation which individuals make and customarily maintain with regard to themselves; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short self – esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in attitudes that individuals hold toward themselves. It is a subjective experience which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behavior.

As it is indicated in the literature, different terms such as ‘Self-concept’, ‘Self-esteem’ and ‘self-confidence’ are often used interchangeably and inconsistently because they may refer to different ideas about how people think about themselves (Stern, 1995).

Some researchers view self-concept and self-efficacy as the same construct. But others view them as two different constructs (Bong & Clark, 1999; Choi, 2005). Huitt (2004) distinguished the two terms ‘self-concept’ and ‘self-esteem’ by stating that ‘self-concept’ is the cognitive aspect of self, but ‘self-esteem’ is the affective aspect of self, which refers to one’s feelings of self-worth. Self-confidence is not always what we think it is.

Some experts (e.g. Miyagawa, 2010) distinguish between self-confidence on one side and self-esteem on the other. Self-confidence is about what we can do by virtue of our efforts or what we are good and bad at. Self-confidence grows along with the quality of the effort. Self-esteem is more fundamental and is about the feeling of being worth something just because we are who we are, and not because we have done something.

Nativists believe that any normal child can learn a first language because of the availability of what Chomsky (1959) refers to as the Universal Grammar (UG). However, when it comes to learning of a foreign language, especially at the later stages, there are factors which can either inhibit or enhance the process of learning. These factors can be cognitive, affective, biological and socio-cultural variables (Stern, 1983). Academic self-esteem positively affects school performance. Whatever the case, it is almost certain that there is a significant relationship between self-esteem and achievement in second language acquisition.

Throughout the history of language learning and teaching, many other studies have been conducted to see the effects of self-esteem on EFL/ESL students' performance, Adelaide Heyde (1979) studied the effects of the three levels of self-esteem, i.e., global situational and task self-esteem on the performance of an oral production task by American college students learning French as a foreign language. She came to the conclusion that all three levels of self-esteem correlate positively with performance on oral production measure, with the highest correlation occurring between task self-esteem and performance on oral production measures. Concerning the relationship between self-esteem and achievement in second language acquisition, the results of a study by Hayati and Ostadian (2008) revealed that students listening comprehension was significantly influenced by their self-esteem, supporting earlier studies in this area.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The aim of this study was to answer the following question:

Is there a significant relationship between self-esteem and speaking skills of intermediate Iranian EFL students?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 38 undergraduate EFL students studying towards a B.A degree in teaching English as a foreign language at Azad University of Dezful, Iran. These participants were about to sit for the final exam of their required course of oral production of stories, which is normally offered in the third semester of their B.A program. There were 18 male and 30 female students selected from population of 129 students by the results obtained from their responses given to the self-esteem questioner developed by Lui et al. (2005) as a measure of self-esteem.

Instruments

First an Oral Proficiency Test (OPT) 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 spoken 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 spoken proficiency. A speaking scale developed by Farhadi, Jafarpoor and Birjandi (1995) was used by the interviewers and the researcher, who was also the instructor teaching the course of oral production of short stories, to the participants at Dezful University. This scale was utilized by the interviewers and the researcher to measure the students' speaking ability in terms of the following components:

1. Accent
2. Structure
3. Vocabulary

4. Fluency
5. Comprehension

Scores were given on a 6 point scale ranging from the least appropriate (1) to the most (6). Comprehension as intended by Farhadi et al. was interpreted to mean the extent to which the subjects could comprehend what was said by the speaker. In order to measure the participants' self-esteem, the researcher provided a questionnaire taken from Marsh and Herbert (2007) containing 20 items.

Procedure

Right from the beginning of the course, the self-esteem questionnaire was distributed among a group of 129 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 aim 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-esteem and those who indicated a low degree of self-esteem. That is, the questionnaire was distributed among a population of 129 EFL students taking the same course (Oral Production of stories). From among these students, 18 were selected as the ones having the highest degree of self-esteem (HSe) and 20 others as the lowest self-esteem (LSe). This was done after ranging the students' responses to the items in the questionnaire. That is to say, the researcher ranged the students' scores obtained from the self-esteem questionnaire to determine the highest and the lowest students in terms of their level of self-esteem. Having been selected as the participants of the study, these students were interviewed at the end of the term by two interviewers who were both EFL university professors. As it was mentioned before, a speaking scale developed by Farhadi, Jafarpoor and Birjandi (1995) was used by both the interviewers and the instructors to make their judgment about the students' oral proficiency as reliable as possible. The scale used by the teacher and the researcher both as the raters of the students spoken performance made it essential to give careful attention to the following points suggested by Farhady et.al. (1995) in order to make the scoring as reliable as possible.

1. Each interview must be carefully structured.
2. The number of raters will not be less than 20 for each case.
3. The candidates should be put at ease in order to make the results both more valid and reliable.
4. Each interview will be recorded for scoring and future reference.
5. Scoring will be discrete rather than holistic.

In order to determine if there was a significant relationship between the students obtained scores on the final exam in the form of the structured interviews and the subjects' self-esteem determined by the self – esteem questionnaire, the researcher calculated the correlation coefficient of the scores obtained on the speaking test and the scores resulted from the self – esteem questionnaire.

RESULTS

In order to see if there is a significant relationship between the performance of the students on the OPT and their academic self – esteem, the researcher run a t - test won the results obtained by the high self – esteem students on the OPT and that of the low self – esteem subjects on the same test. The following table provides the results obtained from the t – test.

Tables one and two: one sample t – test results on the OPT

One-Sample Statistics

| | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---|----|---------|----------------|-----------------|
| OPTLSeA=Oral Proficiency Test Low Self -esteem A | 20 | 7.5000 | 3.59092 | .80296 |
| OPTLSeB=Oral Proficiency Test High Self -esteem B | 20 | 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 |
| OPTLSeA=Oral Proficiency Test Low Self -esteem A | 9.340 | 19 | .000 | 7.50000 | 5.8194 | 9.1806 |
| OPTLSeB=Oral Proficiency Test High Self -esteem 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 Oral Proficiency Test (OPT) given to the low self- esteem students were 7.50 and 3.59. The mean and the standard deviation for the high self – esteem 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% ($P < 5$) $p = 0$, the difference between the means obtained from the t – test is statically different. That is to say, the means of the OPT given to the low and high self – esteem 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 – esteem influences their oral performance in the form of spoken English.

To see if there is a significant correlation between the participants’ self – esteem and their oral production 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 – esteem 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 three and four: Correlations between the students' self-esteem and their oral performance (speaking)

Correlations

| | | LSeA=Low Self - esteem | OPTLSeA=Oral Proficiency Test Low Self -esteem A |
|--|---------------------|------------------------|--|
| LSeA=Low Self –esteem | Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.192 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .417 |
| | N | 20 | 20 |
| OPTLSeA=Oral Proficiency Test Low Self -esteem A | Pearson Correlation | -.192 | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .417 | |
| | N | 20 | 20 |

Correlations

| | | HSeB=High Self -esteem | OPTLSeB=Oral Proficiency Test High Self -esteem B |
|---|---------------------|------------------------|---|
| HSeB=High Self -esteem | Pearson Correlation | 1 | -.497* |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | | .026 |
| | N | 20 | 20 |
| OPTLSeB=Oral Proficiency Test High Self -esteem B | Pearson Correlation | -.497* | 1 |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .026 | |
| | N | 20 | 20 |

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

These findings are in part in line with the findings of Niki Maleki and Mohammadi (2009). They found that the more successful learners regarding the oral communication had higher self – esteem than less successful ones in performing oral communication 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 – esteem and spoken fluency and classroom oral participation.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This study aimed at investigating the relationship between self – esteem and oral (speaking) skill 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 twenty students in low self-esteem group and 18 in high self – esteem group.

Their level of self– esteem was determined based on their responses given to a self – esteem scale questionnaire developed by Liu et al. (2005). Based on the results obtained from the participants' responses to the self – esteem questionnaire and their performance on an standard oral proficiency test, it was concluded that there was a high correlation between the participants self – esteem and their oral performance. Based on the findings of this study and many other studies

conducted on this issue, foreign – language teachers should consider academic self – esteem as a powerful motivating force that can optimize language learning processes and more importantly consider enhancing student self –esteem 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-esteem may influence their performance in general and their spoken performance 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.

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Appendix

The self – esteem questionnaire used in the study

1. I can follow the lessons easily.
2. I day-dream a lot in class.
3. I am able to help my classmates in their schoolwork.
4. I often do my homework without thinking.
5. If I work hard, I think I can go to the Polytechnic or University.
6. I pay attention to the teachers during lessons.
7. Most of my classmates are smarter than I am.
8. I study hard for my tests.
9. My teachers feel that I am poor in my work.
10. I am usually interested in my schoolwork.
11. I often forget what I have learnt.
12. I am willing to do my best to pass all the subjects.
13. I get frightened when I am asked a question by the teachers.
14. I often fell like quitting school.
15. I am good in most of my school subjects.
16. I am always waiting for the lessons to end.
17. I always do poorly in tests.
18. I do not give up easily when I am faced with a difficult question in my schoolwork.
19. I am able to do better than my friends in most subjects.
20. I am not willing to put in more effort in my schoolwork.

INVESTIGATING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' JOB SATISFACTION IN PAKISTAN

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ABSTRACT

This study attempts at examining the factors that influence English Language Teachers' job satisfaction in Pakistan. The factors like job security, workplace flexibility and fairness, handsome salary and reward, job autonomy and conducive behavior of leadership increase the job satisfaction whereas the absence of job security, job autonomy, handsome salary and reward, workplace flexibility and fairness and conducive behavior of leadership brings dissatisfaction among the teachers. The study is quantitative in nature. 500 questionnaires were distributed to collect data from English language teachers irrespective of age, gender, experience, level and sector. On the basis of the findings, some recommendations regarding job satisfaction of English Language Teachers are given at the end of this study.

KEYWORDS: job security, workplace flexibility and fairness, handsome salary and reward, job autonomy and conducive behavior of leadership

INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction is a factor that plays a significant role in improving English Language Teachers' performance. Locke, (1976) defines the job satisfaction as a positive and pleasing emotional state from the appraisal of one' job or experience. The very definition suggests that the employees' attitude towards their jobs is formed by their behaviors, beliefs and feelings. According to Galup, Klein and Jiang (2008) , successful organization ensure their employees' job satisfaction realizing the fact that poor job satisfaction can cripple an organization. Kalleberg (1977) suggests that job satisfaction includes two components. These are intrinsic (referring to the work itself) and extrinsic (representing the facets of the job external to the task itself) job satisfaction. Lashbrook (1997) is of the view that leadership style plays an important role in influencing the employees' job satisfaction.

Bogler (2001) demonstrates that the different leadership styles engender different working environment and directly influence employees' job satisfaction. Emery and Barker (2007) state that transformational leaders motivate and encourage their followers to take on more responsibility which increases employees' sense of accomplishment and job satisfaction. Castaneda and Nahavandi (1991) indicate that the employees are more satisfied with both relational and task-oriented behaviors exhibiting simultaneously by their heads. Spector (1997) refers to job satisfaction in terms of how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) support this view by defining job satisfaction as the extent to which employees like their work. Schermerhorn (1993) defines job satisfaction as an affective or emotional response towards various aspects of an employee's work. Reilly (1991) defines job satisfaction as the feeling that a worker has about his job or a general attitude towards work or a job and it is influenced by the perception of one's job.

Wanous and Lawler (1972) state that job satisfaction is the sum of job facet satisfaction across all facets of a job. Abraham Maslow (1954) suggested that human needs from a five-level hierarchy ranging from physiological needs, safety, belongingness and love, esteem to self-actualization. Based on Maslow's theory, job satisfaction has been approached by some researchers from the perspective of need fulfillment (Kuhlen, 1963; Worf, 1970; Conrad et al., 1985).

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory encompasses factors that cause satisfaction and dissatisfaction among employees. According to this theory, quality of work, pay, physical working conditions and job security are the factors associated with dissatisfaction of the employees. He uses the term 'motivators' for the factors like opportunities for promotion and personal growth, recognition, responsibility and achievement that increase the job satisfaction of the employees. (Greenberg & Baron, 2003: p. 153). There is another theory named Value Theory. This theory is about the job reward. According to this theory, the key to employees' job satisfaction is to minimize discrepancy between employees' desires and job rewards (Greenberg & Baron, 2003: p. 153-154). Better human resource management practices also play a vital role in enhancing the employees' job satisfaction (Bloom & Van Reenen, 2007; Petrescu & Simmons, 2008).

This study investigates the factors that influence English Language Teachers' job satisfaction in Pakistan and the specific objectives of the study are as under:

- To explore the reality of working conditions in educational organizations.

- To point out the workplace problems faced by English Language Teachers.
- To find out the factors that increase job satisfaction among English Language Teachers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leadership directly influences the performance of employees. If the leadership is conducive for employees, the employees' performance will be improved. Leadership is a way to influence the groups' behavior and direct them towards achieving the defined goals (Robbins, 2003, P314). There have been discussions about leadership and leaders since man started working in group. Leader can be defined as a person who has managerial authority and who can influence others. Leadership is simply what the leader does. Leaders should have the qualities like drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, job-relevant knowledge and extraversion. Leaders influence the behavior, feelings and performance of their subordinates. Performance of subordinates is improved if they are positively influenced by their leaders. Researches have been made to explore the leadership styles to find the most effective one for both the quality and quantity of work. The autocratic style, the democratic style and laissez-faire style and their impact on employees' performance have been deeply researched. In autocratic leadership, work methods are dictated to the employees not involving them in decision making process.

In laissez-faire leadership, the leaders let the group make decisions and complete the work in whatever way it saw fit. In democratic leadership style, the employees are involved in decision making. It is concluded that democratic style is the most effective to make employees' performance better. Recently, the researches are being made to investigate the influences of transactional and transformational leadership on employees' performance. Burns (1978) opines that transactional and transformational leadership styles are more prominent among leadership styles. Transactional leaders give rewards and punishments to encourage performance, making the leader/ worker relationship essentially an economic transaction. (Bass, 1985). Transactional Leaders work with their team members exchanging rewards with them and being responsive to their immediate interests. Transformational leaders are active leaders that have four distinguishing qualities: charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration (Bass, 1985; Conger, 1999).

Charisma is the extent of pride, faith and respect leaders encourage their workers to have in themselves, their leaders and their organizations. Inspiration is the ability to motivate followers through communication of high expectations. Intellectual stimulation is the frequency with which leaders encourage employees to be innovative in their problem solutions. Finally, individualized consideration is the degree of personal attention and encouragement of self-development a leader imparts to the employees (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1990). Conducive leadership style create eagerness

among employees to achieve the goals with sincerity and it also brings satisfaction among employees (Aydin & Ceylan, 2009). Lee and Ho, (1989) are of the view that the employees are more satisfied if they are involved in decision making by the leadership. Tanke (1990) states that unpleasant behavior of the leader creates dissatisfaction among the employees and even the employees may leave the organization. Markow and Klenke (2005) and Milliman et al. (2003) point out that the pleasant behavior of the leadership can enhance the efficiency and job satisfaction of the employee.

