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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN L2 GRAMMATICAL KNOWLEDGE AND PHONOLOGICAL MEMORY IN ADULT MALE EFL LEARNERS AT DIFFERENT LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVELS**

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**ABSTRACT**

Evidence is accumulating that phonological memory (PM), a sub-component of working memory (WM), is closely related to different facets of second language (L2) learning. Moreover, little research has specifically delved into the relationship between the PM capacity and grammar among adult learners at different L2 proficiency levels. Therefore, it seems necessary to verify to what extent PM capacity might be related to grammatical knowledge in English as a foreign language (EFL) learners with different proficiency levels. To achieve this objective, the present study investigated the relationship between PM and L2 grammatical knowledge among native Persian-speaking male adults undergoing a 6-week intensive English course. The number of participants was 180 and their age ranged from 20 to 30. The participants were assigned to three different language proficiency levels (beginner, lower intermediate, advanced), 60 each, by using the Quick Placement Test (2001). PM capacity (as referenced by nonword repetition and nonword recognition tasks) and L2 grammatical knowledge were assessed in the first week of their course. After ensuring the normality of the data through SPSS 21, Pearson correlations and multiple regression analyses were conducted. The findings showed that L2 grammatical knowledge and PM tasks as assessed with English nonword repetition and recognition tests were moderately correlated among adult EFL learners in different levels of language proficiency. However, the correlation coefficients for the advanced group were lower than the other groups. Thus, the findings may imply that grammatical knowledge can be more closely related to PM capacity for beginners and lower intermediate learners than for advanced learners.

**KEYWORDS:** phonological memory; grammatical knowledge; language proficiency; L2 learning; adult EFL learners

**INTRODUCTION**

According to Skehan (1998), “memory is important all along, goes hand in hand with success in language learning until an advanced level is reached, and then becomes even more important” (p. 218). One of the popular issues in contemporary cognitive psychology as well as the area of individual differences is working memory (hereafter WM). As Baddeley (2003) puts it, WM refers to the “temporary storage and manipulation of information that is assumed to be necessary for a wide range of complex cognitive activities” (p.189). WM has been investigated extensively in the field of SLA during the last 20 years and some scholars even believe that “WM capacity help predict learning rate and ultimate levels of attainment in the L2” (Ortega, 2009, p. 90).

One of the most influential WM models is that of Baddeley’s model (Baddeley, 1986, 2000; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974) which views WM as incorporating several components (Figure1): (a) a central executive, an attention control system responsible for integrating information from different WM subsystems and long-term memory and supervising basic WM operations; (b) the phonological loop, The phonological loop, which deals with the storage of verbal, speech-based material.; (c) the visuo-spatial sketchpad, which handles visual images and spatial information; and (d) an episodic buffer, involved in the binding of information from subsidiary systems and long-term memory into a unitary episodic representation (Hummel & French, 2010).

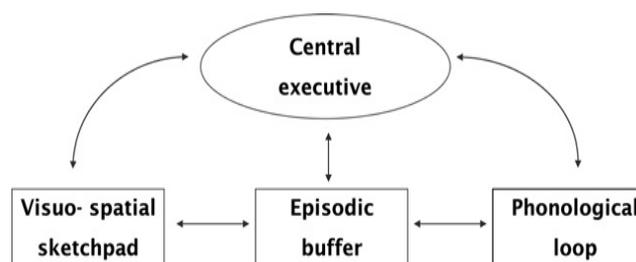


Figure 1: Multi-Component Working Memory Model (Adapted from Baddeley, 2000)

Most studies on WM, in effect, have used verbal information which is claimed to depend on the operation of the phonological loop (Baddeley, 1986, 2000; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974). The phonological loop consists of two parts: a phonological store and an articulatory rehearsal process. Figure 2 pictures the structure of the phonological loop. As Figure 2 displays, speech input has access to the phonological store directly but nonspeech input has to enter through the articulatory rehearsal process. Another function of the rehearsal process deals with the maintenance of information. Unless a stored phonological code is kept fresh through the rehearsal, it fades gradually in the phonological store process (Baddeley 1986; Gathercole & Baddeley 1993).

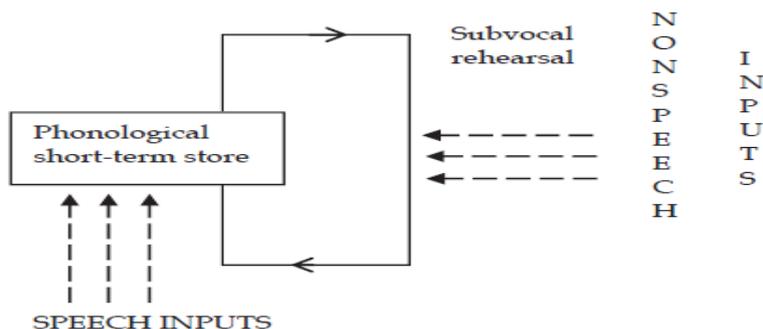


Figure 2: The Phonological Loop Model (Gathercole and Baddeley, 1993, p. 8)

In the literature, phonological loop has been interchangeably referred to as phonological memory (hereafter PM) (Hummel & French, 2010). Some scholars have highlighted PM as an important source of individual differences in L1 acquisition (e.g. Baddeley, 1986; Baddeley, 1996; Gathercole & Baddeley, 1993) and in L2 learning (Gathercole & Thorn, 1998; Harrington & Sawyer, 1992; Papagno, Valentine, & Baddeley, 1991). Ellis (1996) claims that significant portion of language learning involves sequence learning, and even abstract grammatical knowledge is a product of the analysis of sequential information. According to Kormos and Sáfár (2008, p.263), “as PM is responsible for remembering sequential information, its role in language learning is far greater than previously supposed.” Furthermore, some studies carried out in SLA found that the role of PM in both L1 grammar acquisition and L2 grammar learning can be influential. However, their results have been controversial. The literature pertinent to this issue is reviewed below.

Gathercole and Adams (1996) conducted a study on children of 4 and 5 years old. The participants were required to tell a story which they had previously listened to. Results showed that the ability to recite the story was closely related to the ability to repeat nonwords. Further analysis showed that children who were more accurate at nonword repetition had richer lexicons and produced longer utterances than those with lower repetition accuracy. In other words, children who were better at PM stimuli were also grammatically more proficient. In another study, Willis and Gathercole (2001) found that 4-year-old children with better PM capacity were more accurate at repeating complex sentences in their L1 than children with weaker PM capacity.

As in L1, PM has also been revealed to be related to L2 grammatical ability. Service (1992) tested young Finnish children and found that PM did not correlate significantly with simple English grammar tasks. However, learners’ performance on other language tasks, such as reproduction of structures and written production (to reflect learners’ syntactic ability) revealed a slight association with nonword repetition. Ellis and Sinclair (1996), later, tested adults’ ability to learn Welsh as a foreign language and they concluded that the more often foreign language structures are rehearsed in PM, the easier it is to learn them and to generalize rules from them. O’Brien et al. (2006) examined the role of PM in L2 speech production by English-speaking adults learning Spanish (33 females, 10 males; M= 21.84 years old). They found that PM correlated with vocabulary scores, narrative abilities, and use of free grammatical morphemes and subordinate clauses, both at the beginning and at the end of a semester of Spanish learning ( $r$ s between .30 and .41). In another study, French and O’Brien (2008) conducted a study on Francophone children learning English as a part of a 5-month intensive program in Quebec’s Saguenay region. French and O’Brien (2008) found that nonword repetition at the beginning of language program (Time 1) predicted L2 grammar scores at the end of the language program (Time 2) ( $r$ s between .79 and .82). PM explained almost 30% of the variance in grammar scores at Time 2, even after controlling for vocabulary knowledge. In a more recent study, Martin & Ellis (2012), examined PM and WM and their relationship with vocabulary and grammar learning. The memory measures used were nonword repetition, nonword recognition, and listening span. The participants were tested on their ability to induce the grammatical forms and to generalize the forms to novel utterances. Individual differences in final abilities in vocabulary and grammar correlated between 0.44 and 0.76, depending on the measure. The results, also, showed significant independent effects of PM and WM on L2 vocabulary learning and on L2 grammar learning.

It appears, from the literature reviewed here, that PM may be related to the development of grammatical skill. However, studies in this area have not reached conclusive results and further studies are needed to shed light on this issue, and in particular, among adults learning an L2. Moreover, there have been a number of studies which have dealt with the PM influence at different levels of language proficiency.

French (2003) found PM to predict L2 learning in low but not in high proficiency learners. Later, O’Brien et al. (2006) found connections in both low and high ability groups, but the aspects of L2 knowledge involved differed. Kormos and Sáfár (2008) conducted a study on teenage Hungarian native speakers participating in an intensive language program in English (L2). The participants were divided into two proficiency groups, beginner and pre-intermediate. Kormos and Sáfár (2008) found no significant relationship between the nonword span score and success on the L2 exam for beginners, whereas the nonword score of the pre-intermediate participants correlated moderately with their scores on writing, use of English and total points, and the fluency and range of vocabulary scores of the oral exam. The backward digit span test, however, was found to correlate with all the components of the L2 exam except the writing one. Furthermore, the digit span and nonword scores were not correlated. Kormos and Sáfár (2008) concluded that WM (assessed by the backward digit span task) and phonological loop (measured by the nonword task) likely separate constructs and influence language learning in various ways.

Some other studies investigating adults failed to find significant correlations between PM and L2 proficiency. Mizera (2006) used nonword repetition tasks designed for children with the adult participants and found no significant correlation between the PM task and the participants’ proficiency. Hummel (2009), in a recent study of young adults, found that the relationship between PM (measured by nonword repetition) and L2 proficiency remained significant in non-novice learners but disappeared at the most advanced proficiency level. “this finding provides further empirical evidence that the role of PM in L2 learning appears to diminish as a function of language proficiency level and not necessarily of age” (Hummel & French, 2010, p. 377). To summarize, the research conducted on adult L2 learners in various L2 contexts suggests that while some research has failed to find significant correlations between PM tasks (e.g., digit-span, word-span, and non-word repetition) and L2 proficiency (e.g., Hummel, 2002; Mizera, 2006), other research studies have reported significant relationships between PM and aspects of L2 proficiency in adults (e.g., Hummel, 2009; Martin & Ellis, 2012; O’Brien et al., 2006).

Evidence from the previous research shows that PM is closely associated with different aspects of L2 learning and it seems to be an essential memory component throughout much of L2 development.

### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the literature reviewed above, the present study attempted to investigate the extent to which the L2 grammatical knowledge and PM tasks, i.e. nonword repetition task and nonword recognition, associate in three proficiency groups (beginner, lower intermediate and advanced). Hence, the following questions were investigated in this study:

1. To what extent do nonword repetition task (as a measure of phonological memory) and L2 grammatical knowledge correlate in the beginner, lower intermediate, and advanced groups of adult male EFL learners?
2. To what extent do nonword recognition task (as a measure of phonological memory) and L2 grammatical knowledge correlate in the beginner, lower intermediate, and advanced groups of adult male EFL learners?

### METHODOLOGY

#### Participants

Among L2 studies dealing with WM and PM few have examined adult L2 learners (e.g., O'Brien et al., 2006). Therefore, the present study assessed EFL adult learners. This allowed the researchers to find out whether the adults' reliance on PM is similar to that of the children in the previous studies. 180 male EFL learners were involved in the study (60 beginners, 60 lower intermediate and 60 advanced learners of English). The participants' age ranged from 20 to 30. In order to control the participants' language proficiency level and their homogeneity in each proficiency group, a Quick Placement Test v.1 (QPT) and a demographic questionnaire were administered. QPT v.1 (2001) is an objectively-scored 60-item multiple-choice test and the participants were given 30 minutes to answer them. Based on the obtained results, the participants were assigned to three proficiency groups, i.e. beginner, lower intermediate, and advanced.

#### Instruments

##### Questionnaire

In order to gain specific information about the type and amount of exposure to English outside the program, a demographic questionnaire in the participants' L1 (Persian) was administered.

##### Nonword Repetition Task

In order to assess PM, both nonword recognition (henceforth NWRC) task and the nonword repetition (hereafter NWRP) task were applied. The merit of the present research is in that it employed two different PM tasks, i.e. NWRC and NWRP. One of the most widely used tests of PM capacity is the NWRP, where participants have to repeat nonwords of different lengths that do not exist in the given language but conform to its phonotactic rules. Gathercole and Baddeley (1993) proposed two advantages of using a NWRP test over other assessment methods to measure PM capacity. First, NWRP test may be more sensitive than other measures because this test prevents long-term memory knowledge influencing the assessment of PM, although the effects of prior language knowledge cannot be completely eliminated by nonwords. The second advantage of NWRP tests is that the NWRP test is viewed simple and somewhat more natural compared to others measures because both children and adult language learners hear and repeat new vocabulary items during their learning process. The participants in the current study heard a list of 1-syllable nonwords and were asked to repeat them. Following the study carried out by Martin & Ellis (2012, p.385), "there were four lists at each of four lengths: three, four, five, and six words." Example stimuli used for the NWRP task are displayed in Table 1. The nonwords were taken from a stimulus pool of nonwords provided by Gathercole et al. (2001). All participants heard the lists, beginning with the shortest lists and continuing with lists of increasing length. The participants' responses for all items throughout the study were recorded. The researchers did the scoring offline on a phoneme-by-phoneme basis. The maximum number of phonemes recalled on any one repetition set was calculated for each participant. The highest possible score for this task was 22 correct phonemes. Two raters scored the participants' responses to the NWRP to ensure the homogeneity of the calculated scores. The inter-rater reliability of the two sets of scores was  $r = .94$  ( $p < .01$ ).

Table 1: Example Stimuli for NWRP Task

3-word stimuli	barch	kig	norb			
4-word stimuli	chad	dorl	teck	parn		
5-word stimuli	cherl	goot	jarm	tidge	bup	
6-word stimuli	jert	coom	lorc	ged	nerch	darch

##### Nonword Recognition Task

NWRC task was used as an additional measure of PM. This task is highly correlated with performance on similar NWRP tasks but is less affected by unfamiliar phonotactics and pronunciation difficulties (Gathercole et al., 2001). The participants listened to two presentations of a list of nonwords and decided whether they were the same or different. The participants received 1 point for each correct same or different judgment. Eight lists were used at each of four lengths: four, five, six and seven items. The maximum possible score for this task was 16 correct recognitions. The stimuli were taken from Gathercole et al. (2001). Table 2 illustrates example stimuli applied for the NWRC task. Stimuli were tape-recorded by an English native speaker. Two sequences of items were presented on each trial, with an inter-stimulus interval of 1.5 s separating the last item in the first presentation and the first item of the second presentation.