The term job autonomy refers to the state of the self-governing of the people (Smith, 1993). Job autonomy is one the important factors that enhances the employees' job satisfaction (Dawson, 1987). Job autonomy is one of the key factors that play a vital role for the job satisfaction of the employees (Nguyen et al, 2003) Person's job is more than some obvious activities. The factors like the nature of work, supervision, present pay and promotion opportunities bring satisfaction among employees (Robbins, 2003: pp. 78-79). Hackman (1990) is of the view that intrinsic as well as extrinsic rewards play an important role for employees' satisfaction. James Brown (2007) defines the fairness as equal treatment in which all the employees receive the same benefits rendering the same services like other employees in the organization. Lepper and Green (1978) state that the employees experience greater satisfaction in the situations where the probability of making endogenous attributions is higher than the probability of making exogenous attributions. Lawler and Porter (1967) opine that the performance of the employees will be increased if they get proper reward of their efforts. They further state that if the employees' rewards are inequitable to their co-workers, it will result dissatisfaction.

Adams (1963) expresses that the employees are dissatisfied if the rewards will not match their efforts. Podsakoff (1982) gives his view that employees are more satisfied when they receive just rewards after their performances. Hackman (1976) demonstrates that the employees perform better with satisfaction if they will be favored. Herman (1973) is of the view that the economic conditions affect job satisfaction-performance relationship. Miller (1982) explains that job security and higher pay are important factors that bring job satisfaction. Furnham (1992) categorizes the factors that can have impact on job satisfaction into three categories: organizational policies and procedures, working conditions at workplace and personal issues of employees. Robbins (1998) gives his opinion that flexible work situations and supportive work environments bring satisfaction among employees and increase their performance.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The present study aimed at discovering the factors that influence English Language Teachers' job satisfaction in Pakistan. The findings of the study and its recommendations will be placed in front of decision makers in the educational sector to be taken into consideration. This study will be helpful for the heads of the educational institutes to increase the job satisfaction of their employees.

This study will test the following hypotheses.

- H.1. Job security increases the job satisfaction.
- H. 2. Job autonomy also enhances the job satisfaction.
- H. 3. Workplace flexibility and fairness bring job satisfaction.
- H. 4. Handsome salary and reward are the factors that maximize the job satisfaction level.
- H. 5. Conducive and positive behavior of leadership ensures job satisfaction.

METHODOLOGY

The population of this study was 500 in-service English language teachers irrespective of gender, level, age, experience and sector. Teachers of English were selected for collecting data because English is taught as a compulsory subject and the teachers of English are involved in almost all the programs. The study was quantitative in nature. Data were collected through questionnaire using random sampling method. The questionnaire used a five point Likert scale. Five variables: job security, workplace flexibility and fairness, handsome salary and reward, job autonomy and conducive behavior of leadership were addressed in this study. There were twenty items in questionnaire and four questions on each variable were to be answered by each respondent. Keeping in mind the research ethics, the questionnaire was given for filling to those who showed their willingness. 398 out of 500 (79.60%) questionnaires were received. 8 questionnaires were incomplete enough not to be interpreted. The responses of remaining 390 questionnaires have been interpreted through charts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

CHART

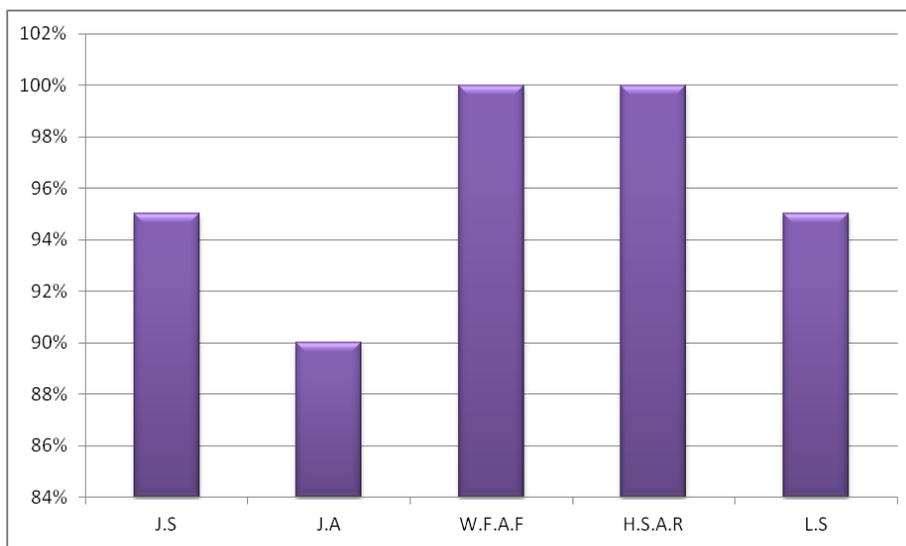


Chart 1 given above shows the responses of 390 respondents on the questions about the factors that influence the job satisfaction of English language teachers. 371 respondents out of 390 agreed that Job Security is factor that influences job satisfaction. As far as Job Autonomy is concerned, 351 out of 390 respondents considered it an important factor that influences job satisfaction. Leadership Style has been taken as an important factor that affects job satisfaction by 371 out of 390 respondents. Handsome Salary and Reward are the factors that affect job satisfaction, this is supported by 390 out of 390 respondents. All 390 respondents agreed that Workplace Flexibility and Fairness are the factors that influence job satisfaction. All variables are given below according to the response of the respondents.

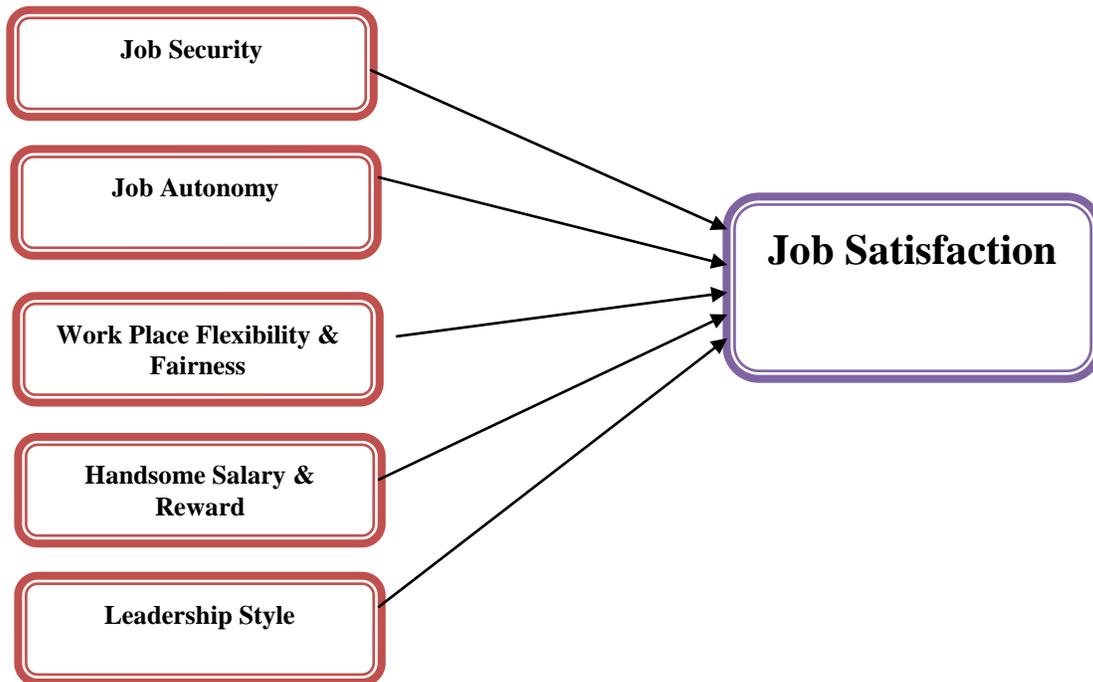
Variables

Response & Percentage

| | |
|--|--|
| Job Security (J.S) | (Agreed by 371 out of 390 respondents & 95%) |
| Job Autonomy (J.A) | (Agreed by 351 out of 390 respondents & 90%) |
| Leadership Style (L.S) | (Agreed by 371 out of 390 respondents & 95%) |
| Handsome Salary and Reward (H.S.A.R) | (Agreed by all 390 respondents & 100%) |
| Workplace Flexibility and Fairness (W.F.A.F) | (Agreed by all 390 respondents & 100%) |

See the figure below for the quick understanding of the factors that influence job satisfaction of English language teachers.

Figure



- H.1. Job security increases the job satisfaction.
- H. 2. Job autonomy also enhances the job satisfaction.
- H. 3. Workplace flexibility and fairness bring job satisfaction.
- H. 4. Handsome salary and reward are the factors that maximize the job satisfaction level.
- H. 5. Conducive and positive behavior of leadership ensures job satisfaction.

Hypotheses (1-5) are about the factors that influence job satisfaction were taken by the researchers before starting this study. Hypotheses need no longer discussion here. Data interpreted above clearly proves these hypotheses.

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The problem of this study was to investigate the factors that influence English Language Teachers' job satisfaction in Pakistan. The limitations of the study are as under:

- 100 % accuracy cannot be assured because the survey is subjected to the biased and prejudiced responses of the respondents.
- This research was carried out in a short span of time and the researchers could not widen the study.
- The study can be generalized to the limited population.

The findings support that the factors like job security, work place flexibility and fairness, handsome salary and reward, job autonomy and conducive behavior of leadership increase the job satisfaction whereas the absence of job security, job autonomy, handsome salary and reward, workplace flexibility and fairness and conducive behavior of leadership brings dissatisfaction among the teachers. On the basis of findings, here are some recommendations as under:

- Educational organizations should ensure the workplace flexibility and fairness so that they may decrease the employees' turnover.
- Educational organizations should discourage the favoritism to increase job satisfaction level among the employees to provide them peace of mind and relaxation so that they may work with innovation and enthusiasm.
- Absenteeism, tardiness and health sets backs due to stress can be reduced if the employees meet job security and job autonomy.
- Salaries of the employees should be increased to that level where they feel comfortable to fulfill their needs easily. In this way, their working efficiency can be increased
- Government of Pakistan should take some immediate measures to formulate some laws ensuring the job security of the employees working in private sector educational organizations.

In short, if the above stated recommendations are taken into the consideration by the decision makers of the education sector, the employees' job satisfaction level will be increased to that level where they will perform enthusiastically putting their best efforts.

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TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT OF NEWS TRANSLATION IN ISNA NEWS AGENCY

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ABSTRACT

Translation, particularly news translation, is an essential means of communication in information exchange era. Its quality influences international relationships and leads to offer readers either accurate or wrong information. Accordingly, it is essential to evaluate the quality of translated news texts. It is also important that the task of translation quality assessment be carried out with consideration of text function and its context. In this study, it is attempted to evaluate the quality of news translations in one of the major news sources of Iran media, namely ISNA news agency through the application of objectified discourse-based TQA model of Farahzad (1992). By applying this model to the corpus of the selected texts used in the present study, the researchers rated 10 news texts translation for 5 criteria of appropriateness, accuracy, naturalness, cohesion and style.

INTRODUCTION

News as a major part of today's communications plays a considerable role in the exchange of information. This information exchange would be of value if it is proper and accurate. While there is not a united language for all people worldwide, there is no remedy of translation.

According to Hatim and Mason (1997, Cited in Khajeh and Khanmohammad, 2006), translation is an act of communication that is permanently dealing with at least two different languages along with a broad network of elements including cultural, historical, political and ideological differences. In order to establish a proper communication and offer a tangible and meaningful translation, one needs to transfer the original utterances to his/her audiences thoroughly. It is possible when the translator is aware of source text (ST) and target text (TT) structure, text function in both ST and TT context, and culture-specific elements and the characteristics of the audiences. In other words, translation should be meaningful, accurate, and functional for its context.

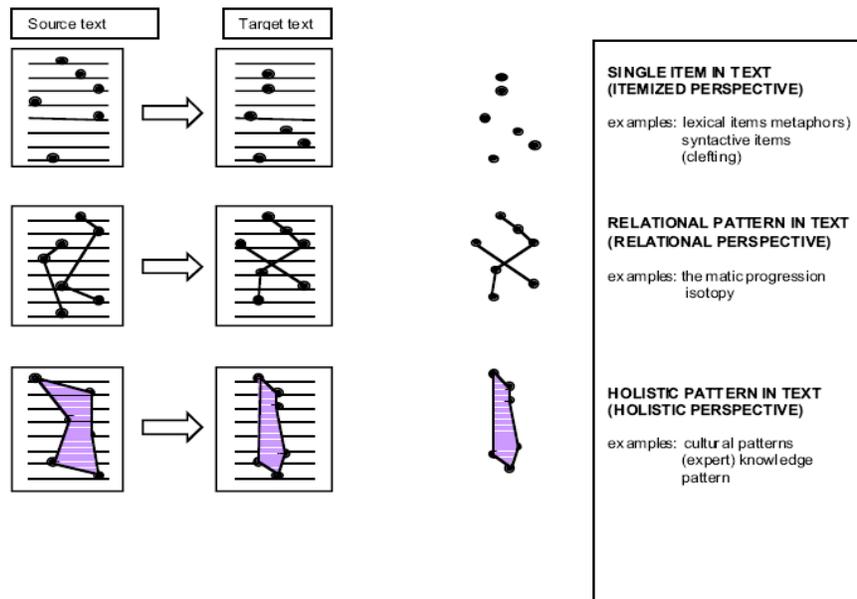
In this study, the researchers evaluated the quality of news translation in Iranian Students News Agency applying TQA model of Farahzad (1992), in which 5 criteria of appropriateness, accuracy, naturalness, cohesion and style were introduced as quality indexes.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Different Perspectives to a Text

Arbogast (2001) explains that each text can be seen from different perspectives. In an *Itemized Perspective*, individual problems in a text such as metaphors, cohesive devices and ambiguities are investigated. These items are usually of local essence and should be treated as culture-bound matters. The translator often resorts to compensation strategies in such cases. The *Relational Pattern Perspective* describes patterns that can be identified and traced subsequently in the whole text. He/She should find such patterns and find an alternative for the whole pattern. With a *Holistic Pattern Perspective*, the translator deals with holistic patterns which are functional entities in a text. These holistic patterns have not an identifiable starting point like relational patterns. The whole pattern is made up of elements that are *functionally related to each other*. Coherence, cultural and general or specific knowledge patterns are some examples of such patterns (Figure 1).

FIGURE 1



Functionalist view of translation evaluation

In the functional approach, translation is not simply a text reproduction and the function of a text is its use in a situation in which it is applied. The functionalists believe that each and every text gains its function just in its context. Hence, without considering the particular context of a text, the translator is not allowed to provide a correct and functional translation

According to *Christina Schaffner* (1998), the criteria for evaluation of translation quality will be different depending on the purpose of the assessment and on the theoretical framework which the evaluator applies and in assessing the quality of the translation. The TT is compared to the ST to find out whether the TT is an “accurate, correct, precise, faithful, or a true reproduction of the ST” (pp. 1). This comparison, based on Newmark (1991), involves both quantitative and qualitative aspects, or in other words, it investigates the status of accuracy referentially and pragmatically.