Table 2: Example Stimuli for NWRC Task

Examples of nonword recognition stimuli	Correct responses
List 1 : chad pook <b>mun jick</b> terdge List 2 : chad pook <b>jick mun</b> terdg	different
List 1 : turg deet peb chim nam ked List 2 : turg deet peb chim nam ked	Same

*Grammar Test*

The grammar test used in this study was selected from the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) designed and developed by Allen (2004). The grammar section of the OPT consists of 100 items. Fifty minutes were allotted for completion. Test-takers were asked to read the stem with a blank and to choose one of the three options for the blank.

*Quick Placement Test*

As Granpayeh (2003, p. 8) put it, "QPT is a test of English language proficiency developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL to give teachers a reliable and time-saving method of finding a students' level of English." This test is available in both paper-and-pencil and computer-based versions. It is designed to calculate accurately English language learners' level of proficiency, from the beginner to the advanced level. QPT, which includes 60 items, takes 30 minutes to complete. According to Granpayeh (2003), the SEM of the test is around 4 and its reliability is close to 0.9.

**Procedures**

First, all the participants were given the QPT v.1 (2001) and a demographic questionnaire in order to assess their level of proficiency. Based on the obtained scores on the QPT, the participants were assigned to one of the three proficiency groups, i.e. beginner, lower intermediate, and advanced. In QPT, the band scores for the beginners, lower intermediate, and advanced levels are 0 to 15, 24 to 30, and 48 to 60 respectively. The participants' classes were held four sessions a week, twenty four sessions on aggregate. Each session lasted for two hours. The setting of the data collection was Estahban, a city located in Fars province, Iran. The NWRC and NWRP tasks, and the grammar test were measured during the first week of the English course. The allocated time for the NWRC and NWRP tasks were 15 and 5 minutes respectively. The NWRC as well as the NWRP tasks were administered in language laboratories since headphones were needed to allow the participants to listen to sequences of the tape-recorded nonwords. For the grammar test, the participants answered the grammar section of the OPT in 50 minutes.

**Data Analysis**

In order to answer the research questions, data from the NWRP task, NWRC task, and the grammar test were entered into SPSS 21 (2012). First, Shapiro-Wilk test was used in order to make sure that the distribution was normal. Shapiro-Wilk test is the most powerful normality test (Keskin, 2006; Mendes & Pala, 2003; Razali & Wah, 2011). After ensuring the normality of the data, Pearson product-moment correlations followed by multiple regression were investigated for the PM tasks and the grammar test scores. Significance level was set at  $p < 0.05$ .

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

As mentioned before, the participants of the study were selected out of 180 Adult male students of English. Shapiro-Wilk test was used in order to make sure that the distribution was normal. In all proficiency groups, the significance value shows that there is normal distribution since the p-value is more than 0.05 (see Table 3).

*Table 3: Test of Normality for All Groups*

	<b>Shapiro-Wilk Test</b>								
	Beginner			Lower Intermediate			Advanced		
	statistic	df	Sig.	statistic	df	Sig.	statistic	df	Sig.
Scores on the Grammar	.97	60	.77	.96	60	.85	.96	60	.29
Scores on the NWRP	.96	60	.22	.94	60	.18	.95	60	.10
Score on the NWRC	.95	60	.19	.94	60	.14	.92	60	.11

Table 4 shows the mean (Ms), standard deviations (SDs), and ranges of the scores of the grammar test, NWRP and NWRC tasks for the beginner group.

*Table 4: Descriptive Statistics (Each Group No.= 60)*

Variables	Beginner Group				Lower intermediate Group				Advanced Group			
	M	SD	Max	Min	M	SD	Max	Min	M	SD	Max	Min
Grammar Test	17.42	4.34	26	8	36.05	4.83	46	24	66.53	6.82	79	55
NWRP Task	14.77	2	19	11	14.3	1.69	19	11	<b>15.7</b>	1.97	<b>20</b>	12
NWRC Task	9.28	1.83	13	6	9.65	1.51	<b>14</b>	6	<b>11.05</b>	1.5	<b>14</b>	8

As Table 4 depicts, the advanced group had the highest mean score on both NWRP task (M= 15.7, SD=1.97) and NWRC task (M= 11.05, SD=1.5). The maximum score on the NWRP task was obtained by the advanced group (Max= 20). Both the lower intermediate and advanced groups gained the highest score in the NWRC task (Max= 14). Table 5 displays the correlation coefficients between NWRP, NWRC, and grammar scores in the beginner, lower intermediate, and advanced groups.

Table 5: Pearson Correlations between PM Tasks and Grammar Test in the Beginner, Lower Intermediate, and Advanced Groups

Variable	Beginner Group			Lower Intermediate Group			Advanced Group		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
1. Grammar	—	<b>.49**</b>	<b>.53**</b>	—	.41**	.48**	—	.36**	.47**
2. NWRP	<b>.49**</b>	—	.52**	.41**	—	.40**	.36**	—	.50**
3. NWRC	<b>.53**</b>	.52**	—	.48**	.40**	—	.47**	.50**	—

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

Table 5 shows that NWRP task was significantly correlated with the grammar scores for beginners ( $r = .49, p < .01$ ), intermediate students ( $r = .41, p < .01$ ), and advanced students ( $r = .36, p < .01$ ). Moreover, NWRC task was significantly correlated with the grammar scores at all proficiency levels (beginners:  $r = .53, p < .01$ ; intermediate students,  $r = .48, p < .01$ ; and advanced students,  $r = .47, p < .01$ ). The correlation coefficients show a moderate relationship for the three tests. The highest correlation between grammar test scores and NWRP task was that of beginners,  $r = .49, p < .01$ . Further, the beginners' scores on grammar test enjoyed the highest correlation with NWRC task,  $r = .53, p < .01$ . Then multiple regression between independent variables (NWRP and NWRC tasks as measures of PM) and dependent variable (grammar test scores) was computed so as to figure out the level of relationship between the variables, and to find out which variable could be a better predictor of L2 grammatical knowledge (Tables 6 and 7).

Table 6: Model Summary in Multiple Regression

Proficiency Level	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Beginner	.59 <sup>a</sup>	<b>.35</b>	.32	3.57
Lower Intermediate	.54 <sup>a</sup>	.29	.268	4.14
Advanced	.47 <sup>a</sup>	.22	.198	6.12

a. Predictors: (Constant), Nonword Recognition Task, Nonword Repetition Task

Table 7: Coefficients in Regression Analysis<sup>a</sup>

Proficiency Level		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
Beginner	(Constant)	-.279	3.523	—	.94
	Nonword Repetition Task	.622	.272	<b>.287</b>	<b>.026</b>
	Nonword Recognition Task	.916	.297	<b>.386</b>	<b>.00</b>
Lower Intermediate	(Constant)	14.057	4.864	—	.00
	Nonword Repetition Task	.763	.348	<b>.266</b>	<b>.03</b>
	Nonword Recognition Task	1.199	.389	<b>.375</b>	<b>.00</b>
Advanced	(Constant)	38.865	7.080	—	.00
	Nonword Repetition Task	.623	.468	.180	.19
	Nonword Recognition Task	1.618	.616	<b>.356</b>	<b>.01</b>

a. Dependent Variable: Grammar Test Scores

As Table 6 depicts, R<sup>2</sup> for beginner, lower intermediate, and advanced groups are .35, .29, and .22 respectively. In other words, the results tell us that for beginner, lower intermediate, and advanced groups, the PM tasks accounted for 35%, 29%, and 22% of the variance respectively. Therefore, in the beginner group the PM tasks accounts for 35% of the variance in scores of the grammar test. Table 7 displays the coefficients in the regression analysis and it shows that between the measures of PM, NWRP task had the higher Beta values than NWRP task across different groups of language proficiency (B= .386 for the beginner group; B= .375 for the lower intermediate group; B= .356 for the advanced group) ( $p < .05$ ). Moreover, except for the Beta value of the NWRP task for the advanced group (B= .18, P= .19), the Beta values for both NWRP and NWRC tasks were statistically significant across different levels of language proficiency.

The results are in line with those of French and O'Brien (2008) and Martin and Ellis (2012). Yet the results are in contrast with those of Kormos and Sáfár (2008) and Mizera (2006) because the findings of the present study revealed that the correlation between the PM tasks and the grammar knowledge was significant and moderate for beginners and lower intermediate participants. In the present study the PM tasks and grammar test in the advanced group showed a moderate correlation and this finding is inconsistent with that of Hummel (2009). Moreover, the correlations found for the beginners were higher than those of the lower intermediate students, and the correlations obtained for the lower intermediate group were higher than those obtained by the advanced group. Thus, it can be inferred that grammatical knowledge was more closely related to PM capacity for beginners than for lower intermediate and advanced learners. In fact, it could be concluded that the grammar items involved in the grammar test (multiple choice task) were generally unfamiliar to the beginner learners because they have presumably lower proficiency levels in the L2. It indicates that beginners would have highly relied upon PM capacity in order to achieve long-term learning of these items. On the other hand, advanced learners were more likely to know the grammatical items because they were more familiar with the L2 and it may result in making the contributions from PM less important. Further, NWRC task enjoying a higher Beta value was found to be a better predictor of the participants' L2 grammatical knowledge.

## CONCLUSION

The present research was an attempt to investigate the relationship between PM capacity, measured by NWRP and NWRC tasks, and the L2 grammatical knowledge at different levels of language proficiency. The findings suggest the possibility of a causal link between PM capacity and L2 grammatical knowledge. A significant finding in the present study is that PM and L2 grammar were moderately correlated during the six-week intensive English course in all levels of language proficiency. Findings therefore confirm results in previous studies that PM is actively involved in initial L2 learning and also contributes to subsequent L2 development. NWRC task was also found to be a better predictor of the participants' L2 grammatical knowledge than NWRP. In addition to the evidence reported in the present study, more

extensive research is needed to provide answers to the remaining questions germane to the relationships between PM capacity and various aspects of L2 learning in other EFL classroom contexts. Moreover, teachers can help students expand their PM capacity by applying various strategies and techniques and see the effects of this expansion on the students' L2 learning. In addition, as it seems that there are strong associations between PM and L2 knowledge, the first step should be to provide aid for those with poor PM capacity. The current understanding is that little can be done to expand poor PM but that there are ways to remove this obstacle in L2 learning as much as possible. This goal can be achieved by the teacher favoring strategies and techniques that do not require learners to rely heavily on their PM. Besides, learners themselves can choose learning strategies that lighten the processing load on PM. Therefore, more research is needed to confirm whether specific training and techniques intended for enhancing PM capacity and efficiency can be successfully taught to L2 learners (Hummel & French, 2010). Moreover, future research should study the relationship between the L2 grammatical knowledge and phonological memory between both male and female learners of a second language. Finally, it is important to remember that the design of the present study was correlational. In showing existing relationships among factors, the causal mechanisms should be uncovered and this requires further investigation.

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**THE EFFECT OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS: FOCUSING ON GENDER**

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**ABSTRACT**

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on listening comprehension of Iranian English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners at Iran Language Institutes (ILI) in Parsabad, Iran. To do so, 72 EFL learners were selected among 102 learners based on the 1 standard deviation (SD) above and below the mean score of a listening comprehension test. They were divided into two groups, one experimental and one control group. Then, Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) was administered to identify their metacognitive strategy awareness. The experimental group underwent a treatment based on Chamot and O'Malley (1994) model and regular instructional plan of ILI, while control group did not receive any strategy-based treatment. A post-test from "Expanding Tactics for Listening" (Richards, 2011), was given to both groups after 6-session instruction. The findings revealed that (a) instruction of metacognitive strategy had positive effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners and (b) instruction of metacognitive strategy had no differential effect on listening comprehension of female and male learners.

**KEYWORDS:** listening comprehension, metacognitive strategies, strategy instruction.

**INTRODUCTION**

"Listening is an important skill through which language learners internalize linguistic information without which they cannot produce language" and it is the first step in the process of language communication (Brown, 2001, p.248). Listening comprehension is an active and conscious process, in which listeners focus their own attentions on taking the important information from the aural input, comprehend the meaning of the input, and combine them with the contextual information and background knowledge to produce output (O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989). Based on the above mentioned statements, listening comprehension is a cognitive skill. It may develop through acquisition of learning strategies. Explicit instruction of listening strategies is necessary and useful for EFL learners.

Anderson (1991) considered metacognitive strategies as the most important strategy to develop learners' skills and it was proposed by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) that learners without them have no ability to monitor and regulate their development, performance, and future learning. On the other hand, learners who use metacognitive strategies are more proficient learners (Hauck, 2005). Chamot, Bernhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999) mentioned four metacognitive strategies: planning for learning, thinking about the learning process, monitoring production or comprehension, and evaluating learning processes.

Metacognitive strategies differentiate proficient and less proficient listeners from each other. Yang (2009) affirms the opinion that increasing metacognitive awareness assists listeners to accomplish listening tasks more effectively. Goh (2008) states some of the positive effects of metacognitive strategy instruction on listening comprehension of EFL learners. She expresses that teaching metacognitive strategies enhances learners' confidence and reduces learners anxious during the listening to oral input and also less skilled listeners benefit much from the strategies instruction.

Instruction of strategies explicitly enhances the listeners' metacognitive knowledge and makes better their listening comprehension (McDonough, 1999). Chamot and Rubin (1994) express the importance of finding and the strategies that students use for accomplishing specific learning assignments, presenting new strategies explicitly, describing when and where metacognitive strategies can be used and supplying more practice. Different models were proposed to increase listening comprehension of learners at EFL and ESL contexts (Anderson's model (2002), Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) and Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire MALQ). In this study, CALLA model was used to increase metacognitive strategy awareness and use during listening comprehension. It will be described in the following part of the present study in detail.

**Statement of the Problem**

Educational System of Iran put aside listening skill and foreign language learners do not have any opportunities for aural input, therefore it regarded as a passive skill. One of the conditions in which Iranian FLLs can be learning listening is Language institutes. Thus, finding most efficient way of making learners aware of their metacognitive strategy awareness and enhancing use of these strategies might assist EFL learners to improve their listening comprehension ability. It has been remarked that most researchers try to improve students' listening comprehension in Iran. Many studies have aimed at finding solutions to deal with advanced students' weaknesses in accomplishing listening comprehension assignments through strategy training. Some of the researches are focused on metacognitive strategies awareness through questionnaire (e.g., Akbari, 2003; Salehi & Farzad, 2003; Zarei & Sarmadi, 2004; Pishghadam, 2009; Salarifar & Pakdaman, 2010) and other investigated the effect of metacognitive strategies instruction explicitly (e.g., Maleki, 2005; Meshkat & Nasirifiruz, 2009). But few studies (e.g., Tavakoli, Hashemi and Rezazade 2012) have been conducted to uses a mixed method design. The present study aims to investigate the Iranian EFL learners' metacognitive strategy awareness and the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction based on Chamot and O'Malley (1994) on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL male and female learners.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Listening is a receptive skill in which listeners passively incorporate the message presented to them by speaker (Morley, 1991). It had been assumed that a learner's ability to comprehend spoken language would develop entirely on its own through repetition and imitation (Jinhong, 2011). According to above mentioned definitions, listening is a passive process but many other researchers pointed out that listening comprehension is an *active process* (Jinhong, 2011; O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Rost, 2002). Based on their definitions, listening

comprehension is not a passive activity in which listener receive information and then comprehend it but is a process-oriented activity which process the represented aural input step by step and combine background knowledge to information in the listening text.

#### **Metacognition**

In cognitive psychology, metacognition is defined as an executive control which includes monitoring and self-regulation. Biehler and Snowman (1993), in relation to cognition, define metacognition as:

The term cognition is used to describe the ways in which information is processed –i.e. the ways it is attended to, recognized, encoded, stored in memory for various lengths of time, retrieved from storage and used for one purpose or another. Metacognition refers to our knowledge about these operations and how they might best be used to achieve a learning goal. (p. 390)

Based on the above mentioned characteristics of metacognition, a successful language learner is a person who has metacognitive knowledge about the self, task and using appropriate strategies to achieve cognitive aims (Devine, 1993).

According to Flavell (1979), components of metacognition are knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition: *Knowledge of cognition* comprises declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge. Declarative knowledge refers to learners' knowledge about themselves and learning strategies such as note-taking, planning, self-questioning. Procedural knowledge is about learners thinking processes. It refers to knowledge about actual use of listening strategies during listening and conditional knowledge refers to knowledge about selecting and using specific listening strategies appropriately in different contexts and evaluating the benefit of using learning strategies. Learners in order to have conditional knowledge need to clarify when and where use declarative and procedural knowledge.

And *Regulation of cognition* is about planning before accomplishing different tasks (e.g., listening), self-monitoring learning process and problem-solving during the doing tasks, and evaluating the effectiveness of learners' approach after accomplishing tasks.

Livingston (1977) identified metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive regulation as the two dimensions of the metacognition. He stated that metacognitive knowledge comprises three types of knowledge. 1) *Knowledge of person variables* refers to how learners process information. 2) *Knowledge of task variables* refers to having knowledge about the nature of the task. 3) *Knowledge of strategy variables* refers to having conditional knowledge and knowledge about cognitive and metacognitive strategies, i.e., when and where it is appropriate to use these strategies.

#### **Listening Strategies**

Research into facilitating language learning through strategy instruction started from the past quarter of a century (Rubin, 1975; Wenden & Rubin, 1978; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Learning strategies are procedure undertaken by the learner, in order to make their own language learning as effective as possible.

In the view of O'Malley and Chamot:

Learning strategies are complex procedures that individuals apply to tasks; consequently, they may be represented as procedural knowledge which may be acquired through cognitive, associative, and autonomous stages of learning. As with other procedural skills at the different stages of learning, the strategies may be conscious in early stages of learning and later be performed without the person's awareness (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

Mendelsohn (1994) proposed 'strategy-based approach' to instruct listening comprehension based on researches about strategy instruction. People are commonly not aware about how they listen in their first language. Therefore, EFL learners require to use strategies consciously which they use unconsciously in the first language (Schmitt, 2002).

Learning strategies are generally divided into metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective. Proficient listeners use all of them altogether, the pattern of strategy use change according to the different situations. Dornyei (2005) proposed four types of strategies: Cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), metacognitive strategies are "higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring or evaluating the success of learning activity". Cohen (1998) said that "metacognitive strategies deal with pre assessment and pre-planning, on-line planning and evaluation, and post evaluation of language learning activities". Metacognitive are defined as thoughts or behaviors consciously employed by the learner to think about the learning task, plan for the task, monitor the task, and evaluate how well he/she has completed the task (Wendy, 2010).

Chamot, Bernhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins (1999) proposed four types of metacognitive strategies, planning, monitoring, problem-solving and evaluating. *Planning* is making a comprehensive plan for comprehending the aural input. It arouses learners' interest, expectations, and promotes their motivation to find out what will happen during the listening and it also clarifies the purposes for listening and to activate different kinds of schemata (Sequero, 1998). *Monitoring* –or comprehension monitoring- is listener's self-regulation of his or her own comprehension during listening (Glazer, 1992). Monitoring strategy assists listeners to compensate lost comprehension and to use listening strategies to enhance comprehension (Schunk, 1997). *Self-assessment* "has its foundations in metacognition and self-regulated learning and is seen as having the potential to provide teachers and students with opportunities to understand and enhance the ways students monitor and adjust strategic thinking in literacy learning" (Shoemaker, 1998, p. 410).

A number of researchers have attempted to investigate the effect of strategy instruction on listeners' comprehension performances. Their aim is to identify the effect of different contexts and variables on metacognitive strategy instruction. In New Taipei City, a study was conducted to probe the effects of metacognitive listening instruction on EFL learners. The results showed that there was no significant difference between Young Learner English (YLE) scores of the experimental and the control group in the post-test. However, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in directed attention and person knowledge (Lin, 2011). Jinhong (2011) explored the students' metacognitive strategy use, the relationship between metacognitive strategy use and their performance in a listening comprehension TEM-4 test. The finding revealed that there is a positive relationship between metacognitive strategy use and performance in the listening comprehension test. Then an interview was conducted among the students whose scores showed a negative relation between strategy use

and listening performance to find the reasons. The results revealed that learners have different problems in using metacognitive strategies for doing listening comprehension tasks.

In a study at Allameh Tabataba'i and Shahid Beheshti, Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011) explored the relationship among metacognitive strategy use, motivation and listening performance of EFL students. In this study MALQ, AMS (Academic Motivation Scale), and the listening section of the TOEFL were used as instrument. After administering the pretest, students completed MALQ and AMS. The results showed significant correlation between metacognitive strategy use and listening performance, listening performance and intrinsic motivation, as well as metacognitive strategy use and intrinsic, extrinsic motivation. Bozorgian (2012) in a small scale study looked into the impact of metacognitive instruction on listening comprehension of Iranian high-intermediate EFL listeners in a "strategy-based" approach of advance organization, directed attention, selective attention, and self-management in IELTS listening texts. The results showed that the less-skilled listeners improved more than more-skilled listeners in the IELTS listening tests.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study was motivated by the following research questions:

RQ.1. Does metacognitive strategy instruction has any effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners?

RQ.2. Does metacognitive strategy instruction has any differential effect on listening comprehension of Iranian female and male EFL learners?

This study is guided by the following null hypotheses:

Ho.1. Instruction of metacognitive strategies had no effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

Ho.2. Instruction of metacognitive strategies had no differential effect on listening comprehension of Iranian female and male EFL learners.

The purpose of this study is examining the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction based on Chamot and O'Malley model's (1994) on listening comprehension of Iranian female and male EFL learners. This model provided repeated exposure and practice with learning strategies to enhance learners' use of strategies.

## METHODOLOGY

### Research Design

In this study, the researcher selected participants non-randomly and divided them into experimental and control groups. Experimental group received the treatment and the other group, control group, did not receive any treatment. Both groups received a test before (pretest) and after (post-test) treatment. These steps constitute the principles of the quasi-experimental research. Therefore, the design of this study is quasi-experimental. The independent variable in this study is the metacognitive strategy and the dependent variable is the listening performance of the experimental and the control groups. And in this study the gender is the moderate variable.

### Participants

A total number of 102 female and male learners who were studying English as a foreign language at Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Parsabad, Iran participated in this study. Learners at ILI are homogenous; because before entering to the ILI classes they were participated in a placement test. But in order to confirm their homogeneity in listening comprehension a listening comprehension test based on Richards's "Expanding Tactics for Listening" (2011) as a pretest, including four texts with 24 multiple-choice items, was administered to determine their homogeneity in listening comprehension. The learners' scores were 1 SD ( $SD=2.84$ ) above and below the mean score ( $M=14.5$ ) were selected. Thirty-six male ( $N=36$ ) and thirty-six female ( $N=36$ ) learners, between 16 to 21 years old, were participated in this study.

### Instruments

Four research instruments were used for the purpose of this study: A *listening comprehension test* (pretest) was used in order to determine the homogeneity of participants' in listening comprehension; *Metacognition Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ)* was used to identify Iranian males and females metacognitive strategy awareness; a post-test, *listening comprehension test*, was used in order to determine effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on listening comprehension (the pre and post-test were selected from "Expanding Tactics for Listening" (Richards, 2011) and their reliabilities which were estimated based on Cronbach's Alpha Level were, respectively, .74 and .71), and an *Interview* was used to asking some questions about how learners evaluate their own use of the metacognitive strategy and how the strategy is working for them and whether they applied these strategies in other context or not? It included six questions about the effect of using metacognitive strategies (Appendix A), based on the findings of Barbosa (2012).

### Procedure

102 male ( $N=48$ ) and female ( $N=54$ ) EFL learners at four classes at ILI in Parsabad participated in the present study. All of them were homogenous because before entering to these classes they participated in a placement test and in order to confirm their homogeneity in listening comprehension, a pretest from Richards's "Expanding Tactics for Listening" (2011), was administered to 102 learners (the learners of all classes were asked to complete a pretest in one 50-minute class period). The learners whose score were 1 SD ( $SD=2.84$ ) above and below of the mean score ( $M=14.5$ ) were selected. Seventy-two male ( $N=36$ ) and female ( $N=36$ ) learners, homogenous in listening comprehension, among four classes at ILI, were selected as participants in the present study (two of four classes were randomly considered as experimental and other as control group). After identifying the homogeneity of learners in listening comprehension, a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) was administered to determine learners' metacognitive strategy awareness before treatment. After an introduction on the purpose of the study and on the directions about what they requires to do for the following 8 sessions, the learners in experimental group participated in the MSI project. Then Chamot and O'Malley's model (1994) of strategy instruction (five stages) were applied. 1. *Preparation*: Instructor prepares learners for strategy instruction by identifying their background knowledge about the metacognitive strategies. 2. *Presentation*: The instructor demonstrates the new strategies and explains how and when to use them. 3. *Practice*: In this stage learners practice presented metacognitive strategies in processing represented input. 4-5. *Evaluation and Extension*: The instructor asks the learners evaluate their own comprehension and how they used strategies and so on. After 6-session metacognitive strategy instruction, a post-test (listening comprehension test) was given to both experimental and control groups. The scores of learners in post-test were compared in order to determine the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on listening comprehension of Iranian male and female EFL learners. Finally at end of the study, through an interview, the instructor asks some questions about the strategies that learners (12 out of the 36 learners were randomly selected) were used during listening comprehension test and some questions about their experiences in learning the new strategies.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Results**

In order to answer the research questions, two research hypotheses were mentioned. To test first and second research hypotheses independent samples *t*-test was proposed.

**Testing the Metacognitive Awareness**

After determining the learners' homogeneity in listening comprehension through one-way ANOVA, a Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) was used to identify learners' metacognitive strategy awareness. At first, through independent samples *t*-test, the researcher investigated wheatear there is any difference between Iranian EFL listeners in metacognitive strategy use or not (planning-evaluation, person knowledge, problem-solving, direct attention and mental translation)? Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the learners' awareness that categorized based on the experimental and control groups.

*Table 1: Experimental and Control Groups Descriptive Statistics for MALQ*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	36	114.71	15.790	3.446
Control	36	120.00	22.669	4.947

The findings of descriptive statistics (Table 1) revealed that there isn't significant difference between mean scores of experimental (M=114.71) and control (M=120.0) groups in metacognitive strategy use. The estimated p-value for MALQ (Sig=.386) is more than the level of significance ( $p= .05$ ). Therefore, there is no significant difference between experimental and control groups in metacognitive strategy use. Table 2 displays the results of the independent samples *t*-test for the experimental and control groups.

*Table 2: Independent Sample t-test for the Experimental and Control Groups (MALQ)*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.104	.765	.877-	40	.386
Equal variances not assumed			.877-	35.708	.386

After identifying the homogeneity of experimental and control groups in MALQ, an independent sample *t*-test was performed to identify females and males (experimental groups) metacognitive strategy use.

*Table 3: Experimental and Control Groups Descriptive Statistics for MALQ*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	18	250.40	146.257	65.408
Control	18	232.60	122.693	54.870

According to Table 4 the estimated p-value ( $p=.840$ ) is higher than the level of significance, .05. Therefore, there is no significant difference between Iranian female and male learners in terms of their reported use of metacognitive strategies. Table 4 displays the results of the independent-samples *t*-test for the female and male learners.

*Table 4: Independent-samples t-test for MALQ*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.144	.714	.208	8	.840
Equal variances not assumed			.208	7.765	.840

Although the results of the independent-samples *t*-test showed that there was no significant difference between Iranian females and males in terms of their reported use of metacognitive strategies, in order to verifying the strategies that females and males were different, in detail, independent-samples *t*-test was conducted for each strategy independently. Table 5 displays the results of descriptive statistics for five strategies that were included in MALQ.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for MALQ by Gender

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
1	Male	18	53.000	21.33073	9.53939
	Female	18	51.6000	22.86482	10.22546
2	Male	18	63.8000	26.08064	11.66362
	Female	18	60.8000	28.27897	12.64674
3	Male	18	49.4000	34.56588	15.458333
	Female	18	49.6000	37.20618	16.63911
4	Male	18	43.2000	40.80686	18.24938
	Female	18	35.4000	21.32604	9.53730
5	Male	18	38.6000	32.05932	14.33736
	Female	18	35.2000	21.93627	9.81020

1)Planning-evaluation 2) Person knowledge 3) Problem-solving 4) Direct attention 5) Mental translation

Based on the results of the independent-samples *t*-test (Table 4), in total, there is no significant difference between Iranian females and males in metacognitive strategy use. In detail, the independent-samples *t*-test for the each strategy (Table 6) shows that the estimated *p*-values for planning and evaluation, person knowledge, problem solving, direct attention, mental translation are .923, .866, .993, .715 and .850, respectively, higher than the level of significance .05. Therefore, there are not significant differences between males and female in each metacognitive strategy. Table 6 displays the results of independent-samples *t*-test for five strategies that were included in MALQ.