Translation evaluation in functional approaches, according to Lauscher (2000), is determined by factors related to the target culture rather than the source text. Translation is seen as a process of text production on the basis of a source text, and the target text is considered as a text in its own right. In the process of functional translation quality assessment, the evaluator compares SL and TL structures and pragmatic parameters in ST and TT. The evaluator then determines to what extent these parameters matched in ST and TT. In functional view of translation, the proper translation is pragmatically adequate or functionally appropriate. The functionalist approaches to translation also propose the function and the purpose of the TT as the most essential criterion of all translation and translation quality assessment. From a functionalist approach, the quality of a translation depends on the text user and the way in which s/he considers it as appropriate and corresponding to its purpose and the specific context.

As House (1997: cited in Baker, 1998) proposes, ST and TT are likely to be functionally adequate or equivalent when their functions in their respective contexts are alike so the degree of matches and mismatches between textual profile and the function of ST and TT is the scale of adequacy and quality of a translation. From House (2001) point of view, the translator should take into account the “interconnectedness of context and text” because the language and the real world are interdependent (p. p. 247).

Farahzad’s TQA model

Farahzad (1990) introduced her first model for TQA in an essay which was offered in Denmark conference, entitled: “translating and interpreting training”. This model which is basically designed for educational settings, as Tajvidi (2005) states, provides one of the most applicable models for TQA. In her model, she suggests criteria of appropriateness, accuracy, naturalness, cohesion and style for scoring a long text and considers two ways for it.

In the holistic version of this model, the evaluator reads the translation once and considers 20 percent of the total score for each index. On the other way, or objectified version, the target text is read twice, once for checking accuracy and appropriateness, and then for cohesion and style. Objectified version is somehow time-consuming but more precise and reliable. In this way, sentence or clause is the unit of translation. In order to score cohesion and style, the elements of cohesion (e.g. transitional, appropriate use of pronouns, linkages, etc.) and style of discourse (e.g. choice of words, grammatical structures, etc.), are evaluated in the whole text. According to what

Farahzad (2012) said in an interview with the researchers, translation of journalistic texts should be scored based on an objectified version of her model and rater should read each text twice.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aim of this study was to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent is news translation accurate and appropriate in Iranian Students News Agency, according to TQA model of Farahzad?
2. Regarding Farahzad's model, what is the most problematic translation quality index in news translation in ISNA?
3. How much is the News translations cohesive in ISNA news agency?

The researchers will answer all the questions by using scores which are made based on Farahzad's TQA criteria, namely, appropriateness, accuracy, naturalness, cohesion, and style.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, 10 in-brief news texts were taken incidentally from among 50 short news items. Each item consisted of up to 25 sentences. The researchers concentrates on in-brief news items because too long items may cause some distracters like fatigue both for the translator and the raters during the process of translating and scoring.

Participants

A group of 10 translators rendered 10 English texts into Persian. All of the translators were M.A students in translation studies who had been homogenized through precise written examinations (semi-TOEFL) and interviews which were taken by ISNA international editorial board.

The researchers read each translated text twice. At first, the researchers divided each source text into its units of translation, compared ST and TT pairs and scored appropriateness, accuracy, and naturalness for each unit of translation. Then, she read the translation as a whole text and scored it for cohesion and style.

Design

In the scope of the present study, the process of rating consisted of two phases. In the first phase, the researchers divided each source text into its units of translation. The unit of translation, based on what Farahzad (2012), asserted in an interview with the researchers, could be word, compound, or phrase. Generally each verb takes a score. If a sentence is consisted of a main clause and subordinate clause(s), the main clause receives one score and each sub-clause another score; no matter how many sentences/clauses were in its translation.

Then the researchers compared TT and ST pairs and scored each unit for accuracy, appropriateness, and naturalness. Afterward, in the second phase of rating, she read each translation as a whole text and scored the translation for cohesion and style. Finally, 10 score-sheets for 10 translations were collected and analyzed in order to find the lowest quality index in news translation in ISNA.

In the next step, the researchers calculated the percentage for appropriateness, accuracy, naturalness, cohesion, and style in order to be more tangible and based on the same scale. In this way, the comparison of translations scores became easier and more tangible. Finally, the researchers compared the scores of different quality index to find out what quality index was the most problematic one for translators in news translation in ISNA.

It is necessary to mention that the process of scoring the translated texts was checked step by step through the supervision of Farahzad. The researchers referred to Farahzad in different phases of the scoring process in order to assure the correctness of the process.

RESULTS

The corpus consists of 10 sets of total scores each of which was sum of 3 scores, namely, appropriateness, accuracy, and naturalness; two other criteria, cohesion and style, were scored separately as holistic measures. (Separate scores have been given for all 5 criteria additionally). Because the number of translation units for each source-text item (and the resulted total score for each translated text) was different, thus the quality index percentages in their respective text were calculated.

At last, the researchers compared scores of each criterion (appropriateness, accuracy, cohesion and style, and naturalness) in order to find out which criteria raised difficulty more in translation of news texts in ISNA.

Following are instances of the translation evaluation of 10 news translated texts which is based on the quintuple translation quality index of Farahzad (1992) TQA model. In the first round of rating, three quality scales of appropriateness, accuracy, and naturalness were scored. In the second phase, the rater read each text as a whole and gave a score for style and cohesion:

Source text No.1:

| |
|---|
| 1.Afghan President Hamid Karzai would pay an important visit to Pakistan next week رییس جمهور افغانستان هفته آینده سفری مهم به پاکستان خواهد داشت |
| 2.to talk Islamabad on board over peace talks with Afghan Taliban as well as US troops drawdown plans تا با اسلام آباد بر سر مذاکرات صلح با طالبان و طرح خروج نظامیان آمریکا از افغانستان گفتگو کند. |
| 3.Sources said on Monday ترجمه نشده است. |
| 4.Well-place diplomatic sources told this scribe that به گزارش ایسنا به نقل از روزنامه نیشن، منابع خبری دیپلماتیک اظهار داشتند که |
| 5.President Karzai would visit Pakistan from June 10 حامد کرزای رییس جمهور افغانستان 20 خرداد به پاکستان سفر خواهد کرد |
| 6.and the leadership of the two countries would also take stock of the state of bilateral relations, peace and stability in the region and the proposed Indo-Afghan defense pact. و رهبران دو کشور به ارزیابی روابط دوجانبه، صلح و ثبات در منطقه و پیشنهاد پیمان دفاعی هند و افغانستان خواهد پرداخت. |
| 7.In a related development, the visiting deputy foreign minister of Afghanistan Jawed Ludin is finalizing with his Pakistani counterpart the agenda of talks of the Afghan president with Pakistani leadership. در همین راستا جاوید لودین، معاون وزیر امور خارجه افغانستان با همتای پاکستانی خود در حال نهایی سازی دستورکار مذاکرات رییس جمهور افغانستان با رهبران پاکستانی است. |
| 8.Mr. Ludin,...met Minister of State for foreign affairs Hina Rabbani Khar وی ...با حنا ربانی خوار، وزیر امور خارجه ی این کشور دیدار کرد |
| 9.who is on a two-day official visit to Pakistan, در سفر دو روزه خود به پاکستان،.. |
| 10.and discussed host of issues of bilateral interest. و طیفی از مسائل مربوط به منافع دوجانبه را مورد بحث قرار داد. |
| 11.Hina Rabani Khar ... emphasized further consolidation the relations between Pakistan and Afghanistan. حنا ربانی خوار... بر تحکیم هرچه بیشتر روابط میان پاکستان و افغانستان تاکید ورزید. |
| 12.Embedded: while talking to the Afghan dignity در مذاکرات با این مقام پاکستانی |
| 13.She expressed her satisfaction over the current state of bilateral relations, وی نسبت به وضعیت کنونی روابط دوجانبه...، اظهار رضایت کرد. |
| 14.(Adjective clause) which had under gone tremendous change under the present democratic regime که در حکومت دموکراتیک کنونی دستخوش تغییرات عظیمی گردید، |

TABLE 1

| Tr. Unit | Appropriateness | Accuracy | Naturalness | Total score |
|----------|-----------------|----------|-------------|-------------|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 1 | 0.5 | 1 | 2.5 |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 6 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 7 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 8 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 9 | 0.5 | 1 | 1 | 2.5 |
| 10 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 12 | 0 | 0 | - | 0 |
| 13 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| Sum | 11.5 | 10.5 | 12 | 35 |

As it is shown in table 1, the translator did not render any Persian translation for sentence No. 3, so the rater considered 0 score for all indexes. In an interview with the researchers, Farahzad (2012) also confirmed that in cases for which the translator did not offer a translation all criteria would take 0 score.

In sentence 4 the translator did not offer the precise translation for “well-placed” and the rater, gave half of the score for accuracy.

In sentence No.9 it seemed to the rater that diction of the text could be more accurate if the expression of "ملاقات" substituted "دیدار", because the first expression was used just in a meeting with individuals. Therefore, it seemed that the meaning was not caught and rendered completely.

Note: according to the commissioner hints and some news translation formats, the expression of "به گزارش خبرگزاری ایسنا به نقل از..." should be added in order to quote the original news source.

Furthermore, in sentence No.12, “Afghan dignity” was translated as “مقام پاکستانی” which is absolutely wrong and distorts the meaning. Such mistakes are not ignorable at all in news

agencies environment. It is obvious that the translator knows well the meaning of the words but false translation was produced because of carelessness.

Status of Quality Indexes in the Corpus of the Study:

5 proposed criteria of translation quality were investigated in 10 English news texts in the previous section. The status of each index of quality in whole corpus of the study is wrapped up in table No.11 to indicate the relative status of the criteria.

The scores of style and cohesion were considered out of 10% of the total number of translation units in their respective texts.

TABLE 2

| Text No. | Appropriateness | Accuracy | Naturalness | Style | Cohesion |
|-------------|-----------------|----------|-------------|-------|----------|
| 1 | 11.5 | 10.5 | 12 | 1.3 | 1.3 |
| 2 | 13 | 13 | 12 | 1.5 | 1.5 |
| 3 | 5.5 | 5 | 9 | 1.7 | 1.6 |
| 4 | 17 | 15 | 17 | 1.8 | 1.7 |
| 5 | 15.5 | 14 | 14 | 1.5 | 1.4 |
| 6 | 9 | 5 | 10 | 2.05 | 2.1 |
| 7 | 11.5 | 12 | 12 | 1.2 | 1.2 |
| 8 | 15.5 | 16 | 16 | 2.3 | 2 |
| 9 | 18 | 20.5 | 18 | 2.5 | 2.4 |
| 10 | 11.5 | 11 | 11 | 0.9 | 1.1 |
| Total score | 126 | 120 | 129 | 16.85 | 16.3 |

Quality Index Averages

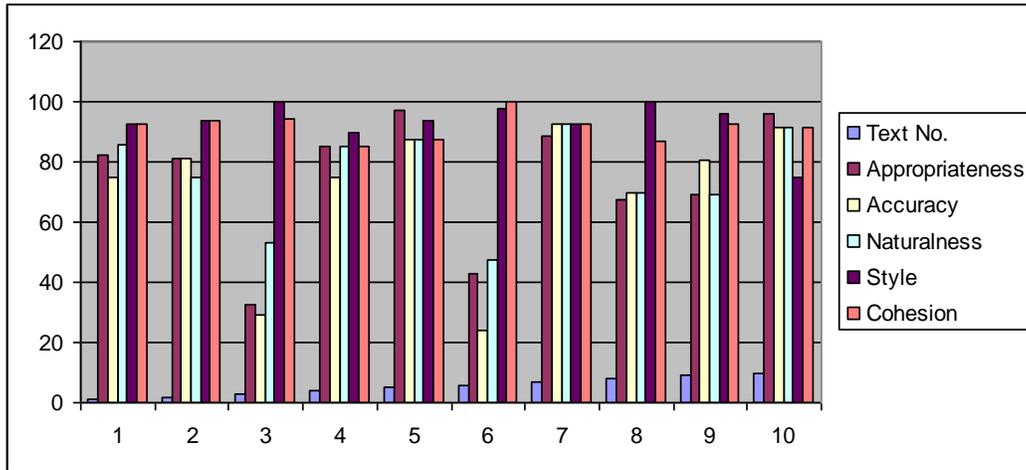
In Table 3, the percentage score is calculated for all the scores. In this manner the comparison of results is more convenient.

TABLE 3

| Text No. | Appropriateness | Accuracy | Naturalness | Style | Cohesion |
|--------------|-----------------|----------|-------------|-------|----------|
| 1 | 82.14 | 75 | 85.71 | 92.85 | 92.85 |
| 2 | 81.25 | 81.25 | 75 | 93.75 | 93.75 |
| 3 | 32.35 | 29.41 | 52.94 | 100 | 94.11 |
| 4 | 85 | 75 | 85 | 90 | 85 |
| 5 | 96.87 | 87.5 | 87.5 | 93.75 | 87.5 |
| 6 | 42.85 | 23.8 | 47.61 | 97.61 | 100 |
| 7 | 88.46 | 92.3 | 92.3 | 92.3 | 92.3 |
| 8 | 67.39 | 69.56 | 69.56 | 100 | 86.95 |
| 9 | 69.23 | 80.76 | 69.23 | 96.15 | 92.3 |
| 10 | 95.83 | 91.66 | 91.66 | 75 | 91.66 |
| Overall mean | 74.13 | 70.62 | 75.65 | 93.61 | 90.55 |

Quality Index Scores Percentages

FIGURE 2



Status of Quality Indexes for Each Text

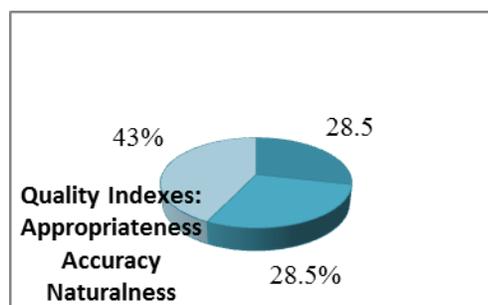
As it is clear, table No.3 indicates that among three criteria of appropriateness, accuracy, and naturalness the best and the worst scores respectively belong to naturalness and accuracy. Two last columns of the table show the status of style and cohesion scores for each text. The maximum score for style belongs to text no. 3 and no.8 and minimum score for style is for text no.10 which acquired just 75% of the optimum score (1.2 for text No.10). Text 6 gained 100% of score for cohesion while text No.4 with 85% enjoyed the worst cohesive translation. The status of quality indexes in each text was depicted in the Figure 2.

Table No.4 shows that what quality index gained the maximum score in each text. In the last row of the table further indicates that how many times quality index have acquired maximum score. According to the table, it is known that the index of naturalness has relatively better status in comparison with appropriateness and accuracy. The pie chart made this information more tangible (Figure 3).

TABLE 4

| Text No. | Appropriateness | Accuracy | Naturalness |
|-----------|-----------------|----------|-------------|
| 1 | | | * |
| 2 | * | * | |
| 3 | | | * |
| 4 | * | | * |
| 5 | * | | |
| 6 | | | * |
| 7 | | * | * |
| 8 | | * | * |
| 9 | | * | |
| 10 | * | | |
| Frequency | 4(28.5%) | 4(28.5%) | 6(43%) |

FIGURE 3



Overall Frequency of Quality Indexes with Maximum Scores

CONCLUSION

Having applied the TQA model of Farahzad (1992), the researchers, in answer to the first question, found out that in the corpus of the present study, Persian translations of English in-brief News texts could score 74.13%, 70.62%, and 75.65% of the maximum possible scores respectively for quality indexes of appropriateness, accuracy, and naturalness.

According to the results and figures which were provided, it seems that the quality of accuracy is the lowest measure among others. Findings of the study indicate that quality scores for index of cohesion ranged between 85 to 100 percent of the maximum score possible. This variation range implies that almost every translation in the corpus of the present study was cohesive. This means that cohesion elements like lexical and grammatical cohesion, cohesive ties, and referential elements (such as pronouns) were distributed all over the translations well.

From all quality indexes, style and cohesion had better status in comparison with others. In the scope of this study, the quality index of style got 93.61% of possible scores. With the exception of text No.10 which showed a diversion, almost every translation scored more than 92% of the score for style. Cohesion as another yardstick for quality assessment was of pretty satisfactory status and acquired 90.55% of the total score. On the other extreme, lowest scores were given to accuracy and roughly 70% of the maximum scores were gained on average. Two indexes of naturalness and appropriateness had fairly similar positions in scoring by gaining 75.66% and 74.13%.

Regarding the importance of preserving the precise meaning in translation particularly in translation of news, the researchers emphasize the significance of appropriateness and accuracy as two priorities in translation. The results of the study show that the status of these quality indexes unfortunately acquired the lowest scores. Although all the translators had professional capacities, they did not transform and transfer the exact meaning of the original. Sometimes the translation got the score for appropriateness but lost all or part of the accuracy score. It is possibly because of lack of command on target grammar and writing skills and can be a subject to further research.

Based on the findings of the present study, it is implied that in almost all of the translations, elements of form, that include terminology, text construction, and cohesive devices took into consideration. Relevant text format and style of the news items were followed in almost all texts to high extent. This helps the feasibility of translation fluency and integration which can improve the quality of naturalness as well. The quality index of naturalness was of better position in comparison with appropriateness and accuracy somehow because of good status of style consideration and application of cohesion elements. On the other hand, not satisfactory status of appropriateness and accuracy scores influenced the quality of naturalness and thwarted the positive effect of good translation format and text cohesion to some extent.

At the end, it seems necessary to mention that as it is the case with almost any study done in the area of applied linguistics and translation issues, this research does not intend to come to an absolute conclusion based on its findings. Put it another way, it is still necessary to carry out further studies to better verify the influence of the other factors not mentioned and focused on in this study on the quality of the translated news texts in other sources of media rather than the Iranian media, namely ISNA news agency through the application of objectified discourse-based TQA model of Farahzad (1992).

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A PRACTICAL APPROACH TO TEACHING OF LANGUAGE THROUGH LITERATURE IN MODERN CLASSROOMS – A BRIEF PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

A reader may experience manifold feelings while going through a text. It is not only the subject that the author has discussed in the text but also its sound presentation that leaves an immutable impression on the mind of the reader. Literature provides manifold opportunities to readers to acquire the ability to encounter several situations in their life time. The paper accentuates the need for teaching literature in educational institutions in a conscious manner. It is potential to illuminate the readers' private world and teach the grandeur of a language. A committed reader will have a chance to update his/her knowledge besides correcting his/her language impairments through meticulous reading of literature. The research proves that through the study of literature, learners of a language unconsciously acquaint themselves with language rules, which they feel elusive to learn independently.

INTRODUCTION

Language teaching has acquired vital significance during the last two decades in education institutions. An observation of how language is taught in the present scenario reveals that the pedagogues of English prefer to have such a syllabus as to help the learners hone their language skills. Since the development of skills has become the primary aim of the instructors, it cannot be denied altogether that there is a gradual diminution of focus on literature in learning centers. The actual problem lies in the situation where the instructors and learners as well seem to have been convinced that the study of literature is a mammoth task, which is in many ways not useful in improving the basic language skills. When students proceed with the notion that the purpose of language learning is to acquire ability to express themselves effectively, they are loath to accept any text that would present the nebulous imagination of the author, which they feel, is beyond their comprehension. There should be integrated approach to the teaching of language and

literature and it is high time to believe that the absolute indifference to literature would leave language teaching null and void.

LITERARY BASED READING MATERIAL

For the teachers especially those who are working in the areas where the regional language outclasses the second language, imparting sound education in a second language is an arduous task. An effective model and a well-founded curriculum is therefore necessary to fulfill this purpose. The newly issued *National English Syllabus Standard* (Department of Education, P.R.C, 2003) for compulsory education clearly states that “English learning is not only a process for students to master English knowledge and skill and improve their practical language use... but also a process for teachers to train their will, mould their temper, enrich their life, develop their individual character and abilities and sharpen humanist qualities.” A systematic and disciplined approach is indispensable in teaching-learning process and the drafting of this recipe is wholly dependent on the discretion of the one who should aim at the optimum results it would produce for the pleasure of the two potential parties (the teacher and the learner) involved in the task. To achieve this goal, the text has to be an assemblage of a variety items which would include introspection and reflection on the part of both the pedagogue and learner.

The world’s orientation towards science, technology and industrial development is now questioning the purpose of having a class for the study of literature in education centers. Votaries of science argue with magisterial voice that the study of Chaucer and Dryden is less useful to the students compared to the study of the task that would teach them how to develop the skill of telephonic conversation. In such predicament, English is treated just as a tool for communication. It no more enjoys the magnitude of being a discipline in humanities and as a result its role in literature has fallen into decline. In accordance with the changing opinions regarding English language, the current curriculum accentuates the need for linguistic skills and therefore the learning centers are welcoming the skill-oriented syllabus rather than literature-oriented one.

The learner develops a wide range of analysis of the written work when the text is conducive to contemplation and consequently he/she accepts the text as his/her best instructor that would help him/her in many ways to strengthen his/her language and literary competence. Improving critical thinking should be the first priority objective of education. The kind of education the individuals receive during their stay in institutions is reflected through their behavior. Their actions are totally dependent on their analysis and thinking. In a broad sense, it means that any individual who is expelled from the world of literature is seldom blessed with an opportunity to mutate himself/herself as a complete man. Therefore, the learners need to study the kind of syllabus that is useful to them in two ways: one in improving their language skills and other in molding their character through critical thinking. Since it is the study of the past, reflection of culture, revival of history, enlightenment of spirit and delineation of philosophy, it is capable of building firm character among the readers. Emerson (1837) says in his speech, “Our anniversary is one of hope, and, perhaps, not enough of labor. We do not meet for games of strength or skill, for the recitation of histories, tragedies and odes, like the ancient Greeks; for the parliaments of love and poesy, like the troubadours; nor for the advancement of science, like our contemporaries in the British and European capitals. Thus far, our holiday has been simply a friendly sign of the survival of the love of letters amongst a people too busy to give to letters any more. Who can doubt that poetry will revive and lead in a new age as the star in the constellation Harp, which

now flames in our Zenith, astronomes announce, shall one day will be the polar-star for a thousand years?"

He emphasises the need for renaissance and production of great literature. Without literature there is neither national development nor individual progress. It is necessary that the teachers who possess profound knowledge and deftness in communication and good awareness of culture, history and philosophy are needed in this mission.

LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH LITERATURE

Povey (1967:42) claims that the study of literature can extend the students' knowledge of vocabulary and syntax. It should be designed in such a way that the instructor can prepare various tasks to involve the students in language learning. Learners need to obtain an opportunity to study the stylistic features of the text and learn the extensive use of words in their creative writing.

A.G. Gardiner's 'ON SAYING PLEASE' shown below provides empirical evidence that literature is a fount for language study.

Having searched my pockets in vain for stray coppers, and having found I was utterly penniless, I told the conductor with as honest a face as I could assume that I couldn't pay fare and must go back for money." "Oh, you need not get off that's all right," said he. "All right," said I, "but I haven't a copper on me." "Oh, I'll book you through," he replied. "Where'd ye want to go?" and he handled his bundle of tickets with the air of a man who was prepared to give me a ticket for anywhere from Bank to Hong Kong. I said it was very kind of him, and told him where I wanted to go and as he gave the ticket, I said, "But where shall I send the fare?" "Oh, you'll see me some day all right," he said cheerfully, as he turned to go. And then, luckily my fingers, still wandering the corners of my pockets, lighted on a shilling, and the account was squared. But that fact did not lessen the glow of pleasure which so good natured an action had given me.

TEACHER'S ACTIVITY

The teacher can use this text for developing various skills of students. The following are the tasks the instructor can prepare:

- COMPREHENSION (Asking pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading questions)
- GRAMMAR (Reported Speech, clause-definition and types, question formation, conjunctions and prepositions)
- VOCABULARY (Suffixes, prefixes, formation of negative words with prefixes and suffixes, one-word substitutes, phrasal verbs)

The teacher should provide examples from the passage. This will help students to learn through reading. Grammar learning that would seem an onerous burden, when taught independently, would enchant the learners when they learn through context in the literary text and it offers them

lasting thrilling experience when they apply their knowledge. A careful study of any literary text, which is simple and delightful, would help students to use words wisely in speech and writing.

Learning does not mean students' listening to the elucidation of any theory to record it on their mind and then to regurgitate it. If learning is defined as memory and retention of information, attentive listening is the only measure to attain this goal. No doubt, learning of this kind would be useful to fetch percentage but it is apparently too weak to aid the individuals in crucial moments like decision making, problem solving, solution discovery and self-evaluation. Any amount of learning is impossible without learner's participation in the activity of learning. A learner is to be made a focal point in learning programme by making his/her mind busy in thinking and action. Asking questions and evaluating answers in conscious manner would promote an access to critical thinking in learners.

The following comprehension questions can be asked to test the understanding ability of students:

What does the author of the text intend to focus on? (Tick the right answer)

- a. Duty-mindedness
- b. Deceitfulness
- c. Sweet-tempered attitude
- d. All the above

- 'As honest a face as I could assume'-Illustrate the meaning of the clause.
- What do you understand the character of good-natured people like? (Tick the right one)
 - a. Cheerful b. gloomy
- Do you want to be like the conductor? Why? (Write your answer in not more than three sentences)

Have you ever encountered a man like the conductor in the passage in your life? If so, present your experience with him/her in black and white.

The students may be encouraged to disclose the situations when they felt offended because of the impoliteness of certain persons in their life. Such activities will keep the classroom lively and they are also useful in generating humanistic qualities in them.

Sowden (1987:28) suggests that literature can be used in the teaching of language 'by the linguistic manipulation of literary texts chosen for their real literary worth, but with an eye to their suitability for such manipulation'. He goes on to list examples of manipulation exercises that include cloze, vocabulary recognition and development, grammar reinforcement and extension, sentence building and pronunciation practice. These, he claims, 'will challenge the student, ensuring he gets completely involved in the language and style of the text, so increasing his familiarity with the language and improving the facility and accuracy with which he uses it' (1987:32).

LANGUAGE LEARNING THROUGH POETRY

On interacting with teachers and students of several Engineering Colleges in the state of Andhra Pradesh in India, the researcher discovered that according to the majority of teachers and

students, poetry is something that comprises nebulous thoughts, unfathomable ideas, implied meanings, and vague illustrations. It has all intricacies and; no doubt, its hidden grandeur on several occasions may question the rationality of a reader and ultimately s/he may end up in absolute confusion. It is true that poetry does not proffer as much satisfaction to a teacher as prose does. According to Lackward, "Often language art teachers report feeling uncomfortable teaching poetry, either because they are not sure how to teach it effectively (owing to lack of pedagogical role models), or because they find it elusive themselves." Not having any specific strategy or method that can be attributed to poetry teaching is the possible reason that the learner and the pedagogue can adduce for the absence of any orientation towards its teaching. Hanauer (2001:320) suggests that poetry can be used in the second-language classroom to focus attention on formal language structures, 'a task that can enhance linguistic and cultural knowledge of the target language'. Tomlinson (1986:41) suggests that poetry 'can break down the barriers and involve learners in thinking, feeling and interacting in ways which are conducive to language acquisition'.

The research concludes that poetry teaching would be effective when students are encouraged to appreciate the qualities of a given poem. It suggests multiple ways to orientate the attention of students towards poetry and delineates methods to improve the communicative ability

The teacher can create a situation and encourage the students to compose a small poem. Students will start thinking and struggle to find suitable words to make appropriate expression. They are encouraged by their own success. The teacher can give pre-reading and post-reading activities to improve the students understanding. Gradually students acquire skill to reduce, expand, analyze, or discuss the original text. Tomscha (1987:17) recommends teacher re-writing a poem in the learners' native language; students then translate it back into English and compare their translation with the original. Ambatchew (1997) suggests that literature can be demystified through students attempting to write their own poems. Lima (1999) lists post-reading activities that include writing the unwritten parts of a text, expansion and/or reduction of the original, as well changing the point of view and genre. Wales (1990) sees rewriting as a creative way to promote engagement with the text and discussion about style. Skills developed in this way may later be put to good use in a stylistic approach to literary study (Carter, 1986; Lazar, 1993:28).

Such student-centered syllabus that orientates the students towards the active involvement is an indispensable aid to them in the learning process. Making students to prepare such texts is another useful technique in this process. Students who are intimidated at the thought of literature begin to realize how it would facilitate the enormity of the task and be useful to them in achieving their goals.

The poem is suitable to prepare many tasks based on grammar, vocabulary. Activities which are useful to students based on text interpretation, debate would generate thinking ability in students. The teacher has to make use of this and benefit the students.

LANGUAGE MASTRY TO UNDERSTAND PROFOUND LITERATURE

Saunders says:

Until there is considerable language mastery and until there is considerable experience of current literature, reflecting current, even local, issues and concerns, there is little sense in compelling students to grapple with books about remote events, written in a highly complex and antiquated style (for example, Dickens, George Eliot and Thomas Hardy). Until language mastery is achieved, the teaching of literature should occupy a secondary place, and books should to a large extent be prescribed for their usefulness in achieving that mastery. They should help reinforce the process of learning the language as a current medium of expression.

Examine the following, which is an exact contrast.

The old fable covers a doctrine ever new and sublime; that there is One Man, — present to all particular men only partially, or through one faculty; and that you must take the whole society to find the whole man. Man is not a farmer, or a professor, or an engineer, but he is all. Man is priest, and scholar, and statesman, and producer, and soldier. In the divided or social state, these functions are parceled out to individuals, each of whom aims to do his stint of the joint work, whilst each other performs his. The fable implies, that the individual, to possess himself, must sometimes return from his own labor to embrace all the other laborers. But unfortunately, this original unit, this fountain of power, has been so distributed to multitudes, has been so minutely subdivided and peddled out, that it is spilled into drops, and cannot be gathered. The state of society is one in which the members have suffered amputation from the trunk, and strut about so many walking monsters, — a good finger, a neck, a stomach, an elbow, but never a man.