Table 6: Independent Samples *t*-test for Metacognitive Strategy Use

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Planning Evaluation	Equal variances assumed	.012	.915	.100	8	.923
	Equal variance not assumed			.100	7.962	.923
Problem Solving	Equal variances assumed	.048	.833	.174	8	.866
	Equal variances not assumed			.174	7.948	.866
Direct Attention	Equal variances assumed	.059	.815	-.009	8	.993
	Equal variances not assumed			-.009	7.957	.933
Mental Translation	Equal variances assumed	7.336	.027	.379	8	.715
	Equal variances not assumed			.379	6.033	.718
Person Knowledge	Equal variances assumed	2.243	.173	.196	8	.850
	Equal variances not assumed			.196	7.072	.850

**Testing the Research Hypotheses**

In the first research question, the researcher intended to investigate the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. To test this question, the researcher proposed the first null hypothesis:

Ho.1 Metacognitive strategy instruction had no effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

In order to investigate the difference between control and experimental groups, the gathered listening comprehension scores subjected to statistical analysis of independent samples *t*-test. The results of this analysis show that there is significant difference between performance of the participants in the control and experimental groups. Table 7 displays the descriptive statistic for the experimental and control groups.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics for the Experimental and Control Groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	36	16.08	1.131	.188
Experimental	36	18.23	1.477	.205

Table 8: Independent Samples *t*-test for the Experimental and Control Groups Post-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	4.388	.040	-6.884	69	.000
Equal variances not assumed			-6.858	63.696	.000

To test this research hypothesis, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The results of this analysis are represented in Table 8. According to the results of this table, there is significant difference between performances of experimental and control groups. The observed

p-value (Sig.= .04) is less than the level of significance (.05). Therefore the research hypothesis that claimed metacognitive strategy instruction had no effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners was rejected.

Finally to test second research hypothesis, the independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The results of this analysis are represented in Table 10. As the results in Table 4.10 shows, there is no significant difference between females and males in the listening comprehension test (post-test). The observed p-value (Sig.= .640) estimated for H0.2 is more than the level of significance (.05). Therefore the research hypothesis that claimed metacognitive strategy instruction had no differential effect on listening comprehension of Iranian female and male EFL learners was supported. Table 4.10 displays the results of the independent samples *t*-test for the female and male experimental groups.

*Table 9: Group Statistics of Females and Males Post-test Scores*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Female	18	17.56	1.247	.294
Male	18	18.94	1.391	.337

*Table 10: Independent Samples t-test for the female and Male in the Experimental Group*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.223	.640	-3.107	33	.004
Equal variances not assumed			-3.097	32.105	.004

### **Discussion**

With two main research questions, this study examines (a) the listeners' metacognitive awareness (b) the effect of metacognitive instruction and (c) the differential effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on listening comprehension of female and male EFL learners who are studied English at ILI in Parsabad, Iran.

#### *The Results of the MALQ and Interview*

In this study, at first, data from the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) were collected from 72 Iranian EFL learners in experimental and control groups. Analysis of the data through independent samples *t*-test revealed that there was no difference between experimental and control groups. And then, through independent samples *t*-test, the difference of females (N=18) and males (N=18) experimental group was examined. Analysis of the data also showed that there was no significant difference between females and males in metacognitive strategy use. This questionnaire has 21 items which measure five metacognitive strategies, planning, problem-solving, direct attention, mental translation and person knowledge, (Vandergift, Goh, Mareschel & Tafaghodtari, 2006).

#### *Planning and Evaluation Strategy*

Planning describes the purposes for learning, activate different previous information, and it is a comprehensive plan to accomplish the listening tasks (Dutta, 1995; Sequero, 1998). Analysis of the questionnaire responses showed learners did not fully use planning and evaluation strategies to assist them to accomplish their listening comprehension tasks (M=52.30). According to the table 5, only 51.6 % of female and 53.0 % of male learners planned how they listened to oral input. The estimated p-value for the planning and evaluation strategies (Sig.= .915) was more than the level of significance (p=.05). Therefore there was no significant difference between female and male EFL learners in planning and evaluation strategies. And at the end of study, learners responses to interview questions showed that their using planning and evaluation strategies were improved through comment such as "it is helpful for me because I can guess what the text is going to talk about and it's easier for me if I know what the listening parts are going to talk" and "before I start to listen, I have a plan in my head for how I am going to listen".

#### *Problem Solving Strategy*

Problem solving strategies assist listeners to compensate lost comprehension and to use different listening strategies to enhance comprehension (Schunk, 1997). Analysis of the questionnaire responses revealed that (Table 5), prior to the treatment, the learners did not use more problem-solving strategies to overcome comprehension difficulties as they listened to aural input (M= 37.7). According to the table 4.5, only 39.2 % of female and 36.2 % of male learners could inference and monitor those inferences. Based on the independent samples *t*-test, the observed p-value for the problem solving strategies (Sig.= .833) was more than the level of significance (p= .05). Therefore there was no significant difference between female and male EFL learners in terms of using problem solving strategies.

And at the end of study, learners' responses to interview questions revealed that learners using problem solving strategies were improved through comment such as "I use the words I understand to guess the meaning of the words I don't understand" and " I compare what I understand with what I know about the topic".

#### *Direct Attention Strategy*

Directed attention refers to how listeners concentrate, stay on task, and focus on their listening efforts (Vandergift, 2004). The collected data from the questionnaire showed (Table 5) that learners did not use more directed attention strategies in overcoming comprehension difficulties as they listened to listening comprehension (M= 49.50). According to the table 4.5, only 49.6 % of female and 49.4 % of male learners could inference on what is not understood and monitor those inferences. Males and females focus harder on the text when they have trouble understanding and try to get back on track when they lose concentration, respectively (M=49.40; M=49.60). Based on the independent samples *t*-test, the estimated p-value for the direct attention strategies (Sig.= .815) was more than the level of significance (p=.05). Therefore there was no difference between female and male EFL learners in terms of using direct attention strategies.

And learners' responses to interview questions showed that learners using direct attention strategies were improved through comment such as "I try to get back on track when I lose concentration" and "I focus harder on the text when I have trouble understanding".

#### *Mental Translation Strategy*

The collected data from statements 4, 11 and 18 revealed that most learners translated key words, translated word by word to comprehend the content and they like to translate words or sentences into Farsi in order to understand ( $M=39.3$ ). The data showed (Table 5) that the use of mental translation (is defined as taking a bottom-up processing to listening comprehension) of female ( $M=35.40$ ) is less than male learners ( $M=43.20$ ). Based on the independent samples *t*-test, the estimated *p*-value for the mental translation strategies ( $\text{Sig.}=.027$ ) was less than the level of significance ( $p=.05$ ). Therefore there was difference between female and male EFL learners in terms of using mental translation strategies.

Learners' responses to interview questions revealed that females and males using of these strategies were decreased through comment such as "after MSI, I use less word by word translation as I listen".

#### *Person Knowledge Strategy*

According to Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari's (2010) definition, person knowledge refers to learners belief about how they learn best, the difficulty presented by L2 listening, and their self-efficacy in L2 listening. The data revealed that learners found listening in English more difficult than reading, speaking, or writing and it was challenging for them ( $M=36.90$ ). All the learners feel nervous when they listen to English (female= 35.2; male=38.6). Based on the independent samples *t*-test, the observed *p*-value for the person knowledge strategies ( $\text{Sig.}=.173$ ) was less than the level of significance ( $p=.05$ ). Therefore there was difference between female and male EFL learners in terms of using person knowledge strategies. The gathered data from interview questions revealed that some individuals' self-efficacy beliefs were improved, through comments such as "prediction and activating related schemata can increase confidence," and "if I used these strategies all the time I think my listening skill will be the easiest for me."

In brief, the above findings revealed that there were differences between females and males in person knowledge, and mental translation but females and males approximately are the same in terms of planning-evaluation, directed attention and problem solving strategies. But the observed *p*-value for overall use of metacognitive strategies ( $\text{Sig.}=.714$ ) was more than the level of significance ( $p=.05$ ). Therefore, there was no difference between Iranian females and males in terms of their reported use of metacognitive strategies.

#### *First and Second Research Hypotheses*

The data from the listening comprehension test were collected from 72 females and males in four experimental and control groups. The groups were homogenous in terms of their listening skill at the beginning of the instruction. Then, the instructor presented metacognitive strategy instruction to the experimental groups based on Chamot and O'Malley's model (1994), the control groups didn't receive any metacognitive based instruction. In order to compare the experimental and control groups' listening performance at the end of the 8-sessions instruction, both the experimental and control groups were administered a post-test (listening comprehension test) at the end of the study. The independent samples *t*-test analysis of the post-test showed that the mean scores of the experimental groups ( $M= 18.23$ ) were significantly different from the control groups ( $M= 16.08$ ) (see Table 4.13).

To answer first research question, based on the results of the independent samples *t*-test, the observed *p*-value ( $p=.40$ ) was less than the level of significance ( $.05$ ). Therefore the research hypothesis that claimed instruction of metacognitive strategies had no effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners was rejected. This result is in accordance with the previous studies (Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011; Bozorgian, 2012; Lin, 2011; Selamat & Sidhu, 2011; Yang, 2009). And finally in order to answer second research question, based on the results of the independent samples *t*-test, the observed *p*-value for RQ.2 ( $p=.640$ ) was more than the level of significance ( $p=.05$ ). The collected data showed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the female experimental group ( $M= 18.94$ ) and male experimental group ( $M = 17.56$ ). In brief, these results supported the second research hypothesis (instruction of metacognitive strategies has no differential effect on listening comprehension of Iranian female and male EFL learners).

## **CONCLUSION**

According to many researchers (e.g., Jinhong, 2011; O'Malley, Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Rost, 2002; Thompson, 2003; Vandergrift, 1999) listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listeners actively receive and process the aural input, compound the information and then interpret it. Previous studies indicated the important role of metacognition on improving listening comprehension (e.g., Akbari, 2003; Cross, 2009; Jinhong, 2011; Lin, 2011; Pishghadam, 2009; Salarifar & Pakdaman, 2010; Salehi & Farzad, 2003; Yang, 2009; Zarei & Sarmadi, 2004).

Based on the findings of this study, both the experimental and control groups developed their listening comprehension. However, the development of the experimental group was significantly more than the development of the control groups. The fact that the control groups development may be attributed to ILI programs. On the other hand, the significantly higher development of the experimental groups can be attributed to the 6-sessions metacognitive strategy instruction. At the end of instructional period, the female and male experimental groups' development was approximately the same.

In the beginning of this study, data analysis showed that learners in experimental and control groups had same metacognitive strategy awareness. And independent samples *t*-test also revealed that there was no difference, in overall, between females and males. Moreover, in a sporadic investigation, the data analysis revealed that female and male listeners used different metacognitive strategies. The metacognitive strategies that were explored in this study include planning, monitoring, problem-solving, and evaluating. The data showed that there were differences between female and male learners in person knowledge, and mental translation strategies but they approximately were the same in terms of planning-evaluation, directed attention and problem solving strategies.

#### *Pedagogical Implications*

The findings of the present study will give teachers some guidelines as to improve EFL learners' listening comprehension. Since language learning is a slow and long-term process, it is suggested that explicit strategy training needs to be integrated in to listening instruction curriculum in language institutes. Another implication of this study goes to teacher-training programs. The aim of such programs should be familiarizing teachers with beneficial effects of explicit strategies instruction on learners' progress. The administrators, curriculum designers, material developers, and teachers, can use the findings of the present study to shape/design curricula, create syllabi, develop materials, and conduct classes accordingly.

#### *Suggestions for Further Studies*

For future studies, the period of instruction and sample size can be extended in order to reach more generalizable findings. This study investigated all metacognitive strategies, planning, monitoring, problem-solving and evaluating, but for future research, the segments of metacognitive strategies can be investigated. The metacognitive strategy instruction in a repeated manner through Chamot and O'Mally's model (1994) can be applied to studies focused on other skills. In upcoming studies, researchers can examine the effect of teaching other

learning strategies, cognitive and socioaffective, through Chamot and O'Malley's model. The questionnaire was used for this study is MALQ which includes (planning, problem-solving, direct attention, mental translation and person knowledge). For further study, the questionnaire could be modified to include new findings of specific behaviors of listening comprehension in order to have a more complete list of listening strategies.

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#### APPENDIX A

##### Interview

Based on the research questions and objectives, the following questions led in the interview.

1. What was the effect of the MSI in your listening comprehension?
2. Do you consider that the use of metacognitive strategies helped you to improve your listening comprehension? Why?
3. Did the way in which your listened change into a disciplined and conscious process? Why?
4. With the use of the metacognitive strategies were you able to plan, monitor, solve problems, and evaluate your own progress?
5. Which of the strategies do you consider most useful for you? Why?
6. How did you feel during the whole process?

**A CRITICAL LOOK AT THE VARIATIONIST APPROACH  
TO STUDYING LANGUAGE**

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**ABSTRACT**

One of the approaches to language acquisition and language use is the variationist approach pioneered by William Labov in the 1960's. Contrary to many theories in linguistics which seek for categorical rules to explain the underlying principles in language, the variationist approach claims that language varies systematically in accordance with social characteristics of the speakers. The very basic question which arises here is that if language use varies from a situation to another, how can it be described, and more importantly explained as a systematic apparatus. Labov's theory of linguistic variation seem to be central to the issue since it starts with real phonological sample analysis and takes into consideration the sociolinguistic factors behind such variation. However, when it is compared with more systematic schools in linguistics and language acquisition research, one finds out that although both Labovian and categorical approaches to language studies seem to be right in their system of enquiry, there is a sharp gap between the two models in providing a cogent explanation of the mechanisms and processes involved in language production, use and also acquisition. The present paper tries to deal with these gaps and suggest a solution for dealing with such mismatches in theory of language variation as a central issue in language studies including language acquisition.

**KEYWORDS:** Variation; Variationist rules; Categorical rules; Optimality theory

**INTRODUCTION**

Variation in language is among the very basic obvious features of this highly complex phenomenon in human societies. Language is schematic for its instances, and speaking a language implies speaking a given variety of that language. Among the very first scientists who commented on language variation is the splendid biologist Charles Darwin (1859) who pointed out that the messiness of linguistic variation is in some ways comparable to the messiness of variation among species of horses, and that there is an important relationship between variation and evolution in both languages and living things. Darwin also observed variability in language use noting that "we see variability in every tongue, and new words are continually cropping up" (quoted in Labov, 2001, p. 8). In expounding language variation based on a biological theory of evolution, Darwin argued that language change results from a kind of natural selection similar to that of races for species.

However, since language is a social contract flowing and integrating within human societies, it is more common and even sounder and wiser to provide a social account of a natural fact like variation in language. Accents, for instance, are socially diagnostic, and in many disciplines including sociolinguistics, it has been assumed that speech forms can trigger social meaning. Other disciplines, in turn, have consistently denied that the lectal variety-society link should have any kind of bearing on the systematic configuration of linguistic codes (Coupland, 2007).