(An extract from the speech of Ralf Waldo Emerson delivered on 30th August 1837)

Students who intend to learn language cannot enjoy a passage like this. Moreover, they feel they are mentally strained to understand the depth of philosophy in the text. Literature of such quality can be introduced at matured level of students; after they have acquired the complete knowledge of philosophy so that they can derive pleasure from reading such texts; otherwise, they only confirm that literature is something so potential to baffle the readers with its complicated features. The pedagogue also fails to prepare any interesting tasks based on this for the benefit of the students.

COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Although for many people language is just the development of communicative skills, it is necessary to admit that literature, in other words a sound and impressive expression of thought, will function admirably in helping students to refine their expressions in day-to-day actions. How this activity is done is in the hands of the instructor. If s/he can use literary text deftly, it will produce multiple benefits and students realize that it is not meant just for classroom discourse but is handy in many ways. Literary text is a fount of hidden language skills and while going through it students will enjoy a departure for activities to promote communication in and outside the classroom. Thus Collie and Slater (1987:10) describe their overall aim in integrating language and literature as 'to let the student derive the benefits of communicative and other activities for language improvement within the context of suitable works of literature. By studying literature, students not only develop an insight into linguistic forms but also acquire the knowledge of cultural values and conventions of different ages embedded in language. According to Stern (1991:330), the link between culture and language seems to be obvious and intimate, and literature is seen as the ideal vehicle for explaining it to learners. Other language-based activities

can also deepen the students' understanding of the literary text. Whiteson (1996), for example, mentions, among other activities, critical or descriptive writing about the text, group discussion, prediction, role-play and dramatization.

CONCLUSION

Study of literature provides an access to learning of grammar and vocabulary. With its most appealing features, literature is capable of orientating the students towards learning the best and most effective language. Since it is a storehouse of various events and incidents, it creates stimuli in learners to interact with the text and peers to strengthen their communicative competence. It provides authentic exposure to English and bolsters confidence in students that they are able to create untold and unseen texts as it sets itself as a model for ideal learning. It enlightens the readers and promotes introspective thinking which results in their change of characters.

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THE EFFECT OF TWO DIFFERENT PRE-READING ACTIVITIES ON GUESSING THE MEANING OF UNKNOWN WORDS BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at investigating the extent to which Iranian pre-university students undertaking two different activities, predicting from topic and outlining, guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the reading context. Also, it was an attempt to compare the effect of these two pre-reading activities on the students' ability in guessing unfamiliar words. Among the 70 Iranian pre-university students who volunteered for this study, 49 were selected based on their performance on the Oxford Solution Proficiency Test. They were assigned randomly into two experimental groups: Outline Group and Predict Group. Each group received 8-sessions of treatment. Each session, they were required to read a text from the students' textbook including some unknown lexical items which were bolded and numbered in order to be guessed by the participants. The results highlighted the low rate of guessing accuracy by the students in both groups. Furthermore, the findings revealed that there is not statistically significant difference between the two experimental groups in terms of ability in guessing unfamiliar words from the reading context.

KEYWORDS: Guessing word meaning, pre-reading activity

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE

Guessing word meaning or lexical guessing is to make "informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in light of all available linguistic cues in combinations with the learner's general knowledge of the world, her awareness of context and her relevant linguistic knowledge" (Haastrup, 1991, p. 40, as cited in Soria, 2001). Guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words in a target material extends knowledge of vocabulary (Shokouhi & Askari, 2010; Hamada & Park, 2011) and to guess correctly, readers must be familiar with 95-98% of tokens in a reading text (Nation & Meara, 2002). Liu and Nation (1985) take the view that deriving the meaning of unknown words from context is a good strategy for handling words of low frequency in a passage. For them, the

teacher should not allocate a substantial amount of time to teach these words, as they do not occur frequently, so the best way to deal with them is to encourage learners to make use of the available clues in the context in order to decipher their meanings.

Conversely, Swan (2008) does not consider word-meaning guessing from context as a strategy for learning vocabulary, but a compensatory strategy. According to Clark and Nation (1980), the skill of guessing meaning from context enables the learners to save time and to read without interruption and dictionary use. For them, developing this skill results in developing the reading skill.

Research indicates that a larger amount of background knowledge results in long-term retention (Kintsch, 1998; Ellis, 2001; Robinson, 2003). Prior knowledge of the topic is important for reading that activates background knowledge and helps with guessing the meanings of unknown words (Soria, 2001; Tumolo, 2007). Pulido (2008) also argues that familiarity with the topic leads to more accuracy of word meaning inferences. He further compares the topic which is more familiar to less familiar one, that appropriate background knowledge causes students pay more attention to what they are reading. As far as Rivers (1981) is concerned, knowledge of text topic and context is a prerequisite for reading practice. He points out that familiarity with semantic area assists learners in guessing the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items.

Several studies have been carried out that investigated the relationship between pre-reading activities and lexical guessing. Exploring the impact of discussions prior to reading on lexical inferencing ability and English language proficiency, Samadi (2012) studied the Iranian university freshman students taking their general English course. The findings of her study revealed that discussions prior to reading lead to relative development in learners' word-meaning inferencing and general language proficiency.

Studying on high school junior students, Rouhi and Asghari (2011) investigated whether familiarity with a text topic has effect on word guessing from the text and the text comprehension, whether employing pre-reading activities, pre-questioning and previewing, improve word guessing and getting meaning from a text of familiar topic, and whether employing pre-reading activities, pre-questioning and previewing, improve word guessing and getting meaning from a text of unfamiliar topic. They assigned the students into four groups: the first group with a familiar topic and without pre-reading activities (G1), the second group with a familiar topic and with pre-reading activities (G2), the third group without a familiar topic and with pre-reading activities (G3), the fourth group without a familiar topic and without pre-reading activities (G4). The findings showed that G1 and G2 outperformed G3 and G4, that is, the performance of groups with a familiar topic was better than the groups with an unfamiliar one whether with pre-reading activities or without those. Put it simply, the implementation of pre-questioning and previewing does not promote guessing word meaning and reading comprehension. Therefore, they concluded that the important factor which has a role in lexical inferencing and understanding a reading text is topic familiarity, not provision of pre-questioning and previewing.

Studying the Farsi-speaking EFL learners and native speakers of English, Paribakht and Wesche (2006) compared lexical guessing in L1 and L2. The findings revealed that L1 English readers, who were at high intermediate and advanced level, guessed 89.3 percent of unfamiliar words in the text correctly and L1 Farsi readers guessed 79.0 percent of unfamiliar words in the text

written in Farsi correctly and only 11 percent of those words in the text written in English, while these L1 Farsi readers guessed meanings for 79.0 percent of English lexical items.

As far as the research concerning the effect of pre-reading activities on word guessing is thin, more research is needed to clarify suitable pre-reading activities which improve inference accuracy. Consequently, the primary objective of this study was to investigate the extent to which the Iranian pre-university students undertaking two different activities, predicting from topic and outlining, guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the reading context. Also, it was an attempt to explore whether there is statistically significant difference between these two groups in ability in guessing unfamiliar words.

Based on the above-mentioned literature, this study addressed the following research questions:

1. To what extent do the Iranian pre-university students undertaking two different pre-reading activities, predicting from topic and outlining, guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the reading context?
2. Is there any significant difference between the effects of the two activities on the Iranian pre-university students' ability in guessing unfamiliar words from the reading context?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

70 pre-university female students with an average age of 17 volunteered for the study. Out of the initial 70 students, only 49 students selected based on their level of proficiency, namely elementary, were randomly classified into two experimental groups for the study.

Instruments and materials

The following instruments and materials were used in the study:

English placement test

A standard proficiency test, namely Oxford Solution Proficiency Test by Linda Edwards (Oxford University Press 2007), was administered to volunteers of the study to select homogeneous subjects for this study. The test consisted of 50 multiple choice questions which assess students' knowledge of key grammar and vocabulary from elementary to intermediate levels. It also includes a reading text with 10 graded comprehension questions. Finally, there was a writing task that assesses students' ability to produce the language.

Test of novelty

Since the unknown words were needed for the study, a search was made for those words which the participants did not know. Hence, a checklist of 130 lexical items was designed and copies of it were distributed among the students. They were supposed to write the mother tongue equivalent for the words they knew. The unknown words were recognized as being 129 on the part of students.

Reading texts

The readings were from the students' textbook, i.e. *Learning to Read: English for Pre-University*. The texts covered a variety of topics such as speech, exercise, earthquakes, space, and IT. The book consisted of eight lessons, each with a reading text, that is, eight texts were used for this study.

The guessing test

In each of the reading texts mentioned in the previous section, 9-15 unknown lexical items were bolded and numbered in order to be guessed by the participants.

Procedures

Prior to the main study, a pilot study was conducted to indicate the time which had to be allocated for the sessions and also to find out about the possible problems that might occur during the study.

To determine the subjects' level of proficiency at the beginning of study and to ensure the homogeneity of the participants of the study, a standardized language proficiency test was administered to the total of volunteers. 49 selected students were randomly classified into two experimental groups for the study.

The whole experiment lasted more than three weeks, 10 sessions. Each session, the students in Group A (Outline Group) were given a handout of the outline of the assigned text and were asked to read it carefully. They were given 3 minutes to read the outline and make sense of it. After reading the outline, the students had to read the reading passage individually to guess the meanings of the selected bold and numbered unknown words.

Before approaching the reading passages, the students in Group B (Predict Group) were given the topic of assigned text (written on the board). They were asked to predict the content of the text, that is, what they may encounter in the text and write it in their first language on a piece of paper. The reason was that the students were not able to write in English. Similar to the first group they were given 3 minutes to complete the pre-reading activity. After writing their prediction, first, the students in this group were asked to read the whole text, then to guess the meanings of unknown lexical items.

Data Analysis

To answer the first research question, the correct answers and the total guesses of the two groups were counted and their percentages were calculated. To answer the second question, data was analyzed running descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics included the means, standard deviations, and standard error mean obtained from the scores of participants in both experimental groups for their correct guesses on eight lexical guessing tests from eight reading texts. Furthermore, a t-test tested the null hypothesis at .05 levels of significance in order to investigate if there was any significant difference between the scores of the two experimental groups.

RESULTS

Tables 1 and 2 below show the findings regarding guessing attempts of the subjects and their guessing accuracy. As displayed in Table 1, even though the students in Outline Group guessed

the meanings of almost 62 percent of the unknown words, only 16 percent of their guesses were correct. Also, it shows that although students in the Predict Group guessed the meanings of almost 63 percent of the new words, only 18 percent of their guesses were correct. Based on these results, it could be concluded that there was low rate of correct guessing by the students in both groups.

Table 1: Percentage of total and correct guessing by the two groups

| Group | Total guessing | Correct guessing |
|---------------|----------------|------------------|
| Outline Group | 62.68 | 16.49 |
| Predict Group | 63.82 | 18.09 |

As Table 2 shows, the mean score for the two groups was almost the same, that is, Outline Group had a mean score of 1.77 and Predict Group a mean score of 1.94.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for two groups guessing gain

| Group | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---------------|----|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| Outline Group | 22 | 1.7727 | .49346 | .10521 |
| Predict Group | 27 | 1.9444 | .65260 | .12559 |

Prior to the independent *t*-test to answer the second research question, a normality test was run to compare the mean scores of the two groups on the guessing tests in order to probe the difference between the effects of the two pre-reading activities. The results are displayed in Table 3 below.

Table 3: The normality test

| | N | Skewedness | Kurtosis | K-S | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---------------|----|------------|----------|-------|-----------------|
| Outline Group | 22 | 0.219 | -0.203 | 0.095 | 0.15 |
| Predict Group | 27 | 0.378 | -0.979 | 0.159 | 0.077 |

As displayed in Table 3, since P-values of the two groups are greater than .01, the data did not show any marked deviations from normal distribution and enjoyed normal distribution; therefore the independent t-test was administered. Results are displayed in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Results of independent-samples t-test

| | 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 |
| Equal variances assumed | .523 | .473 | -.418 | 47 | .678 | -.30303 | .72453 | -1.76060 | 1.15454 |
| Equal variances not assumed | | | -.410 | 40.863 | .684 | -.30303 | .73842 | -1.79445 | 1.18839 |

As shown in Table 4, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (*Levene's F* = .52, *P* = .47 > .05). The results of the independent t-test (*t* (47) = -1.019, *P* > .05) indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' mean scores on the guessing tests. Put it simply, although the overall guessing grade of students in Predict Group was higher than Outline Group, this difference was not significant. That is to say, the null hypothesis was confirmed at .05 level of significance.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND SUGGESTIONS

This study aimed at investigating the extent to which the EFL students undertaking two different activities guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the reading context. Also, it was an attempt to explore whether there is statistically significant difference between predicting from the two activities in ability in guessing unfamiliar words from the reading context.

Analysis of the results concerning the first research question highlighted the low rate of guessing accuracy by the students in both groups. This is in line with Paribakht and Wesche's (2006) study who found that Farsi speakers could guess correctly the meanings of only 11 percent of unknown words in the text written in English, while they guessed the meanings of 79 percent of the target words. However, their study shows lower level of correct guessing probably because of lack of pre-reading activities. Paribakht and Wesche's justification for low success rate of L2 inferencing is "insufficient L2 proficiency, lack of relevant content schemata, and less effective L2 inferencing procedures" (p.127). The reason for low rate of correct guessing in the current study is probably due to the reason. That is, the students' low level of proficiency. Furthermore, some previous studies (i.e., Alavi & Kaivanpanah, 2009; Shen & Wu, 2009; Tavakoli & Hayati, 2011; Riazi & Babaei, 2008) indicate that the level of language proficiency plays a significant role in lexical inferencing.

The participants of the current study did not have sufficient vocabulary and grammar knowledge necessary to understand the text around the unknown lexical items so that they could not decipher their meaning. This was clear from the fact that they appealed to the teacher or considered other students for help. This result confirmed Ranjbar's subjects' performance who (2012) proved that grammatical knowledge plays a significant role in word-meaning guessing.

During reading the texts, there were a large number of words, in addition to the unknown words, which were translated by the students, that is, the Farsi equivalent of those words had been written above or beneath them. This could be an indication of the students' attempt in order to get as close as possible to the meaning of the unknown words. These cases were observed by Soria (2001) as well who studied the advanced and intermediate learners.

For a number of the new words, some of the participants initially guessed the meanings, but they crossed them out. It is probably because of their low degree of risk-taking. As Istifçi (2009) found that intermediate level learners possessed higher inference accuracy in comparison to low-intermediate level learners probably because of learner's level of language proficiency or the extent to which they tend to take risks.