In theoretical linguistics, there has been a widespread tendency to equate standard variety to the acceptable language. A very clear example is Chomskyan linguistics which has always been seeking for a homogeneous speech community systematically eradicating social variation. Such a model and understanding of language is even known as homogeneous competence. However, according to Coupland (2007), the impression that we are working at the level of "langue" when standard varieties form the basis of our analysis, but at the level of *parole* when the object of study is a nonstandard variety, is obviously misleading, if both of them are considered varieties of the same language. An aspect of linguistic variation is that within a speech community, speakers who belong to different age groups, social classes, ethnic groups, and genders show systematic differences in the way they talk.

According to Adamson (2009), by proposing an alternative model for language description, Halliday (1978) tried to solve the problem of mismatch between linguistic competence and variational fluctuations in language through dividing language into "language as system" (language as a system analyzable in terms of levels of linguistic structure) and "language as institution" (language as constituted by independently formed varieties). According to Halliday, stylistic variation and registers belong to "language as system" and regional and social varieties (regiolects, sociolects, accents) to "language as institution".

Although Halliday's division conveniently includes styles and registers within the study of language as system, it excludes dialectal variation. In fact, both models ultimately turn out to be reductionist, as none of them focuses on language as it is globally and actually used in real situations by multilectal speakers.

Later research on linguistic variation revealed the fact that the frequency at which a speaker uses variable forms depends not only on the speaker's demographic characteristics, but also on the linguistic environment in which the form occurs. For example, according to Labov (1969), all speakers sometimes delete final /t,d/ when the following word starts with a consonant. Final /t,d/ deletion is also less likely in native speaker speech if the final /t,d/ does not serve as a past tense morpheme.

All these issues necessitate the emergence of a new trend in sociolinguistics known as Variationist approach which began during the 1960s, when Labov and Weinreich, developed a theory of language change which mostly adopted an ethnographic dialectological, probabilistic approach to the study of linguistic variation (Weinreich et al., 1968). As was mentioned above, Labov began his work at a time when the ruling linguistic paradigm was Chomsky's (1965) Standard Theory, and Labov considered his own work to be an extension and refinement of that theory. However, as shall be mentioned in the present paper later, that attempt was later argued by some linguists to be a category error since generative grammar is not concerned with the probabilities at which linguistic forms are used, but only with whether the forms are grammatical and part of a native speaker's linguistic competence. So, acceptability judgment was considered the norm for any recognition of language rules in generative thought.

Another introductory recognition which needs to be stated at this point of our analysis is that prior to Labov's research paradigm, two approaches in variationist tradition could be recognized: the system-oriented approach which started by linguistic form and their

distribution, and the behavior-oriented approach which started by examining speaker's behavior. Labov adopted a system-oriented approach which shows a marked departure from psychological approach to the study of language both by behaviorists and cognitivists in the two structural and transformational traditions in language studies. In fact, Labov's contribution was a practical step into inserting data-driven social and ethnographic approach into linguistics. According to Labov (1969), Morphosyntactic variation is not confined to competition between dialect and standard forms. Variation occurs in all spoken varieties, even in those which can be considered to be fairly standard.

Labov's endeavors to systematize the methodology of analyzing language variation and change later developed the field from an approach into a method known as "variation theory". In this theory, variation is an inherent part of language which can be observed and studied both synchronically and diachronically, in that it shows variation and change in its historical development and also denotes that language varies across different dialects within linguistic communities and socio-geographical distribution. Such variations which can even be traced in everyday vernacular of a language are at the same time rule-governed as is true for all natural languages. In other words, it is established in sociolinguistic research that language variation is not a haphazard phenomenon, but happens rather systematically (Togliamonte, 2012).

A starting point for variationist linguistics was the research with semantic equivalence as differences in pronunciation corresponded with the same meaning (Labov, 1969). However in his later studies in the field, Labov (2001) contained relevant discussion of some possible sociolinguistic principles which relate language change to social perceptions of language. In other words, Labov's approach moves gradually from a purely linguistic study on variation into a more sociolinguistic account of variation seeking to find a socio-ethnic explanation on linguistic variation. According to Togliamonte (2012), one example of such a principle of social perception is Labov's Golden Age Principle which states that at some time in the past, language was in a state of perfection (Labov, 2001). This principle is intended to explain, among other things, why older generations do not typically adopt speech norms of younger generations. Although such a sociolinguistic attitude apparently seems not to belong to anything like a universal grammar, it has clear implications for both synchrony and diachrony and would, therefore, appear to be an externally oriented account of a cross-linguistic grammatical generalization.

The relationship between meaning and form based on variationist sociolinguistics is defined by attributing meanings to varieties based on patterns of variation itself. Labov (1972) introduces the concept of salience noting that if a speech feature is used more frequently by one group rather than another group, or in one speaking situation than another, it is common practice to claim that the feature has group-salient or situation-salient meaning. Labov further formalizes this pattern of interpretation in his use of the terms marker, indicator and stereotype (Labov, 1972). By definition, markers are sociolinguistic variables that show variation in both social and stylistic dimensions. Indicators show stable, social variation. They distinguish social classes but show no variation across speaking situations. Stereotypes are variables that are highly salient to speakers and are subject to overt comment and control. The concept of marking is addressed to specify the social and stylistic circumstances of variational distribution.

#### VARIATIONIST METHODOLOGY

A preliminary consideration with regard to variationist approach to sociolinguistics is that variation analysis requires a large number of tokens of the variable being studied for providing sufficient data for further analysis. The task of identifying and analyzing variable forms is greatly aided by full transcription of the interview data. Except for the case of the study on phonological variations which requires a more detailed and meticulous recording of data, a fine balance between level of detail and accessibility is the norm in variationist data collection (Llamas, 2007). As far as syntactic variations are concerned, all pertinent grammatical variations should be preserved, whether they conform to standard rules or not. Frequency of occurrence is the criterion for determining the status of a form. However, morphosyntactic variables tend to be much less recurrent than phonetic variables, which can be a problem for quantitative analysis (Labov, 1966).

An example of Labovian sociolinguistic analysis is that Labov (1966) found the frequency at which a variable feature is used depends on the circumstances of speaking. /r/ deletion in New York City is a clear example of the case where New Yorkers can delete it after a vowel. Labov found that this deletion correlated not only with the linguistic environment and the speaker's social class but also with the speaking task. According to Labov, speakers tended to delete /r/ more often when they are telling stories than when they were providing demographic information. Labov suggested that the speakers tended to delete /r/ more in the casual style because they paid less attention to how they sounded, concentrating instead on telling the story. However, in formal style the speakers monitored their speech, trying to avoid stigmatized forms like deleted /r/.

To understand how Labov analyzed sociolinguistic variation as for the case above, we should note that a primary stage in the initial phase of variable selection is functional equivalence (Lavandera, 1978), where the differing variants are recognized as alternative ways of saying the same thing. The next step is circumscription of the variable context or the envelope of variation which is a major part of the analysis. Then in the analysis, we have extraction of all contexts where a variant can potentially appear in line with the 'Principle of Accountability' (Labov, 1972). In other words, where a particular variant does not appear is just as important as where it does.

According to Llamas (2007), the first stage in the phase of statistical analysis is to count the number of tokens overall, and the proportion of different variants within different instances of use. At this point, decisions and judgments are made on how many occurrences of the use of the variable under study are in the data and also on the different numbers of variants that make up these occurrences. These initial figures are known as the "overall distributions" and are normally the first set of results reported. While overall distributions of forms indicate how common particular variants are, they shed little light on the processes underlying the choice of mechanism. To validate data collection, it is also necessary to examine closely the forms that a linguistic variable takes, and note what features of the context co-occur with these forms (Bayley, 2002). These include both surrounding linguistic environment as well as social features. Using the multivariate analysis, which can deal with these competing influences, it permits us to model the combined contribution of all the contextual factors simultaneously. According to Llamas (2007), the outcome of such analysis is: (1) which factor groups have a statistically significant effect on the choice of the particular variant (factor groups which are not significant are often shown in brackets), (2) which factor group has the strongest effect (shown by the largest range) and (3) which factors within the different factor groups favor.

Related to Labovian approach to the study of language variation is work on the relationship between culture and linguistic patterns (Evans, 2003). Much of the work in this area tries to show that the presence of a particular cultural trait in a community may explain the presence of some fairly specific grammatical patterns in that community's language. However, some apparent grammatical universals may actually be the result of cultural universals.

In spite of all relevant works and studies on the issue of variation ranging from formalistic approaches to cultural accounts of the issue, Labov's approach is still the most quoted and at the same time, the most cogent study done on the issue which has contributed a lot not only to the field of variation studies in particular, but also to the expansion of sociolinguistics as an independently developed branch of interdisciplinary studies in general, with some by-product approaches, techniques and theories, ranging from linguistic ethnography to optimality theory. However, researchers who wished to write a grammar that described probabilistic patterns in speech production, such as those found by Labov, faced a basic problem. How could frequency information be included in a Standard Theory grammar? The solution that Labov and his colleagues proposed was to modify the transformational rules of the Standard Theory so that they specified the linguistic factors that affected rule application. At first, this change appeared to be minor. Generative grammar already contained optional rules, like the rule for particle movement mentioned previously, which generated alternative forms. Labov's (1969) answer was to propose the "variable rule", which specifies the environmental features (constraints) that favor rule application.

According to Labov (1969), there are two central facts with regard to variation in language. On one hand, since it is a rule governed phenomenon, it is even prone to quantificational analysis as is the case with Labov's own research findings. On the other hand, a key factor in variation is the context in which this phenomenon occurs which can be dealt with at two levels. One is at the level of description which is a function of relatively more stable features of language like language universals. However, when it comes to the stage of interpretation, the outcome would vary in accordance with which context a special variation happens.

#### VARIATIONIST POSITION AND THE REALM OF PSYCHOLOGY

From a psychological point of view, what in everyday terminology is referred to as *language, accent, dialect, style* and *social group* constitute concepts; categorizations and schemas on different levels of abstractions that relate to one another in the sense that they form part of a larger frame (Kristiansen, 2008). Not only the speech style, but also the non-linguistic social meaning seems to form part of such frames. Accordingly, when human beings categorize other humans into a series of social categories and subcategories, simplified images representing what such groups are like develop as social stereotypes. However, the role of cognitive sciences in interpreting the linguistic processes, mechanisms and mental representations and also in providing an understanding of language variation is assigned to pure linguists who have their own understanding of variation phenomenon. In order to understand the position of variationist theory in linguistics, it is essential to make a distinction between E-language (Externalized language) and I-language (Internalized language) linguistics. According to Chomsky (1986), E-language linguistics focuses on sentences understood independently of the properties of the mind. However, I-language linguistics is concerned with the speakers' knowledge of the language and the origin of such knowledge in human mind. Therefore, it can be inferred that E-language approach treats language as a social phenomenon. Considering this distinction, variation in linguistics can be recognized as an E-language approach to the study of language while optimality perspective, though not apparently a mentalist approach to the study of language, is more prone to be categorized in the I-language linguistic studies. Some scholars believe that optimality theory was a revisionary concept to reconsider variation which is a probabilistic program dealing with widespread structured variation and specifically aims to know how mental program (I-language) is organized, so that variations arise (Adger & Smith, 2005).

Elsewhere, Milroy and Gordon (2003) provide a relatively inclusive picture of the basic reasons why variationists and generativists cannot reconcile, namely that:

- A) generativists have moved towards more and more abstraction (universalities),
- B) distinction between competence and performance is very basic in generative theories,
- C) generativists treat language as asocial,
- D) for variationist sociolinguists, language flows in social context and is subject to variation and change interpersonally and intrapersonally, and speech participants are considered social actors.

#### PROBLEMS WITH LABOVIAN APPROACH

Labov's adoption of descriptive structural method focused on contrasts in comparing instances of variation. However, there was the problem of mismatches between judgment and independent observations. Moreover, in many cases grammatical rejections emanated from pragmatic considerations. Also, as Labov was under the influence of methods in traditional dialectology which focused on geographical accounts of linguistic differences, there was lack of attention to the social group where the informant came from and the way he might have been influenced by special exposures to language. In addition, for many cases, there was lack of representativeness which was a negative point for the validity of the whole.

Labov (1972) mentioned linguistic variation as "orderly heterogeneity" denoting that alternating variants occur in regular patterns, not in a random distribution. These patterns exhibit two facts, the social regularities and the linguistic regularities. As far as social regularities is concerned, higher status speakers use more of the socially valued variants. For the fact of linguistic regularities, certain linguistic contexts favor the occurrence of particular variants such as phonological reduction process.

However, the concept of variable rules proposed by Labov was debated from the very outset. By some scholars (e.g. Bickerton, 1971) on the ground that they considered variable rules as being unnecessary since mental grammars with different rules or different constraints on the same rules could produce the same results. Others argued that variable rules would require a "variable rule speech community" where the same variable rules would be in the minds of each speaker (Fasold, 1990). The casting of an aggregated set of "variable rules" for the speech community would appear to be unavoidable as they allow no individual grammars which are not informed from the community grammar (Sankoff, 1980).

#### CRITICISM FROM CRITICAL APPROACHES TO VARIATIONISM

The scope of variation today is not limited to formal aspect of language and can even extend to the scope of discourse. Coupland (2007) alludes to a number of serious criticisms to variationist sociolinguistics and especially the pure variation-oriented approach from the discourse and critical perspective. Among these critical standpoints, Sankoff's (1988) position is historically the first documented argument from a critical doctrine casted on variationism, stating that language variables are alternative options within the same grammar system which have the same referential value meaning in running discourse. Therefore, nuances of variations in a language form which may even lead to nuances of meaning would lead researchers to categorize a special variation as belonging to the same structure. In other words, little variation in meaning resulting from variation in form does not prevent linguists from recognizing the variation as being categorized under the same structure.

However, from the 1990s onwards, the critical approach to variationism receives more official disciplinary treatment by the emergence of critical discourse analysis and critical applied linguistics requesting for more ideologically-grounded approaches to the study of linguistic variation. For instance, Trudgill (1974) proposes that it is not so much linguistic, but political and cultural factors which determine whether a variety should be categorized as part of this or that language. He applies the notions *heteronomous* and *autonomous* in order to describe the relative dependency of non-standard varieties on a given standard variety. The sum of an autonomous variety (the standardized one) and a series of heteronomous varieties (non-standard varieties dependent on the standard) together constitute a language. As Trudgill argues, the nonstandard dialects of Germany, Austria and German-speaking Switzerland are heteronomous with respect to standard German because speakers of these dialects look to German as their standard language; they read, write and listen to German in their everyday use of language. Speakers of dialects on the Dutch side of the border, in the same way, will read and write in Dutch, and standardizing changes in their dialects will take place in the direction of standard Dutch, not standard German.

Elsewhere, by addressing the conventional sociolinguistic concepts such as “speech repertoire”, Ronald Wardhaugh (2002) stated that we can talk about a speech repertoire when an individual controls a number of varieties of a language or of two or more varieties. So the concept of speech repertoire confirms Labov’s principle that ‘there are no single-style speakers’ (Labov, 1972) and throws the definition of an idiolect (a single person’s distinctive way of speaking) into confusion.

Pierre Bourdieu’s sociological research on linguistics has also been influential in his critical account on sociolinguistic variation. According to Bourdieu (1984) the symbolic and cultural value of language varieties are the significant aspects of the social use of language. For instance, prestigious varieties of English have cultural capital which often translates into real, material advantages for speakers. Bourdieu also tries to theorize style directly noting that any form of cultural practice is a system of social distinctiveness that is ideologically structured through socialization (Bourdieu, 1991). Although Bourdieu criticizes the purely form-based variationist linguistics, he stresses and acknowledges variationists’ traditional claim that language variation is socially structured in communities.

Also, in spite of the fact that Bourdieu regularly cites Labov, Labovian theory and agenda is hardly politically-laden. However, it has become increasingly obvious that the sociolinguistic structures that matter for speakers in their social lives are not simply the describable statistical patterns of speech co-varying with class and situation. They are the ideological structures that imbue language variation with social meaning, and often with social disadvantage.

Elsewhere, Lesley Milroy defines language ideologies as ‘thoroughly naturalized sets of beliefs about language intersubjectively held by members of speech communities’ (Milroy 2004).

In another strand of critical analysis of language use, Norman Fairclough (1995) challenges the idea of contextual ‘appropriateness’ in language use. He argues that the orderliness of language variation perhaps carries the implication that speakers know which ways of speaking are ‘appropriate’ to which social contexts, such as how to speak in formal settings. According to him, appropriateness models in sociolinguistics should therefore be seen as ideologies projecting imaginary representations of sociolinguistic reality which correspond to the perspective and partisan interests of one section of society.

Elsewhere, David Lee (1992) asks whether the differences between linguistic dialect varieties – specifically between standard and non-standard varieties – are simply a matter of superficial formal contrasts, or whether there are more important differences having to do with the kinds of meanings expressible in different varieties’.

These political points make it necessary to revisit a taken-for-granted assumption in variationist sociolinguistics – the idea that sociolinguistic variants are semantically equivalent, or different ways of saying the same thing. Another criticism is based on that ground that variations viewpoint does not match social actors’ own perceptions of meaningful speech differences. But even if we set that issue aside, there are still reasons to doubt the validity of the device of inferring social meaning from speech-form distribution.

### OPTIMALITY THEORY

Criticisms against variationist position in linguistics and its shortcomings to deal with a number of significant facts in language motivated the emergence of a new trend in the study of language variation known as Optimality Theory. To provide a background to the necessity for this theory, it should be noted that variationist position was attacked from the camp of pure linguistics from two fronts. On one hand, Kay (1975) objected to the uniform constraints assumption, noting that numerous studies had, in fact, found that the linguistic constraints on a variable rule were not similarly ordered for all of the demographic groups within a speech community, so a single variable rule could not describe the speech community as a whole. Romaine (1982) raised a similar objection to the uniform constraints assumption. She pointed out that within larger speech communities, there exist separate social networks whose speech patterns may differ.

On the other hand, Milroy (2004) stated that speech in British cities is more varied than speech in American cities. He characterized the regular variation observed by American sociolinguists as the “tip of the iceberg” and said that British sociolinguists, looking beneath the waterline in cities like Glasgow, Edinburgh, and Belfast, have observed a lot more irregularity. A different kind of objection to variable rules was raised by Derek Bickerton (1971), the eminent creolist. He claimed that linguistic variations were unlearnable: If we accept the variable-rule principle, we must also accept that the mind possesses not only the apparatus necessary for framing two quite different types of rules (standard grammatical rules and variable rules), but also some kind of recognition device to tell the speaker whether to interpret a particular set of data as rule-plus-exceptions or as area-of-variability.

Elsewhere in the applied linguistics enquiry, Gregg, a second language acquisition (SLA) scholar from the generative camp, and Rod Ellis (1990) and Elaine Tarone (1990), SLA scholars from the variationist camp pronounced criticism against Labov. Gregg reiterates that variation theory does not include a theory of acquisition; that is, that variation theory has no explanation for how speakers can learn the probabilities embedded in variable rules.

Yet, another strand of criticism from the pure linguistic point of view was exerted to Labov’s variationist linguistics on the ground that, contrary to what is claimed by Labov and his disciples, the model lacks to account for the generative aspect of linguistic systems. Kay and McDaniel (1979) & Gregg (1990) stated that generative grammar had two major goals: (1) to construct an algorithm for generating all and only the grammatical sentences of a language, and (2) to discover principles of Universal Grammar that explained how speakers can learn the grammar described by (1). Generative linguists believed that both of these goals could be accomplished by a competence grammar, and a

competence grammar did not address questions of how often or under what linguistic and social circumstances a particular rule would be used, as we have seen. Generative research involved the study of *types* of structures (what are the possibilities for pronouncing the *-ing* morpheme?). Variation research involved the tabulation of *tokens* of a structure. This question was considered to be a matter of performance. Labov was committing a category error by introducing probabilistic description into a generative grammar. What caused the most controversy between variationist theory and generative linguistics was that probabilistic grammars had a different logical status from categorical grammars, and variable rules were rules of production.

Optimality theory and variationist position in linguistics, though highly related to each other in the main objective they follow which is to deal with language variation, can be considered two poles with respect to their approach in studying linguistic variation as a natural phenomenon in language. We should not forget that for variationists, competing outputs and constraint ranking show great promise for handling not only cross-linguistic variation, but also language-internal variation. As one of the goals of sociolinguistics is to understand the correlation between social factors and linguistic variation and ordering of linguistic constraints with respect to variability of rules, linguists and sociolinguists who were aware of the reality of linguistic variability and mostly belonged to the non-categorical camp of linguistic studies began to devise a system of language description which provided systematic description of linguistic variations which could also be compatible with universal rules of language. This was an effort to put variability into a systematic frame so that the field of sociolinguistics was not blamed anymore for lack of systematicity and haphazardness. By definition, optimality theory is a framework that evaluates the interaction between violable constraints in a language (Blutner & Zeevat, 2004). Initially developed by Prince and Smolensky (1993) as a new phonological framework, Optimality Theory is a framework for the development of grammars that generate variable outputs. This theory was extended beyond the realm of phonology to areas of morphology, syntax and even pragmatics. As opposed to variationist linguistics, optimality theory aims at exploring relatively stable characteristics of variation common to all of world languages. The aim for doing so is to minimize the level of variation which is usually observed between competence and performance (Blutner & Zeevat, 2004).

Optimality theory is viewed as particularly well-suited for developing linguistic analyses that account for both categorical and variable outputs. It seeks for establishment in the rules and patterns operating within languages with the assumption that the more we study the established characteristics of a language, the more we can get close to the neuro-psychological basis of the languages in general. Therefore, one may conclude that optimality theory is a way of interpreting constraints even through adopting a typological approach (Blutner & Zeevat, 2004). In generative approaches to linguistics, constraints are interpreted in a binary all-or-nothing fashion. However, according to Prince and Smolensky (1993), in optimality theory, constraints are ranked with respect to each other, such that lower-ranking constraints may be violated in order for higher-ranking ones to be respected. In fact, it is a core concept in optimality theory that it rejects the inviolability of constraints which is a characteristic of Universal Grammar and to consider a set of violable constraints. It is at this point that optimality theory, though being considered a sister theory to Universal Grammar and Linguistic typological approaches, departs from those perspectives to provide a new system of explanation which presents new possibilities on marrying variationist and categorical features of language.

A more clear account of optimality theory and its comparison with Universal Grammar is given by Tesar and Smolensky (2000), where they reiterate that Universal Grammar is assumed to be determined by a generative part *Gen* and a system of violable constraints *Con* (UG\_*Gen\_Con*). The language-specific part of Grammar relates to a particular ranking of the constraints in *Con* which is the only learnable part of the grammar. The implication for learning the language is that inferring the ranking of the constraints in *Con* is what should be mostly mastered by a language learner.

Elsewhere, Giregory R. Guy (2007) addresses optimality theory as a constraint-based approach in which general universal principles are summarized in a ranked list of constraints each of which will prevail unless in a given case, it would cause a violation of a higher-ranked constraint. According to optimality theory, the alternatives of a single grammar form are evaluated based upon the type and the severity of constraint violation which that special form incurs. It is at this point that the possibility of a dialogue between optimality theory and variationist linguistics can be reviewed. The extreme version of optimality theory asserts that there is only one optimal candidate for any set of circumstance-conditioned options, with a special form resulting from the optimal choice of language according to the hierarchy of constraints. This reading of optimality theory is highly categorical and reflects a typological view of language and grammar. As a matter of fact, such an understanding of optimality theory cannot explain the real sociolinguistic variations that happen in everyday language use. Although there are categorical rules and constraints in the formal grammar of any languages, this does not mean that the sentences and words both in their sequence of occurrence and in their phonological manifestation do not deviate from their defined categories and constraint-ranking when they occur in the social context by the language users. The crucial fact about sociolinguistic phenomena is that in contrast to pure language phenomena which are mostly conceptually-driven and fledge out of a general model of language, the sociolinguistic phenomena are highly data-driven, realistic and subject to variation as a function of social variation. Human-being is not a machine to be planned by language rules and to be expected to copy sentences limited to the same rules and disciplined by the categorical constraints defined for these rules. Although the same degree of computational planning is now believed to be at work with language acquisition, the system will certainly be subject to live variations in different social contexts and for different sociolinguistic groups in human communities.

However, the more moderate version of optimality theory can be more compatible with variationist theory. One option for doing so is the proposition of variable or partial constraint ranking by Anttila and Fong (2000) and also Boersma and Hayes (2001). Their model is a competition model which relies on the different selections made by different rankings to predict the frequencies of occurrence of competing forms. According to this approach, the actual frequency of occurrence of phonological variables in differing contexts is the criteria for constraints to be considered valid and at priority in a language. Such an understanding of the concept of constraints and language optimality brings factors such as frequency of occurrence and actual situation into account. In fact, this understanding of optimality theory is compatible with the natural use of language in its sociolinguistic context.

As the most valid device to understand and formalize variability is to observe the types of variation, their frequency of occurrence and the language context in which they occur. It is exactly at this point that optimality theory and variationist linguistics meet each other since their philosophy of enquiry reaches the maximum shared ground. However, what yet remains for more scrutiny is to find formulations for variation in language. In fact, one problem with variationist linguistics is that many discussions in the field remain at the level of simple description of the variationist phenomena without any contribution to general formulations. At this point, a moderate and well-adapted version of optimality theory can come into play to more soundly institutionalize variations as a sociolinguistic phenomenon. In other words, the field of sociolinguistics can utilize theorizations of optimality theory to provide well-established universal generalizations which are necessary for every field of enquiry.

Using the descriptive mechanism of optimality theory, sociolinguists can raise the validity of the conclusions they make about a construct as versatile and as complex as sociolinguistic variation of constrained-based approaches: general, universal principles accounts for phonological generalizations. In Optimality theory (originally deterministic and categorical), these principles are summarized in a list of constraints. The point of focus in optimality theory can be recognized as how linguistic variation is minutely conditioned by linguistic structure and how it is, in many instances, intrinsically connected to various aspects of social structure.

Although optimality theory seems to be very promising to provide a more systematic account of variational phenomena in language, there is criticism against it from many linguists who argue that this framework does not, in the normal case, generate variable outputs. This position is illustrated by the following quote from Tesar (1995:3): "The idea is that by examining the marks assigned by the universal constraints to all the candidate outputs for a given input, there is one which is least marked, or optimal: this is the one and only well-formed description that may be assigned to the input by the grammar."

#### CONCLUSION: PROSPECTS FOR A MORE REALISTIC VIEW ON VARIATIONISM AND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Without trying to negate any facts found via research and theoretical enquiry in variation and optimality, it is necessary to have a more realistic look at how language users use language in real context and what really is the function of variation in language. I prefer to think of language as an apparatus of availability and requirement. When an individual wants to start speaking, there is a variety of factors which may be at work for language production to happen. In other words, there is at least some motive, whether internal or external, for any language production to happen. The motivating bank and the feature of the credit through which language production should happen is subconsciously very decisive on the choice of form. So, in mathematical terms, the speaker chooses alternative X or X' from a domain of alternatives which can vary from the topic, addressee, register, geography age of addressee or age of speaker and so forth.

However, the job is not over at this point, but the speaker takes the motive of talk to his/her apparatus system. This apparatus is in fact what the speaker finds available to himself from knowledge of how to use language (communicative competence).

We can use the mathematical metaphor to better understand the issue. If we consider the relation:

$F(x) = y$  the terminal form "y" is in fact the form of language which is actually produced and heard or read in its physical shape.

As we are dealing with human beings which are under the influence of affective factors and also under emotional impact from both inside and outside (e.g. a tendency to copy a person to whom a speaker feels kinship or in whom he has detected some prestige, we cannot expect the equation  $F(x) = y$  to be always true as a mathematical function (as the definition of function in mathematics calls for:

If  $F(x) = y$  and  $F(x) = y'$ , hence  $y = y'$

In other words, we may have  $F(x) = y$  and  $F(x) = y'$  in different situations even by a single individual in a similar context, which will be in sharp contradiction with mathematical functions. Therefore, any consideration of language as working like mathematical processes is a myth. Although some basic algorithms in language follow some categorical patterns at a very general level, it is by no means to consider that the same thing should be true for the whole corpus of language. Therefore, instead of optimality theory which is trying to provide a systematic account of language variation, we need to develop a more realistic model of language use which takes into consideration both psychological and social influences of human mind on the outcome of language.

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#### ABSTRACT

This study explores the effect of Focus on Form (FonF) method of instruction on Iranian learners. It particularly focuses on teaching simple past tense (PT) and definite and indefinite articles (ARTs) as the linguistic targets to Iranian EFL learners. Studies on the effect of FonF instruction in L2 were extensively conducted and the results have shown positive empirical evidence for FonF instruction (N. Ellis, 1995; Spada, 1997; Norris and Ortega, 2000; and R. Ellis, 2002). To this end, 56 female EFL learners whose age ranged from 18 to 24 participated in this project and formed the experimental and control groups. The experimental group received the FonF instruction as the treatment. The tests used in this study were a diagnostic test, a pretest, a posttest, and an open-ended questionnaire. The data were subject to ANOVAs and the results indicated that the experimental group did significantly differently from the control group in the posttest. The conclusion drawn is that this approach was positively effective to teach English simple past tense and definite and indefinite articles to the learners of English as a foreign language.