Analysis of the results concerning the second research question revealed that the two experimental groups performed the same on guessing tests. The findings suggest that there is not statistically significant difference between predicting from topic and outlining in ability to guess unfamiliar words on the part of Iranian pre-university students. Therefore, it can safely be concluded that the effect of outlining and predicting from topic on word-meaning inferencing is either the same or they do not have any significant effect at all. Although, based on the literature on pre-reading activities, which indicates that reading comprehension of students increase with introducing these activities, the first conclusion seems to be more acceptable. It should be mentioned that there was no control group in the study to compare its results with the results of the two experimental groups. This point is admitted as one of the limitations of the study that can be subject of further studies. Besides, this study was concerned with predicting from topic and outlining, the same research can be carried out to investigate the effect of other pre-reading activities in guessing ability of EFL learners. Also, another study can be conducted with both sexes to examine whether different results will be obtained. Besides, the same research can be conducted at different language proficiency levels or with participants in other age ranges.

This research faced a number of limitations which have to be taken into consideration while attempting to generalize its findings. One limitation is that the participants in the study were only female students. Furthermore, the sample size was low. If the sample size was larger, the researcher could also have had another group as control group in the study to compare its results with the results of the two experimental groups. Besides, students were at elementary level of language proficiency and at the specific range of age.

IMPLICATIONS

The results of this research study provide information to language teachers about the implement of both outlining the text by the teacher and predicting from the text topic on the parts of the EFL learners. It may give teachers the insight that incorporating these activities into the classes may not help elementary students much to decipher the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items. On the other hand, lexical inferencing may not be so useful strategy for learners at this level. If the teachers want to apply lexical inferencing strategy, they should make students aware of the importance of lexical inferencing in both L2 reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. Teachers should teach students effective L2 inferencing procedures to infer correct word meaning, especially checking their guesses to be sure that they are correct. Also, teachers should be sure that students' word knowledge is at established level for most of the words in an assigned text to guess word meaning correctly. Besides, teachers should make them aware of different sources of information which they may have to assist them to derive word meaning.

Second, syllabus designers and material developers can also benefit from the results of this study. They should not include material and syllabus lexical inferencing for the students at elementary level. Again if syllabus designers and material developers do so, they should include material and syllabus information about the importance of lexical inferencing in both L2 reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. Also, they should include material and syllabus effective L2 inferencing procedures to infer correct word meaning.

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THE STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COOPERATING WITH PEERS AS AN INDIRECT VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGY ON THE IRANIAN UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to compare the effect of Cooperating with peers as indirect vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension skill. To fulfill the purpose of the study, a language proficiency test was administrated to one hundred male and female university students who studied in a course other than English as their major in Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University, Khuzestan, Iran. Ultimately, sixty intermediate students were selected and assigned into two experimental (A) and control (B) group. The first group was taught vocabulary through Cooperating with peers as indirect vocabulary learning strategy for developing their vocabulary storage in reading comprehension and group (B) was assigned as control group. After ten sessions of treatment, the two groups were given a post-test of an achievement vocabulary test. Data analysis was conducted through t-test statistics. It demonstrated that the experimental group (A) who utilized Cooperating with peers vocabulary learning strategy outperformed the control group (B) who was the control group in terms of the mean and standard deviation gained in the post- test ($p < .05$). *t*- Test analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the two groups learning vocabulary at intermediate level. In other words, Cooperating with peers strategy at intermediate level can lead to higher achievement of vocabulary storage in reading comprehension of intermediate level of Iranian EFL undergraduate students.

KEYWORDS: Vocabulary Learning Strategy, Indirect vocabulary learning Strategies, Reading Comprehension, Cooperating with peers strategy

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary learning is an essential element in language learning that affects all portions of learners' academic life, and also having good command on vocabulary has a direct relationship with comprehension, the more our vocabulary knowledge increase the more our comprehension will be, also students who have problem with vocabulary acquisition are placed under an additional burden, especially, when required to read texts that are filled with technical words (Flynt & Brozo, 2008). Unfortunately, many students have a lower retention rate for vocabulary words, and need specific strategies to help them increase their overall vocabulary (Flynt & Brozo, 2008).

Vocabulary learning strategy is a subcategory of language learning strategies (which in turn are a subcategory of learning strategies in general). (Oxford, 1990: 8), vocabulary learning strategy organizes knowledge about what learners do to find out the meaning of new words, retain them in their memory for a long time, recall them when needed in comprehension, and also apply them in language production (Catalan 2003, cited in: Ruutemets, 2005).

Language learning strategies have received specific attention in the researches that were done by Chamot (1987), Cohen (1998), Oxford (1990), and Schmitt (1997). According to Schmitt (1997), vocabulary learning strategies are even the focal of observation in second language learning and teaching with the increasing nature of vocabulary acquisition and its emphasis on large exposure to the language. Language learning strategy application is the focus of attention in second or foreign language acquisition. Research on language teaching and learning strategy use has revealed that learners, on the one hand, tend to employ learning strategies in vocabulary learning more than in any other skills of language learning activities and, on the other hand, general language learning strategies may be used in vocabulary learning (O'Malley et al., 1985). According to Jo Moir and Paul Nation (2008), in the previous days it was widely assumed that vocabulary teaching is not important matter as it can happen by itself; thus, the teaching of vocabulary was not favorite (Nation, 1990). Stern (1975) and Rubin (1975) were probably among the first researchers who brought up the idea of successful language learners. The idea can probably help us with both understanding more about the nature of language learning and also to facilitate the language learning process for others. With regard to this, most of the research in the area of language learning strategies has focused on the identification, description, and classification of useful vocabulary learning strategies.

Vocabulary learning strategy is a very effective in language proficiency development because it constitutes the basis for learners' ability in other skills, such as speaking, reading, listening and writing. Griffiths (2006) points out that recently the importance of teaching vocabulary has been acknowledged. The result and effect of the correct use of vocabulary learning and teaching strategies is vocabulary retention and following of that vocabulary knowledge, which is a key element in language learning since 'words are the building blocks of language and without them there is no language' (Milton, 2009:3).

Cohen (1998, p. 1) states that strategies can be very different in nature, ranging from planning the organization of one's learning (a metacognitive learning strategy) through using mnemonic

devices to learn vocabulary (cognitive learning strategy) and rehearsing what one expects to say (a performance strategy) to bolstering one's self-confidence for a language task by means of "self-talk" (an effective strategy).

Strategies help language learners retrieve and store material, and facilitate their learning by structuring its environment (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992, p. 219). Not only do LLSs facilitate learning but also accelerate it. Strategy use correlates with students' language proficiency (Oxford, 2001, p. 170) and self-confidence (Chamot, 1994, p. 331). Concerning language learning strategies (LLSs) designed to encourage students to relate sentences to things they already know, Willingham (2006, pp. 42-43) adds that by prior knowledge, students are encouraged to apply what they know from their own lives to the text, or to consider the theme of the text before reading it, and by vocabulary comprehension relationship Willingham (2006) states that students are encouraged to use background knowledge to make educated guesses about the meaning of unfamiliar words.

In terms of Hedge (2000), such strategies can be either cognitive (i.e., direct mental operations to understand and store new words) or meta-cognitive (i.e., indirect strategies that facilitate the conscious efforts to remember new words). Some researchers have revealed that indirect strategy instruction is more effective in developing vocabulary learning storage (Saragi, Nation, & Meister, 1978; Jenkins, Stein & Wysoki, 1984).

The present study is an attempt to shed more light on the role of Cooperating with peers as an indirect vocabulary learning strategy to *examine the impact of this strategy on the Iranian learners' reading comprehension at intermediate level*. Cooperating with peers as an indirect Vocabulary learning strategy is the main variable of the present study and also is considered one of the vocabulary learning strategies. Exploration of this strategy has helped learners use processes to improve their skills in a foreign language.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As far as the review of literature is concerned, there are very few studies which have focused on the effect of indirect vocabulary learning strategy generally and Cooperating with peers specifically in a second or foreign language and reading comprehension ability in that language. So, the following sections concerning the subject of the study, first vocabulary learning strategy, indirect vocabulary learning strategy in reading comprehension have been reviewed briefly, followed by an overview of the some experimental studies of indirect vocabulary learning strategies in English linguistic literature. These are the main areas of research directly relevant to this study.

Vocabulary learning strategy

According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies are particular activities adopted by learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. Utilization of learning strategies is very important in vocabulary learning and depends on learners' attempts to a large extent. According to Nation (2001), vocabulary learning strategies make learners be able to take more responsibility for their own learning. He believes that a large amount of vocabulary can be acquired by using vocabulary learning strategies. Nation (2001) proposes that a large number of vocabulary learning strategies are helpful at all steps of vocabulary learning and can be used to an extensive range of

vocabulary. He points to the fact that language learners by the help of these strategies can control their own learning without the presence of a teacher. In addition, Nation, in his research, reveals that learners are very different in the proficiency that they apply strategies with. Thus, language learners should be instructed in use of vocabulary learning strategies.

Indirect vocabulary Learning Strategy

Indirect vocabulary learning is defined as a technique of vocabulary learning which occurs without the specific intent to focus on vocabulary. Several studies have been shown the effectiveness of this way of learning word meanings from context (Jenkins, Stein & Wysocki, 1984; Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985). Several researchers (Craik & Tulving 1975, Schmidt 1990) have suggested that the way in which learners' process material influences incidental learning. They stress the importance of 'noticing', or attending, in second language learning and maintain that incidental learning can result from task demands which cause learners to focus attention on specific features of input which are crucial for learning.

Some related experimental works

Hunt and Beglar (1998) point out that great amount of vocabularies are acquired incidentally through extensive reading and listening. Consequently, motivating students to read and listen extensively can prepare them with great chances to be familiar with new vocabularies. In terms of Huckin and Coady (1999), too, except for the first few thousand most common words, vocabulary learning generally occurs through extensive reading with the learner guessing the meaning of unknown words. This process is indirect learning of vocabulary for the learning of new words and is the byproduct of the reading. However, this process of incidental learning of vocabularies occurs gradually as Anderson (1985; cited in Richards and Renandya, 2002) claims. The indirect vocabulary learning strategy, as Hunt and Beglar (1998) point out; can be a very effective approach for all language learners at all levels.

Shmidth (1990; cited in Nyiazadeh, 2009) also states that indirect learning is surely passive in that it can occur when the focus of attention is on some relevant emphasize of input. However, he believes that since indirect learning is useful in task-based language, pedagogy is still a fruitful area of investigation. He further notes that there is an argument that maintains what is learned—whether indirect or direct—is what is noticed.

Ellis and He (1999) explored the roles of modified input and output in the indirect acquisition of word meaning. Their study proved that interactional output which provides opportunities for learners to use new vocabularies strengthen to better indirect vocabulary learning.

Paribakht and Wesche (1999) also conducted research studying the relationship between reading and indirect L2 vocabulary learning. Their study established indirect acquisition of new lexical knowledge through reading of thematically related texts; hence, vocabulary knowledge may be acquired as a by-product of reading comprehension. In addition, their study displayed that among learners' strategies, inferencing, was the main vocabulary strategy use employed.

Cusen (2005) in his exploratory study used diary to identify and classify vocabulary learning strategies of Romanian English major and minor undergraduates at university of Brasov. He used

Oxford learning strategies classification as the analytical framework of his study. He found that advanced learners with a professional interest in the study of English seem to use almost all the types of strategies from Oxford analytical framework. The learners appeared to use other strategies relatable to the context of his study and/or to each individual.

However, the above mentioned studies did not depict specific the Cooperating with peers as an indirect vocabulary learning strategy in developing vocabulary in reading comprehension. So with the gap existing in the literature, the present study is aimed at identifying the role of Cooperating with peers as an indirect vocabulary learning strategy in reading comprehension among intermediate Iranian undergraduate EFL learners. The rationale underpinning the selecting of the subjects at the intermediate level for the study is that the researcher has wished to focus scrupulously on this level and investigate the role of indirect vocabulary learning strategy on the development of vocabulary in reading comprehension of Iranian learners.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Most of the latest studies are focused on general language learning strategies. Little attention has been given to vocabulary learning strategies and specially indirect vocabulary learning strategy and reading comprehension. *According to Davies and Pearse (2000), Harley and Hart (2000) and Nation (2003)*, words are the tools we use to access our background knowledge, express ideas, and learn about new concepts. Learners' lexical knowledge is linked strongly to academic success. Vocabulary size was shown to be the best predictor of reading comprehension in L1 and L2 (Coady, 1997).

Therefore, this study was conducted to see the possible effects of Cooperative with peers as an *indirect vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension of Iranian university students in an EFL setting*. In Iran, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, very little studies have been conducted investigating the use of indirect vocabulary learning strategy (VLS) and no study found to conduct about Cooperating with peers directly by Iranian EFL learners.

So, teachers can have a clear view to integrate strategy training into the classroom instructional plan to make learners aware of impact of indirect vocabulary learning strategy that they may use unconsciously in order to learn vocabulary items effectively. Exploration of this strategy has helped learners use processes to improve their skills in a foreign language. Furthermore, utilization of vocabulary learning strategies has been found to affect students' performance in language learning (Sarani & Kafipour, 2008).

RESEARCH QUESTION

The main question to be examined in this study is as follows:

Do Cooperating with peers vocabulary learning strategy has any significant effect on the development of vocabulary knowledge of the Iranian undergraduate intermediate students?

Participants

The researcher selected 100 English as Foreign Language (EFL) university students from Islamic Azad University of Omidiyeh in Khuzestan in Iran studying non-English majors in the course of general English (mostly in the second and third semester) based on non-random judgment sampling. They participated in a homogeneity test adapted from Objective Placement Test (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005) as a homogeneity test and finally sixty 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 12 male) as an experimental group received Cooperating with peers as an indirect vocabulary learning strategy while group B (8 female and 22 male) considered as a control group. The age of the participants generally ranged from 19 to 25. Seemingly, they were originally from different regions of the country.

Instruments

Initially, the subjects in two groups took the Objective Placement Test of Interchange (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005), which 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 pre-test and post-test, the researchers selected 40 students from different departments in Omidiyeh Islamic Azad University to participate in the pilot study in two phases, one for the pre-test and the other one for post-test. That is, 20 students for pre-test and 20 for post-test. Calculating the reliability coefficient of the test through KR-21 formula, the researcher found the reliability of the homogeneity test at ($r=.78$).

A post- test including also 40 items was administered to both groups at the end of treatment period after ten sessions. It takes eight lessons and was designed as a summative test. 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 selected mainly from the new lexical items of reading comprehension texts. The reliability of the post- test was ($r=.88$) based on KR-21 formula.

Another instrument was the reading tasks and activities as the course materials which the researcher afforded to both the experimental and control group. These reading tasks and activities were extracted from the Select Readings (intermediate level) written by Lee and Gunderson (2002).