**KEYWORDS:** Focus on Form instruction, Simple past tense, Definite and indefinite articles

#### INTRODUCTION

Second language acquisition (SLA) may take place in natural environments, in educational settings, or in mixed contexts (R. Ellis, 2008; Pica, 1983). Some learners may simply be exposed to a target language environment and learn the language; some may acquire a target language through instruction in a classroom, and some may acquire a second language in both natural and educational settings. However, for a majority, instructed second language learning in the classroom plays a crucial role in SLA both in the learner's native environment and in a target language context (R. Ellis, 2005). Historically, for a successful second language acquisition, language practitioners and researchers have been seeking effective instructional methodology (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) for fruitful outcomes.

Brown (2007) sketched the development of language pedagogy in the past several decades from the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the Series Method, the Direct Method, Cognitive Code Learning, the "designer" methods, to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Some methods emphasized formal language aspects (e.g., GTM); others forbade the formal instruction of language forms (e.g., the Natural Approach); and still others stressed meaning negotiation for communication (e.g., CLT). Under the umbrella of CLT, some proponents insisted on paying no attention to linguistic forms, whereas others advocated embedding form-focused instruction into communicative language teaching. From about twenty years ago, the focus of the majority of language teaching has shifted to form-focused instruction and only a few SLA researchers insisted on no focus on form. Thus, the importance of focus on form embedded in communication in L2 teaching appears to be currently agreed upon (Brown, 2007). SLA researchers, such as Long (1991) and Doughty and Williams (1998) have proposed Focus on Form in L2 instruction. They claimed that based on meaning or communication, students' attention needs to be occasionally shifted to linguistic features when communication difficulties such as problems with comprehension and production are encountered due to non-target-like language used. In response to the proposed FonF approach, studies on the effects of FonF instruction in L2 were extensively conducted and indicated mixed results.

The results have shown positive empirical evidence for FonF instruction, as those reviewed in N. Ellis (1995), R. Ellis (2002), Norris and Ortega (2000), and Spada (1997). On the other hand, some research on the effects of Focus on Form has revealed no positive effects (Stein, 1998), and the arguments as to the effect of focus on form have been existent (R. Ellis, 2005; R. Sheen, 2005, 2007). In addition, FonF instruction has been criticized by Sheen (2005, 2007), who claimed that there was no sufficient empirical evidence to support the effectiveness of this approach. However, R. Ellis (2008) has pointed out that "He is clearly wrong" (p. 833). Thus, it appears that there is a gap among the various pedagogical perspectives in the SLA field that needs more empirical evidence to bridge.

In addition to the issues in ESL settings, EFL contexts have also faced pedagogical problems. English teaching in compulsory education in Iran, for example, has not satisfactorily met the demands of higher level English proficiency. Being an EFL context, Iran is a globalization-oriented country, where international communication has been in high demand for both academic and non-academic purposes. Owing to the previously and currently non-FonF approaches that have been little fruitful in the Iranian context, it appears that there is a need to seek alternative teaching approaches to improve the English education in Iran. To this end, FonF, as a current "hot topic" in the instructed SLA field (H. D. Brown, 2010), is taken into consideration when exploring a more effective alternative to teach simple past tense as well as definite and indefinite articles in the Iranian EFL context.

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Concerning what appeared above, the following research questions are formed?

- 1) Is Focus on Form instruction a more effective approach in terms of accurate production of the simple past tense than the non-FonF method being used in Iranian EFL context?
- 2) Is Focus on Form instruction a more effective approach in terms of accurate production of the definite and indefinite English articles than is the non-FonF method being used in Iranian EFL context?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

The participants of this study were 70 female students learning English at elementary level in Safir English Language Institute in Esfahan, Iran. The learners' age ranged from 18 to 24. Some of them had graduated from different universities in Iran at BA level, some of them had completed 12 years of schooling, and some were following their education at high school. Furthermore, all participants were Iranian and their mother tongue was Persian.

### *Instruments*

The instruments used for collecting the quantitative and qualitative data consisted of a diagnostic test, a pretest, a posttest, and a questionnaire.

#### *The Diagnostic Test*

The diagnostic test consisting of 35 questions was compiled by the institute itself for placement purposes. The test which was a mixture of multiple choice sentence completion, cloze test, and reading comprehension multiple choice questions was compiled by the institute itself for placement purposes. Hence, its reliability had already been verified by the institute's test developers. It was administered at the very beginning of the data collection procedure to verify whether the general English proficiency level of the two groups was comparable from the outset of the study. Ideally, the comparison of the proficiency level between the two groups should be similar statistically so that the effects of the treatment in the experimental group and no treatment in the control group can be compared.

#### *The Pretest*

It was used to ensure participants' readiness for the two target structures, PT and ARTs. They showed their readiness by reaching approximately 50 % accuracy of the TOTAL scores (average of the Grammar Judgment Test (GJT) and Free Writing (FW)) for each of the two linguistic targets in the two measures, GJT and FW. The two measures are described as follow.

*The Grammaticality Judgment Test:* The test was composed of 60 items in sentence level. Of the 60 items, 20 focused on the PT (10 grammatically correct and 10 ungrammatical), another 20 on the ARTs (10 grammatically correct and 10 ungrammatical), and the other 20 other than the two targets as distracters (10 grammatically correct and 10 ungrammatical). To compile this test, the book "Grammar Practice in Context" was used. The reliability of the items was already verified by the authors.

*The Free Writing:* In order to create a context for the participants to produce the target structures, the FW was prompted using:

*About a year (#years) ago, I took the Entrance Examination...*

This prompt was used based on the fact that almost every learner has to take the high school entrance exam in order to select the high school that s/he is interested in, and the university entrance exam to be admitted to a college or university s/he desires. The participants were advised to write as much as they could in the time limit, but they were not allowed to consult any dictionaries or their classmates. The FW production was to elicit the participants' use of the PT and the ARTs, along with the GJT, as an indicator of the participants' readiness for the target structures, and also as the pretest baseline data to compare with those from the posttest.

#### *The Posttest*

Similar to the pretest, the posttest also consisted of two measures, a different GJT and FW. The contents of the GJT, based on the instructional materials taught during the instructional treatments, differed from the pretest; but they were similar in terms of the level of complexity and proficiency. In a similar vein, the topic of the FW sample on the posttest was also based on the instructional contents, but it differed from the pretest, too.

*The Grammaticality Judgment Test:* A second GJT, similar to the pretest in format but different in content and also consisted of 60 sentence items, was used. Of the 60 items, 20 focused on the PT (10 grammatically correct and 10 ungrammatical), 20 on the ARTs (10 grammatically correct and 10 ungrammatical), and 20 other than the two targets as distracters (10 grammatically correct and 10 ungrammatical). It was administered to collect data for comparison with those of the pretest to examine whether there was any significant difference in gains within the groups and between groups after the instructional treatments.

Similar to the pretest, the book "Grammar Practice in Context" was employed to compile this test. The reliability of the items was already verified by the authors.

*The Free Writing:* After the GJT described above, the participants composed another FW

Titled *My Last Visit to the Zoo*, which was related to the teaching materials used, *A Postcard from Rio* and *Two Fables* by Aesop. It was assumed that all participants had been to a zoo and therefore held the appropriate schema to be able to write on this topic. Further, in the instruction of the writing test, the learners were directed to pretend they had been to the zoo if there was anyone who had not. To establish a context for the participants to produce the targets, the FW posttest is prompted:

*In my last visit to the zoo, I...*

The participants were again advised to write as much as possible, but they could not use any dictionaries or discuss any questions with their classmates during this activity. The FW production and the GJT on the posttest were intended to elicit the linguistic targets to evaluate and compare the effects of the treatments within group and between groups.

#### *The Questionnaire*

A questionnaire consisting of a series of 8 open-ended questions was also used to evaluate the participants' experience of instruction. The questions were prepared by the researchers considering the type of instruction which the experimental group received during the treatment. They were based on the types of activities, typographic input enhancement, pair/group work, as well as peer/teacher feedback. The reliability of the questions included in the questionnaire was not verified. As it was based on the treatment, it was not conceivable to run a pilot study and thus verify the reliability.

**Procedures**

*Participants Selection Procedures*

In selecting the sample, the researchers employed two intact classes as the control and experimental groups. Although the 70 participants selected for this study were studying English at the same level determined by the institute, the level of their language proficiency was determined by the diagnostic test which consisted of 35 questions and was compiled by the institute itself for placement purposes. The test was a mixture of multiple choice sentence completion, cloze test, and reading comprehension multiple choice questions. The students took the test, then, based on the normal probability curve, those students who were placed between one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as the main participants. It is worth pointing out that some of the participants were dropped from the study due to their absence in some treatment sessions, resulting in 56 participants. 30 participants formed the experimental group and the rest 26 formed the control group of this study.

*Data Collection Procedures*

Quantitative data were gathered by the pretest, and posttest, using grammaticality judgment test (GJT) and free writing production (FW). Also, some open-ended questions concerning the participants' experience of the instruction (treatment) were collected for qualitative analyses.

In order to collect the data required for the fulfillment of the objectives, a lengthy procedure was taken. At the beginning, the participating teacher was informed about the study and the types of focus on form instruction to be used in her related classes. At the very beginning of the experiment, a diagnostic test was first administered to verify whether the two groups of the participants were comparable in terms of treatment of the two respective groups or not. Finally, the results of those participants placed between +1SD and -1SD were considered for data analysis.

The participants, then, took a pretest consisting of GJT and FW to measure their knowledge of the two targets, PT and ARTs. The pretest was utilized to verify their developmental readiness for the treatment of the two linguistic targets, and also as the baseline data to compare those of the posttest. The PT was operationalized as simple rules and the ART, complex rules in terms of form and/or function. The two grammar points were instructed for eight hours; each for four hours, respectively. For the treatment, the two groups were taught by the same instructor who was familiar with both the non-FonF teaching methods the institute was currently using (e.g., GTM, CLT) and the Focus on Form approach. The control group received non-FonF treatment, whereas the experimental group was instructed with the FonF procedures and techniques such as dictogloss, input enhancement, input flood, contextualized activities, pair/group work for interaction and output activities, peer/teacher corrective feedback, and implicit and explicit teaching of the two linguistic targets.

Finally, after the treatment, both groups took the posttest on the GJT and FW regarding the linguistic targets taught. They also answered the open-ended questions about the instruction experience.

*Data Analysis Procedures*

Data collected from the GJT and FW on the pretest and posttest were compared using SPSS 15.0 to carry out ANOVAs, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests, and Gain Scores. Both the GJT and FW results were scored. The results were analyzed to examine whether there were gains that were significantly different at a  $< .05$  level (confidence interval 95%) between tests within groups and between groups after eight-hour instruction for the effects of the FonF approach; furthermore, the data were subject to the ANOVAs and One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Two distinct linguistic features, past tense (PT) and definite and indefinite articles (ART), were examined in order to investigate the effects of FonF instruction on two types of rules, simple vs. complex rules. Each linguistic feature was measured by means of Grammatical Judgment Test (GJT). For comparisons of the PT scores on the GJT between the control and the experimental groups at the two test time points (the pretest, and the posttest), one-way ANOVA were carried out using SPSS 15.0 to compare the scores and triangulate the results for the GJT on the two tests.

In order to see whether we are able to use ANOVAs, first we should check whether the data have been normally distributed or not. If the level of significance is more than 0.05, it indicates the normality of data distribution.

*Table 1: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for experimental and control groups*

		Pretestcontrol	Pretestexperimental
N		26	30
Normal Parameters(a,b)	Mean	17.88	17.80
	Std. Deviation	3.374	3.643
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.096	.096
	Positive	.096	.091
	Negative	-.096	-.096
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.491	.524
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.969	.946

As it is clear from Table 1, the result of the normality test shows that p values of the two groups (.969, and .946) are more than the significance level (0.05). Therefore, we can accept the assumption of normality and we can use parametric test such as ANOVA for comparing the results of the pretest and posttest in the control and experimental groups. In order to answer the first research question, first the gain scores from pretest to posttest in PT experimental group and control group were

computed and then ANOVA was used to see whether there was any significant difference among the two groups in pretest and posttest stage. The following tables show the results:

Table 2. Mean pre- and posttest of past tense scores for experimental and control groups

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
Control	26	1.42	1.922	.377	-5	4
Experimental	30	3.67	1.749	.319	0	7
Total	56	2.63	2.137	.286	-5	7

The results of data analysis (ANOVA) in Table 3 below indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the results of PT pretest and posttest because the obtained F value of 20.916 was found to be significant at .001 level (P=.000). In fact, the learners had a better performance in learning the past tense when they were taught through Focus-on-form instruction than when they were taught by non-FonF method.

Table 3: ANOVA analysis for mean pretest scores of past tense scores for experimental and control groups

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	70.112	1	70.112	20.916	.000
Within Groups	181.013	54	3.352		
Total	251.125	55			

Figure 1 below indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in the results of PT pretest and posttest.

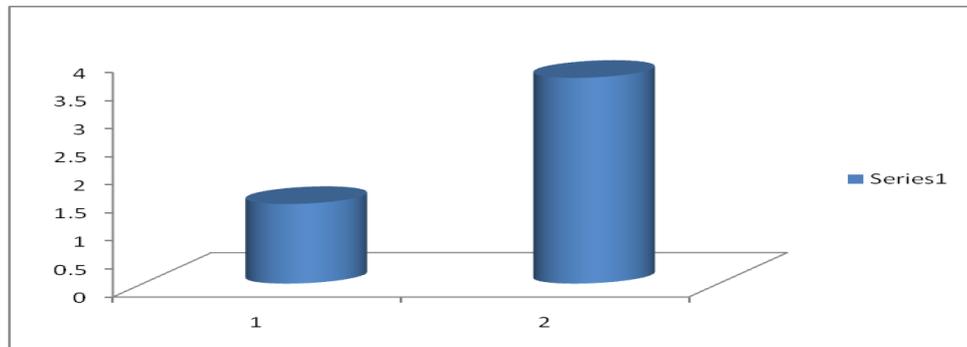


Figure 1: Pre- and posttest of Past Tense (PT) scores for experimental and control groups

Regarding the effects of FonF instruction on the acquisition of the PT, there are three aspects of the results to be discussed. First, in comparison of the test results of the control and the FonF group, there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups on the GJT. These results are incongruent with those of Stein's (1998) study, in which no significant difference was found between groups with or without FonF treatments, although the factors that may have contributed to the results of the two studies vary. Overall, these results demonstrate an advantage of the FonF group over the control group. In other words, the benefits of FonF instruction on the acquisition of the PT became evident as time passed. Thus, FonF instruction appears more effective than non-FonF instruction in terms of the acquisition of the PT. The treatment effects of this target structure in the current study are contrary to Mackey (2006) and Takashima and Ellis (1999), in which they found little treatment effect of the past tense. In contrast, these results lend support to other studies (R. Ellis, 2006), in which their results showed also positive effects. In a similar vein, the findings support another study (S.-Y. Chen, 2007) that was conducted in the same context as the current study, also indicating the positive effects of FonF instruction.