Procedure

In this study, 100 Iranian university students who study in a course other than English as their major were selected. To make sure of the homogeneity of the learners, the researcher used an Objective Placement Test as language proficiency test (Lesley, Hanson & Zukowski- Faust, 2005). Having obtained the scores and the average mean ($M = 30$) of the scores calculated. Sixty learners whose scores were around the mean were selected. Therefore the thirty homogeneous intermediate students were selected to utilize Cooperating with peers strategy for developing their

vocabulary storage in reading comprehension and other thirty students in group B were assigned as a control group with no strategy use in teaching and the treatment in this class was as usual as before, the teacher read the text one time and gives the students equivalent or synonym of new words. In this study, the treatment period lasted for ten sessions. On the first session, the students in A Group received introduction on Cooperative with peers vocabulary learning strategy. The procedure was implied by the corresponding researcher (teacher) for both classes. The next section will introduce the treatment period of Cooperating with peers strategy.

Cooperating with peers

As Oxford (1990) mentioned, this strategy involves a concerted effort to work together with other learners on an activity with a common goal. Reading activity, simulations, and other active exercises challenged students to develop their ability to cooperate with peers while using vocabulary learning strategy. Reading, through usually is considered an independent activity, was a cooperative enterprise as well. For example, one student works with his/her group on English-language on reading activity. Each group member had part of the story to read, and together they figured out the entire story through a process of negotiating, requesting, and cooperating (Oxford, 1990).

Therefore, indirect vocabulary learning strategy instruction can be looked at as a process of learner empowerment which raises learner's vocabulary of the more effective strategies for learning the language and by enabling them to employ the strategies in learning vocabularies.

Data Collection

After the treatment, to find out the effectiveness of *Cooperating with peers vocabulary learning strategy on reading comprehension* of experimental group and compare the improvement in two groups, both groups took part in a post-test of the vocabulary and reading comprehension test after completing the course.

The researchers dealt with comparing vocabulary learning strategy regarding, a parametric technique for analyzing the descriptive data. In this way, the study investigated the role of the Cooperative with peers vocabulary learning strategy through independent samples *t*-test analysis, in order to find out, whether these strategy influence students' vocabulary knowledge of Iranian EFL university students at the intermediate level of English reading proficiency or not.

To begin with, 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 this strategy in reading comprehension as an independent variable statistically indicated mean differences are shown in Table 4.1. 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 (post-test of both groups)

| | N | Range | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|----------------|----|-------|---------|---------|---------|----------------|
| Experimental G | 30 | 10.00 | 34.00 | 40.00 | 38.5667 | 1.97717 |
| Control G | 30 | 14.00 | 29.00 | 39.00 | 33.7333 | 3.26880 |

The results of the post-test in the two groups were compared using independent samples *t*-test statistical procedure, whose result showed that the mean scores of the experimental group ($M = 38.56$, $SD = 1.97$) was significantly different from the control group ($M = 33.73$, $SD = 3.26$). Also the minimum and maximum scores in experimental group are 34 and 40 while in control

group the minimum and maximum scores are 29 and 39. In other words, the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test.

Also, critical t ($t= 2.000$) was less than observed t ($t= 5.45$) based on $df = 48$. In this case, there was a significant difference between experimental and control group in developing learning vocabulary at intermediate level. In other words, Cooperating with peers strategy was effective in improvement of vocabulary of Iranian EFL learners at intermediate level.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The major concern of the present study was to explore the effectiveness of Cooperative with peers on reading comprehension of the EFL students. The results of t -tests indicated statistically significant difference between the experimental group (A) and control group (B) in reading comprehension achievement post-test. It indicated that the Cooperating with peers is effective in improving EFL vocabulary storage on reading comprehension achievement of university students at the intermediate level of English. This result can be more approved and confirmed by this evidence that there was a significant difference between experimental group (A) who received this indirect strategy and control group (B). Moreover, the mean of experimental group was higher than control group based on the post-test scores.

Although it is generally believed that most words are learned from context and it is a very useful and productive way to learn words, the usefulness of this method of vocabulary learning for all learners at different levels of proficiency is open to question. Waring (1995, p. 2), for instance, argues that, "Beginners need a basic vocabulary before they can even start to learn from context as they have insufficient knowledge and the text is too dense with unknown and partly known words." In fact, they do not also possess enough knowledge of grammar and consequently cannot make use of grammatical contextual clues to guess meaning from the context. He finally recommends that guessing from context be left to a later stage when the learner has enough knowledge base from which to work. However, not all contexts are intrinsically reader friendly.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has been carried out upon the hypothesis that teaching indirect vocabulary learning strategy is comparatively more effective than traditional teaching of vocabulary by providing only the dictionary definitions or list of words and memorizing the words. The instruction lasted for ten weeks. In the course of this time, the researcher (teacher) employed the mentioned strategy and instructed the participants how to use this strategy in their reading comprehension. At the end of the students were administered the reading comprehension post- test and the results of the tests were compared to find the effect of training.

The results indicate that generally there is a great difference between the experimental and the control group performance of the subjects in the learners who were instructed using Cooperating with peers strategy. So presenting the target vocabulary items in context and using indirect

vocabulary learning strategies like the selected strategy make a remarkable difference in terms of overall performance for a particular group of student like intermediate level of students.

The findings of this study indicated that this kind of indirect vocabulary learning strategy had a positive impact on reading comprehension of EFL students because according to the results we got the researcher can claim that, Cooperating with peers vocabulary learning strategy had an impact on students of this study and is an effective strategy. Indirect vocabulary learning strategy is the strategies that suggested for learning vocabulary at a particular level of language proficiency such as intermediate level.

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. Together with teachers, they should 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.

With respect to material producers, they should produce materials that teachers will use throughout their class research. That is, the materials they produce should be congruent with students' learning strategies and they should be appealing to students' needs and interests. This process requires continuous evaluation of every single stage or material used. For this reason, curriculum developers and material producers should collect feedback from teachers and students in order to identify the weaknesses and strengths of their products. This will enable them not only to produce better materials but also to develop them. All in all, curriculum developers and material producers should work cooperatively with teachers and students so that they can design a better program, appropriate materials and tasks that will promote a more efficient and a more effective language learning atmosphere. According to the findings of this study, it is suggested that material designers may develop teaching materials based on strategy-instruction especially on indirect strategies.

At the end, the point should be highlighted that the present study had some limitations. This study was just limited to intermediate EFL learner's context. Other contexts like ESL context with different levels of students also should be considered in futures studies. In other hand, the ten-session time frame of this study is too short to provide anything more than an indication of possible direction of the Cooperative with peers vocabulary learning strategy and reading comprehension. With regard to language skills and learning strategies, this study was just limited to reading ability and vocabulary learning strategy of EFL learners. Other skills of language learning for future study also recommended.

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APPLYING THEME AND RHEME IN INDONESIAN EFL STUDENTS' WRITING: AN ATTEMPT TO IMPROVE COHESION AND COHERENCE

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ABSTRACT

The notions of Theme and Rheme have widely been explored in research on linguistics. However, little research has been carried out about Theme and Rheme in relation to the writing class, referring to the Indonesian students. This paper discusses the theoretical framework of Theme and Rheme and the analysis of Theme and Rheme in some texts of the Indonesian university students of the second semester to improve cohesion and coherence. It has been demonstrated that the understanding and the application of these notions have enabled the students to evaluate their own compositions and improve the coherence of their compositions. It is, therefore, important to teach Theme and Rheme in a writing class.

KEYWORDS: Theme and Rheme, Indonesian EFL students, cohesion, coherence

INTRODUCTION

Most learners find it difficult to write a second or foreign language composition. Some of the reasons are lack of grammatical competence and lack of writing skills of arranging clauses or sentences into a good paragraph or essay. Pertinent to writing skills, one of the crucial elements is developing coherent and cohesive compositions. A coherent and cohesive writing requires the mastery of cohesive devices that can combine the ideas developed in the writing into one complete way of thought.

There have been some researches on cohesion. Studies of cohesion often focus on cohesive ties as part of creating textual cohesion (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). However, according to Stotsky (1983) in Wang (2007) cohesive ties themselves are not sufficient to create a coherent text. A study done by Witte and Faigley (1981 in Mellos, 2011) found that students wrote better papers when they developed an ability to use Theme and Rheme more effectively in their writings. Ventola (1992) argues that vital information on cohesion and coherence can be obtained through textlinguistic research. One of the areas in which cohesion and coherence can be developed is through Theme and Rheme. After conducting a research on Theme and Rheme in compositions of ESL students at San Diego University, Mellos (2011) concludes that "the theme-rheme framework provides students with a grammatical resource to make conscious theme and rheme choices that improve the coherence of their texts by making the connections between ideas clear, allowing for topic development, and giving sentences a clear focus." A study carried out by

Belmonte and McCabe-Hidalgo (1997) has proved that the notion of Theme and Rheme can be very useful in evaluating L2 writing.

The purpose of this paper is to apply insights gained from observing patterns of Theme and Rheme relations in students' writing in Indonesia to help improve coherence at the discourse level. This paper begins with an overview of the theoretical framework underlying this approach, in particular discussing the notions of Theme and Rheme, which is drawn from a Systemic Functional Linguistics. The paper also discusses the results of analyzing twenty five compositions of Indonesian EFL University students obtained during a writing class and the implications for teaching writing.

WRITING

Producing a piece of writing requires some skills that involve the structure of the writing and the sentence skills. In the structure of a paragraph, the structure is a topic sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence, while sentence skills include verb forms, run-on sentences, fragments, word choices, punctuation, and so on (Langan, 1996). It is important for learners to master these skills in writing.

Besides the mastery of the structure of the writing and the sentence skills, learners are demanded to have the ability to produce a cohesive and coherent piece of writing. Coherence refers to the overall connectedness of the ideas in a piece of writing. Cohesion refers more specifically to connections between sentences. A discourse may be said to be cohesive but incoherent. The following example illustrates a cohesive but incoherent writing.

(1) I am a teacher. The teacher was late for class. Class rhymes with grass. The grass is always greener on the other side of the fence. But it wasn't. (Taken from <http://www.onestopenglish.com/support/ask-the-experts/methodology-questions/methodology-coherence-and-cohesion/154867.article>)

The example (1) shows us that some words are repeated: teacher, class, and grass. However, the coherence is missing since each clause stands alone and does not contribute meaning at discourse level.

THE CLAUSE AS A MESSAGE: THEME AND RHEME

All languages contain messages to be delivered, and they are organized in such a way that the speakers of the language understand. With regard to this, the message is the crucial point of communication to be conveyed through language. In English, meaning which is realized in the clause has three distinct functions. They are the Theme functions, the Subject functions, and the Actor functions. The Theme functions are realized in Clause as a Message. It is this element the speaker selects for grounding what the speaker is going to say. The Subject functions are realized in the Clause as an Exchange, which involves a transaction between speaker and listener. The last functions, the Actor, are represented in the Clause as Representation, in which the Actor is the active participant in the process.

From the three functions of the clause, the one that needs discussing is the Clause as a Message. The clause as a message means that the clause conveys some form of organization that gives it the status of a communicative event. In English, the clause is organized as a message in one part of the clause, which is called Theme. The remainder of the clause then constitutes the whole message the clause conveys. In English language, Theme is indicated by the position in the clause. Halliday (1994: 37) states that the Theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that with which the clause is concerned. The remainder of the message, or the part in which the Theme is developed, is called the Rheme. Further, he defines Theme as that element which comes in first position in the clause. Therefore, the pattern of the clause is Theme + Rheme. Gerot and Wignell (1994: 103) develop the notion of Theme as “This is what I am talking about” and Rheme is “This is what I am saying about it.” The Theme looks backwards, relating the current message to what has gone before, while the Rheme points both backwards and towards by picking up on information which is available and adding to it and by presenting information which was not stated before. Example:

(2) I come from down in the valley
 Theme Rheme

From (1), we can say that the Theme is *I*. The message of the clause is about *me*. The reference of *I* here in the clause can be obtained if we understand what information precedes this clause.

According to Halliday there are three types of Theme: Ideational, Textual, and Interpersonal. Ideational Theme, also called Topical Theme, is generally the first nominal group, adverbial groups, prepositional phrase or embedded clauses in the clause. Textual Themes relate the clause to its context. They can be continuatives, conjunctive adjuncts, or conjunctions. The last type is Interpersonal Themes. They indicate interpersonal meanings which involve the kind of interaction between speakers. The following examples illustrate the different types of Themes in clauses.

(3) The lion and the unicorn were fighting for the crown.
 Topical Theme Rheme

(4) And Jill came tumbling after.
 Textual Theme Topical Theme Rheme

(5) Could the team have beaten the grand finalists?
 Interpersonal Theme Topical Theme Rheme

The notion of Theme as “the point of departure of the clause” (Halliday, 1985) has a wider meaning to cognitivists who expand the notion of Theme at the discourse level. Theme’s main function is to signal the relationship between the thought in the speaker’s mind and its expression in discourse (Vasconeellos, 1992 in Belmonte and McCabe-Hidalgo, 1997). It means that the Theme serves as an idea to be developed further in following sentences to make up a meaningful discourse.

Since the Theme serves as an idea to be developed in a discourse, the Theme and Rhemes in a discourse reveals the development of ideas requiring specific thinking in the formulation of clauses. Learners’ ideas are realized in clauses, and the clauses are joined by what Hulkova (2005) calls as linking devices. Linking devices according to Hulkova (2005) are simple and compound

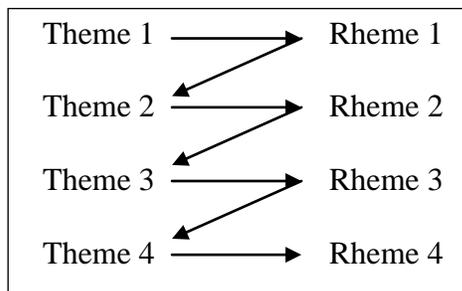
adverbs, prepositional phrases, nonfinite clauses, and finite clauses such as what is more, that is to say. Although linking devices are required to join clauses, at the discourse level, the progression of the Theme is crucial too. The thematic progression can reveal the unity or coherence of a discourse. Being a cohesive discourse does not necessarily mean a coherent one. It is, therefore, important to consider the thematic and rhematic progression.

A parallel textual system to Theme and Rheme is the notions of Given and New information. Given is the information that has already been known to those involved in the interaction. New signals the exciting bit of information that has not been mentioned earlier. The unmarked pattern is that Given information is included in the Theme of a clause and New information is somewhere in the Rheme (Butt, *et al.* 2000: 146). The example of the nursery rhyme *The farmer in the dell* illustrates the thematic progression in a narrative discourse.

- (6)
- 1 The farmer takes a wife
 - 2 The wife takes a child
 - 3 The child takes a nurse
 - 4 The nurse takes a dog

The thematic progression of the nursery rhyme is illustrated in figure 1.

Figure 1: Thematic Progression of *The Farmer in the Dell*



The Themes in the nursery rhyme above demonstrate the interrelated Themes and Rhemes in which the Themes are derived from the Rhemes.

METHODOLOGY

The data of the research are the explanatory compositions written by EFL university students in Bandung, Indonesia, sitting on the second semester taking Essay Writing course. Twenty five students, divided into two groups, were selected based on the scores they obtained on the first holistic evaluation in week 3. The evaluation was comprised of development of ideas, organization, and grammar/structure with equal weighting. Group I consisted of 10 (ten) students scored 60 or lower, and group II were 15 (fifteen) students scored 61 or higher. On the first piece of writing, all students were asked to write an essay on one of the following topics:

1. The most useful invention
2. The best job
3. A parent's greatest responsibilities
4. Good manners
5. The worst movie of all time

The scores the students obtained on the first evaluation serve as the baseline, and during this time the notions of Theme and Rheme were not introduced but they were guided through the process

of writing. In week 4, the notions of Theme and Rheme were introduced. They were taught to apply the notions of Theme and Rheme for the self-assessment of their own compositions and for peer-editing. In week 8, both groups were asked to write an essay on one of the topics:

1. Life lesson from school
2. Cheating
3. Studying in high school and in university
4. School uniform

Since the essays were relatively long, I put my focus on the introductions of the essays. The justification of the limitation is that the introductory paragraph of an essay is crucial in organizing the essay as the thesis statement located in the introduction guides a writer in writing an essay. Through a coherent introductory paragraph, a writer can better her essay.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to denote the contrast of the introductions of the two groups, I analyzed two introductions written by two students. Text (1) was written by a student in group 1, and text (2) by a student in group 2. Both texts (1) and (2) are about the best job.

Text 1 (by AR)

(1) Which job do you want: a job which can give you a lot of money or a job which can be useful for everybody? (2) Most people want a job which can give them a lot of money. (3) That is a character of human (4) and I don't blame someone who thinks about it. (5) But if we always keep that argument, (6) we don't realize (7) we are like beggars (8) because our mindset is what Indonesia has done for you. (9) We have to change our mindset become what you have done for Indonesia. (10) This mindset belongs to someone who works to create our future. (11) It is a teacher. (12) A teacher is the best job in the world (13) because the duty of this job is to create someone to become a leader in every country and make someone good or smart in academic or action to develop every country, especially our country.

In text (1) two Themes are introduced in clause (1): interpersonal and topical. Interpersonal Theme1 (Th1interpersonal) is *which job*; topical Theme 1 (Th1topic) is *you* and the Rheme 1 (Rh1) is *want a job which can give you a lot of money or a job which can be useful for everybody*. Th2 (*most people*) is a new Theme; Rh2 (*want a job which can give them a lot of money*) is derived from Rh1. Th3 (*that*) is from Rh2; Rh3 is a character of human. In clause (4), the textual Theme (Th4text) is *and*, which signals additional information to clause 3; Th4topic is *I* and Rh4 is *don't blame someone who thinks about it*. In clause 5, there are two Themes, textual and topical Themes. The textual Theme (Th5text) is *but if*, which contrasts and conditions the information in the preceding clause in clause (4) and (5). Th5topic (*we*) is a new Theme since agents mentioned in the preceding clauses are *you*, *most people*, and *I*. Rh5 is *always keep that argument* is derived from Rh2. Th6topic (*we*) is the same as Th5 topic; Rh6 is *don't realize*. Th7topic is *we*, which is also the same as Th5topic 5 and 6. Rh7 is *are like beggars*. Th8 text is *because*; Th8topic is *our mindset* and Rh8 is *what Indonesia has done for you*. Th9topic is *we*, which is also the same as Th5, 6, and 7. Rh9 is *we have to change our mindset become what you*

have done for Indonesia. Th10topic (*this mindset*) is derived from Rh9; Rh10 is *belongs to someone who works to create our future*. Th11topic (*it*) to some extent is derived from Rh10. Rh11 is *a teacher*. Th12topic (*a teacher*) is derived from Rh11; Rh12 is *the best job in the world*. Clause (13) comprises Th13text (*because*), which signals reason for Rh12 and Th13topic (*the duty of this job*). Rh13 is *to create someone to become a leader in every country and make someone good or smart in academic or action to develop every country, especially our country*. The following figure (Figure 2) illustrates the Theme and Rheme progression of text (1).

Figure 2: Theme and Rheme Progression of Text (1)

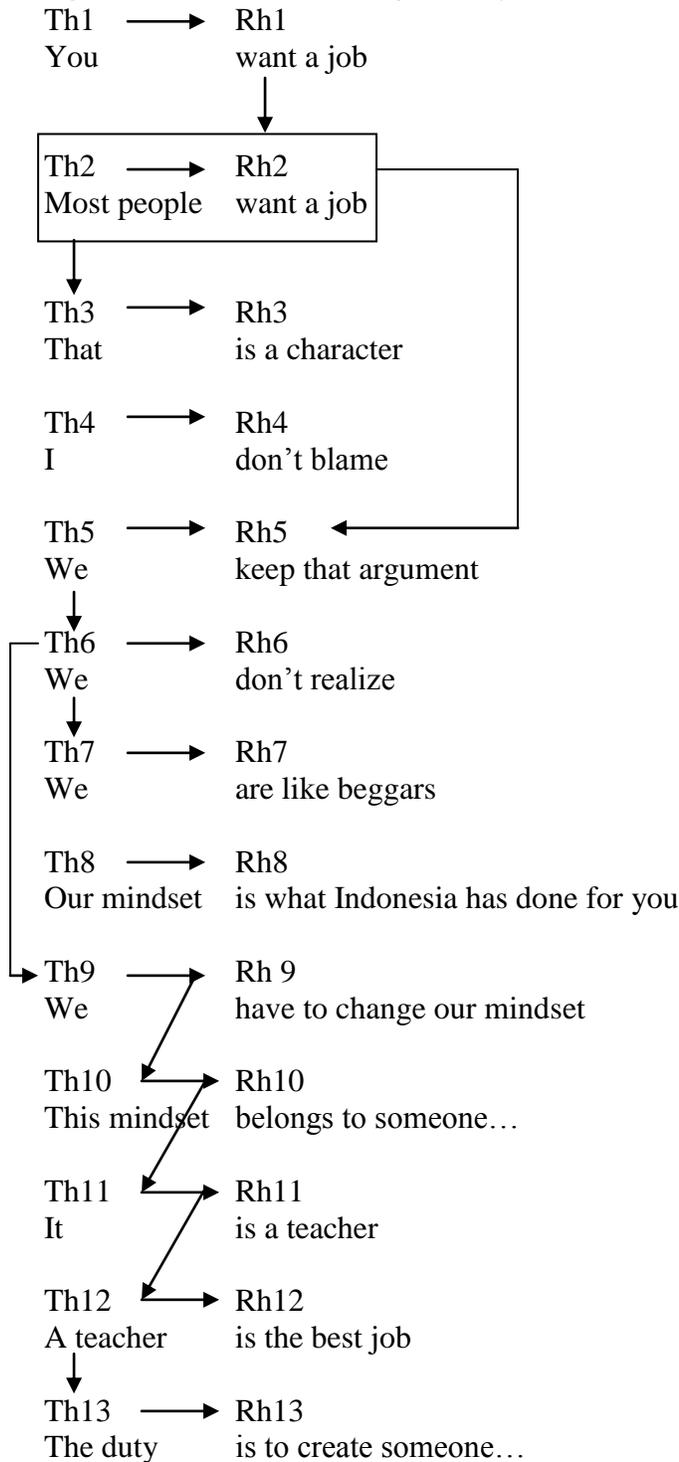


Figure 2 shows us that Th4 and Th5 are not derived from any of the Themes nor the Rhemes. Rhemes (3), (4), (6), (7), (8) are not developed at all. This indicates that the text does not develop the ideas mentioned in preceding clauses. Instead, the student jumped from one idea, a character, to another idea, which tells about a teacher. In terms of cohesion, this text is cohesive as there are repeated words and linking devices.

Text 2 (by AA)

(1) As college students, we should start to think about the future. (2) The future is about (3) what job a college student should take after graduating from college. (4) This problem is what I have started to think recently. (5) The question “What kind of job should I take?” is always stuck in my mind. (6) I finally got enlightened at a time (7) that the best job that would fit and beneficial to you is a job that you like, you master at, and could provide you with the fund to live for the future.

Clause (1) in text (2) comprises two Themes: interpersonal and topical. Th1 interpersonal is *as college students*, and Th1topic is *we*. Rh1 is *should start to think about the future*. Th2topic = (Rh1) is *the future*, and Rh2 is *about*. Th3interpersonal is *what job*; Th3topic is *a college student*, and Rh3 is *should take after graduating from college*. Th4 is the same as Rh3; Rh4 is *what I have started to think recently*. Th5topic (*the question “What kind of job should I take?”*) is derived from Rh3; Rh5 is *always stuck in my mind*. Th6topic (*I*) is a new Theme, but it is clearly one of the constituents mentioned in Rh3 and Rh4. Th6interpersonal is *finally*, and Rh6 is *got enlightened at a time*. In clause (7), Th7text is *that*, and Th7topic is *best job that would fit and beneficial to you*. The Rh7 is *a job that you like, you master at, and could provide you with the fund to live for the future*. The following figure (Figure 3) illustrates the Theme and Rheme progression of Text 2.

Figure 3: Theme and Rheme Progression of Text 2

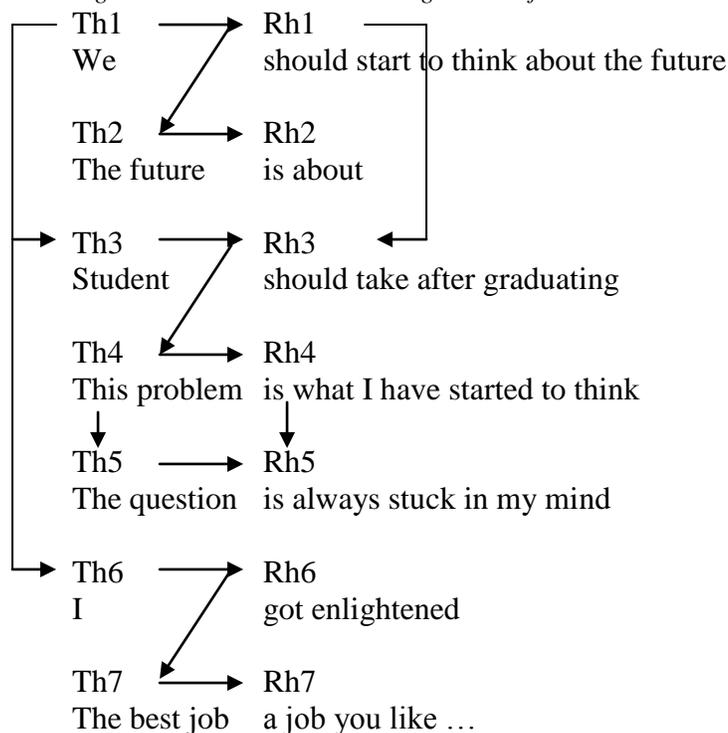


Figure 3 depicts the relationship of the Themes and Rhemes in Text 2. As shown above, the Themes and Rhemes of the text are interrelated. The student referred to preceding Theme and Rheme prior to introducing a new idea. Therefore, text 2 is coherent. Cohesion is seen from repeated words, synonyms, and linking devices.

From the analysis of text (1), it is clear that the relationship of clauses (7) and the subsequent clauses is not clear as the Theme is not derived from any of the Rhemes. Some Rhemes are not further developed and just left hanging without any explanation. Thus, the coherence of the text is not well-built. Text (1) is ended by *A teacher is the best job in the world because the duty of this job is to create someone to become a leader in every country and make someone good or smart in academic or action to develop every country, especially our country*, which does not provide sufficient room for idea development in following paragraphs. On the other hand, the ideas in text (2) are better developed as seen from Theme and Rheme progression. Text (2) is ended by a thesis statement about the criteria of the best job. Text 2, therefore, is more coherent than text (1).

After the application of Theme and Rheme, in week 8, the students were told to write essays on one of the topics (life lesson from school, cheating, studying in high school and university, and school uniform). Each student's introduction was evaluated on the basis of sentence skills and development of ideas. The following text is one sample of the analysis.

Text 3 (by JP)

(1) When I was in elementary school, (2) I think (3) high school was the perfect place to study and improve my skill.(4) It was better than university (5) because my surroundings taught me that university courses were hard to study. (6) But my opinion changed (7) since I was admitted to university. (8) Now, I think (9) that university is the best place to study (10) because I can learn only what I want, improve my soft skills, and be responsible.

Clause (1) of text 3 has two kinds of Themes, namely textual and topical Themes. The student, (JP) thematized textual Theme (Th1text) *when*, and Th1topic is *I*. Rh1 is *was in elementary school*. Th2topic is *I* and Rh1 is *think*. Th3topic is *high school*; Rh3 is *the perfect place to stud and improve my skill*. Th4topic is *it (high school=Rh1)*, and Rh4 is *better than university*. In clause 5, Th5text is *because*, which signals reason of Rh4, and Th5topic is *my surroundings taught me that university courses were hard to study*. In clause (6), the beginning is Th3text *butto* signal contrast with clauses (3) and (4). Th6top (*my opinion*) is the same as Rh3; Rh6 is *changed*. Th7text is *since*, Th7topic is *I*. Rh7 is *was admitted to university*. Th8text (*now*) begins clause (8), which denotes the change in time course referring to clause (1); Th8top is *I* and Rh8 is *think*. Th9topic is *t that* and Th9topic is *university*; Rh9 is *the place to study*. Th10topic *because* begins clause (10); Th10topic is *I* and Rh10 is *can learn only what I want, improve my soft skills, and be responsible*. The Theme and Rheme progression indicates that JP developed the ideas well as seen from the Themes derived from Themes or Rhemes of preceding clauses.

Overall result of the students' performance after the application of Theme and Rheme is displayed in Table 1.

Table 1: Student Performance

| Group | Number of students | Performance |
|-------|--------------------|-------------|
| 1 | 2 | Low |
| | 8 | Improved |
| 2 | 9 | Stagnant |
| | 6 | Improved |
| Total | 25 | |

From the table, we can see that 8 students in group 1 who were in the low achievers, could improve their performance and produced more cohesive and coherent introductions; 2 students did not get any improvement. Six students belonging to group 2 improved their performance, and the performance of 9 students remained the same.

Significant results were obtained from students of group 1 because 8 out of 10 could improve their writing skills, particularly in coherence. Only 6 students of group 2 improved, while others remained the same. The reasons for this are unrevealed since no interview was undertaken. However, I assume this could be caused by their awareness and understanding of producing coherent and well-developed ideas in their compositions due to their higher level of English proficiency.

CONCLUSION

This study proves that the notions of Theme and Rheme is useful to guide students in developing ideas; thus, the application of Theme and Rheme can improve coherence in writing. With regard to teaching writing, it is highly recommended that teachers understand the development of ideas through Theme and Rheme. With such analyses I have demonstrated, teachers can diagnose students' weaknesses in writing. Students, on the other hand, will benefit the insight of Theme and Rheme and apply them when drafting and revising their compositions. This will certainly produce more cohesive and coherent compositions. In addition to this, students themselves can self-evaluate the way they develop their ideas in their compositions. Despite the fruitful results of the application of Theme and Rheme on Indonesian EFL students' writing, to obtain more comprehensive accounts on the application of Theme and Rheme, further research on different text-types is required.

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