Finally, the positive effect of FonF instruction on the PT in the current study may be partly due to the simplicity of the target structure. It may also be, as Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2009) have pointed out, that the target structure is a structure that the participants have begun to acquire, and thus helps to result in positive treatment effects. This assumption may be theoretically grounded in Pienemann's (1989) Teachability/Learnability Hypothesis and Wilson's (2011) Learnability Principle. In their study of the effects of FonF, Wilson (2007) also found similar results that learner's developmental readiness for a form facilitated the acquisition of the linguistic structure (participial adjectives in their study), which demonstrated the effects of FonF instruction.

In order to answer the second research question, first the gain scores from pretest to posttest in ARTs experimental group and control group were computed and then ANOVA was used to see whether there was any significant difference between the two groups in pretest and posttest stage. The following tables show the results:

Table 4: Mean pre- and posttest of definite and indefinite articles scores for experimental and control groups

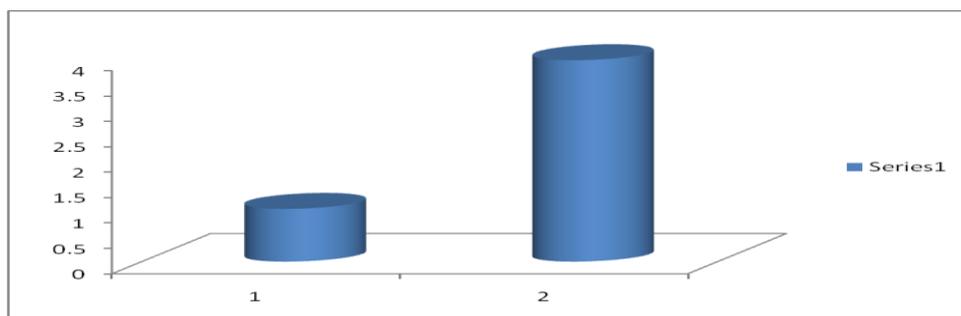
Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
Control	26	1.04	1.732	.340	-3	4
Experimental	30	3.97	1.671	.305	0	7
Total	56	2.61	2.238	.299	-3	7

The results of data analysis (ANOVA) in Table 5 below shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the learners' performance in experimental ART group and control group in the results of pretest and posttest because the obtained F value of 41.360 was found to be significant at .001 level ( $P=.000$ ). In fact, regarding the instruction of definite and indefinite article, the participants in the experimental group had a better performance when they were taught through Focus on Form instruction than those in control group when non-FonF method of instruction was used for teaching definite and indefinite article.

*Table 5: ANOVA analysis for mean pretest scores of definite and indefinite articles scores for experimental and control groups*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
<b>Between Groups</b>	119.429	1	119.429	41.360	.000
<b>Within Groups</b>	155.928	54	2.888		
<b>Total</b>	275.357	55			

Figure 2 below shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the learners' performance in experimental ART group and control group in the results of pretest and posttest.



*Figure 2: Mean pre- and posttest of definite and indefinite articles scores for experimental and control groups*

Concerning the effects of FonF instruction on the acquisition of the ART, Prior to the instructional period, the control and experimental groups showed no significant difference on the GJT. However, In consideration of the gain scores for each individual group, the control group obtained no significant gains on the GJT on the posttest. By contrast, the FonF group has improved significantly on the GJT, and TOTAL scores on the posttest.

Thus, the effects of FonF instruction are evident in the immediate improvements in the acquisition of the ARTs and the instructional effects were sustained over time. These results are in part contrary to Pica's results (1983), which revealed no instructional effects on the acquisition of the indefinite article. Nevertheless, this study is generally consistent with previous studies, such as Bitchener (2008), which has shown both immediate and delayed effects on the acquisition of the ART.

Unlike the results of the PT in the current study, the results of the acquisition of the ART indicate immediate effects. This may suggest that the instructional period was not long enough for the participants' practicing and internalizing this target because articles are complex and multi-functional in use, and thus a longer treatment time may be needed for acquisition of the ART to be fully complete. That is, a sufficient instruction time appears needed for the learners to proceduralize the declarative knowledge of the target, and then, with repeated production, to lead to automaticity, according to the Comprehensive Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995) and the Output Principle (Wilson, 2008).

In sum, FonF instruction in the current study, compared to non-FonF instruction, points to effectiveness with positive effects on the acquisition of the PT. As Ellis (2008) has pointed out, some instructional effects do not become evident immediately until later. This is a case in point as the results of the acquisition of the PT have indicated. Furthermore, FonF instruction has a tendency toward being more effective than non-FonF instruction, with immediate effects on the acquisition of the ART. It may be, as some scholars have pointed out, that English articles are difficult for non-native speakers to acquire due to its complexity in use and function and absence from many other languages (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Master, 2002; Wilson, 2008), including the participants' mother tongue in this study.

On the basis of all the quantitative analyses, focus-on-form instruction provides an efficient way for learners to expand their knowledge of using past tense and definite and indefinite articles. Taking into account the findings of both PT and ARTs acquisition, the overall results

show that the control and experimental groups started with almost the same pretest scores on the GJT and FW. However, the GJT and FW scores increased moderately on the posttest, an indication that non-FonF instruction had little or no impact on the acquisition of the two targets.

With respect to the qualitative data obtained from the participants by asking 8 open-ended questions, the participants' answers were quoted question by question in the following discussion. These quotations were for most part translated from the participants' mother tongue.

For the first question "Which activity in this class do you like most? Why?" thirteen participants answered, "Group work." The reasons were because we can discuss questions asked and resolve problems together, share ideas, and learn from one another in the group." Five participants answered "Fables." "It's fun", "It's interesting", "I like to read stories", were the reasons participants provided. Still seven

participants answered “None”; three did not answer or answered “No idea”; and three answered “All” or “Nothing particular”. There were various individual answers provided by only one participant, such as “Writing, because I can know what I haven’t learned about grammar during the process”; “Listening Cloze test”; and “After-test class discussion”. Most of the participants’ answers were general responses to the class activities instead of specific FonF techniques used in the study.

Questions 3 to 5 were related to typographic input enhancement such as color-code, font size, and boldface used in the reading text. Almost all the participants like these typographical enhancement devices. Regarding color-coding, participants stated that the device “gets my attention, shows the key points, is easily distinguishable,” etc. With respect to different font sizes, participants wrote that they “help to read, stand out, are distinguishable,” and so on. With regard to boldfaced targets, participants expressed that they “show importance, indicate key points, attract attention and notice, are distinguishable,” and so forth. These answers substantiate the results from the closed-ended questions.

Question 6 pertained to pair/group work. As reflected in their responses to Question 1, many participants, 34 out of 43, answered that they liked it with reasons such as “sharing ideas, exchanging opinions, discussing questions, helping one another (cooperation), spirit of team work, learning from one another, and more interaction between classmates.” On the other hand, 4 answered that they did not like it, because they had to move the tables and chairs around. There was only one participant who answered “I don’t like it. It didn’t work.”

Questions 7 and 8 were concerned with peer and teacher feedback. More than 30 participants expressed that they liked peer and/or teacher feedback. From peer feedback, they can learn “What their shortcomings are”, “What needs to be improved”, and also “to learn more”. From teacher feedback, they can learn “what mistakes to correct”, “to improve” their English, and “to learn more”.

The results of open-ended questions appear to be consistent. The results point to the fact that participants perceive pair/group work, typographic input enhancement, and peer/teacher feedback to be advantageous to contributing to student learning outcomes. These results may also contribute partly to the positive effects of FonF instruction that the quantitative data have shown in the previous sections.

Regarding the qualitative data obtained from eight open-ended questions, there are various reasons that participants express in their responses to the open-ended questions why they like the input enhancement, such as personal preferences, “I like it because it helps me to read”; attention catching, “I like it because it gets my attention”; prominence, “I like it because it shows key points”, “it stands out”, “it shows importance”, “it is distinguishable”, etc. On the other hand, the font size was rated almost the lowest. The reason this device was rated one of the lowest may be due to the fact that the target structure was already either color-coded or in bold that the font size made little prominence in the combination of typographic enhancement. Another reason may be that the size was not large enough (the enlarged size was 16, while the regular in the text is 12) to catch the participants’ attention. The participants’ opinions about the input enhancement may contribute in part to the positive results of FonF instruction, which is apparently different from White (1998), which found no significant difference between input flood with and without typographic input enhancement.

In addition to the typographic input enhancement, the participants also expressed their approval of group work, and (explicit) peer and teacher feedback. As the participants mentioned, they liked discussing the questions asked, working out problems together, sharing ideas, and learning from each other in the group. Working in groups contrasts with the typical individual work in this institution, in which classroom seating is always arranged in rows (the teacher even received a complaint email forwarded from the department chair, stating that this class left the classroom setting in group instead of restoring it to the column-by-column seating).

The participants’ positive experience with the FonF treatment (e.g., visual input enhancement and corrective feedback) may have contributed to the learning outcomes of both target structures. Also, the complexity of a structure may have affected the acquisition of the targets impacted by FonF instruction in terms of effectiveness. The structural complexity may have resulted in the varied instructional effects of the two targets, in general, with positive effects on simple structure (PT) and complex structure (ART).

Pair/group work appears one of the participants’ favorite activities in this study. It can be utilized with other FonF techniques or activities together to benefit the learners for optimal learning consequences. One example is to employ the dictogloss procedure in group. Dictogloss (VanPatten, 1990) in small group work can be used with immediate or higher level non-native language classes as utilized in this study. In carrying out this activity, participants need to pay attention not only to meaning as they are listening to language input and taking notes, then sharing notes in group during meaning negotiation, but they also must pay attention to form as they are producing and refining their version as a language output for a group production.

Furthermore, corrective feedback, as researchers have pointed out, plays a crucial part in FonF instruction that provides learners with an opportunity to notice form relative to their intended meaning during communication (Loewen & Nabei, 2007). It is also necessary to provide learners with negative evidence of the target language in order to notice the gap between received input and intended output, and be able to acquire native-like proficiency in the language process. Various types of corrective feedback (R. Ellis, 2006; Loewen & Nabei, 2007) can be used in different activities and with different groups of learners. In communication-oriented activities with intermediate or higher level learners, implicit corrective feedback such as confirmation check and recast can be incorporated into the activities to enhance both fluency and accuracy. In accuracy-oriented writing practice with higher beginners or adult learners, explicit corrective feedback, such as metalinguistic corrective feedback and explicit correction, may be utilized to improve the accurate use of their intended meaning and form.

## CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the study was to explore the effectiveness of the FonF instruction on learning simple past tense as well as definite and indefinite articles among Iranian EFL learners. From both quantitative and qualitative perspectives, and taking both the PT and the ART into account, FonF instruction appears evident in acquisition of these two targets with varied effects. The overall conclusion which is drawn is that FonF instruction is more effective than non-FonF instruction on the acquisition of the two targets in the current study showing significant positive effects on the acquisition of the PT and ART.

As suggestions for further research, other aspects of FonF instruction, such as fluency, other levels or types of learners, different treatment timing and other linguistic features may be further investigated. To measure proficiency, both accuracy and fluency need to be taken into account. When evaluating effectiveness of a second/foreign language approach, aspects of accuracy and fluency should be explored to a proficiency level at least as standardized tests claimed to measure. Thus, investigation of fluency, in addition to the accuracy examined in the current study, for other individual linguistic features might be conducted in the future for a thorough examination of the effects of FonF instruction. Also, different groups of learners with different levels of proficiency should be considered for assessing the full scope the effects

of FonF instruction. Additionally, a longer treatment period (e.g. for a whole semester or two) and various timing for FonF techniques can be taken into account for optimal instructional effects, in particular in an EFL context, because some linguistic features may need more treatment than others, and some structures may be more positively impacted by FonF instruction than others. Thus, other linguistic code features, such as other simple and/or complex rules than the target items in the current study, reception and production of other linguistic features, and explicit and implicit learning and knowledge of specific grammatical structures, can be further explored for closer scrutiny of the FonF approach and its further pedagogical implications for the TESOL Field.

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## AN EVALUATION OF TOP NOTCH SERIES

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### ABSTRACT

The role of textbooks cannot be overlooked in the triangular net of elements in language learning which includes the learner, teacher, and textbook. Thus, it goes without saying that so much attention should be paid to the way the textbooks are evaluated to fulfill both the learners' and teachers' needs. Textbook evaluation can potentially be a particularly worthwhile means of conducting research as well as a form of professional improvement. Nowadays, the Top Notch series have become one of the most frequently used series in almost all of the institutes and also most of the tutoring for English teaching and learning especially in Iran. Thus, this study aimed to evaluate the series based on Littlejohn's (1998) framework. To evaluate the series, 30 Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers were recruited from different language institutes. To collect and interpret the data, both qualitative and quantitative statistics were used. The findings indicated that the series fulfill the intended objectives and enjoy benefits for language learners through encouraging the L2 learners to communicate successfully by offering opportunities for interaction. However, one shortcoming of the series is the lack of activities or discussions for presenting new words that require EFL teachers' consideration. The results of this study have some pedagogical implications for teachers and materials developers in EFL contexts. The results of the study help L2 teachers know the detailed points of the series and detect areas of weakness and strength. Moreover, novice English teachers profit from this study because they have an idea about the nature of the textbook they want to teach.

**KEYWORDS:** *Littlejohn's (1998) framework; the Top Notch series; textbook; textbook evaluation; checklist.*

### INTRODUCTION

Millions of people attempt to learn English throughout the world and the number of speakers who learn it as first or second language and its range of uses and adaptability to general and specific tasks are increasing everyday (Long, 2005). There are many factors that affect the process of L2 learning. Among them, the role of textbooks in the process of learning is of cardinal significance. Textbooks are really crucial in today's realm of language teaching and learning because the textbooks are generally considered to be essential component of teaching and will therefore have a great impact on a teacher's methods of instruction (Long, 2005). Although there might be some disagreements over using textbooks in English teaching classes, most people dealing with language education, teaching, and learning prove the importance of textbooks in L2 classes. According to Tom (2004), advocates of textbooks argue that they are the most effective way of presenting materials, help learners achieve a sense of system, cohesion, and progress, and also help teachers to be prepared. In some contexts, teachers are untrammelled to choose their own textbooks. The vast majority of teachers, however, have textbooks suggested, prescribed, or assigned (Tomlinson, 2001). According to Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010, p. 3), "textbooks play a very crucial role in the realm of language teaching and learning and are considered the next important factor in the L2 classroom after the teacher."

Textbooks are tools in the hands of the teacher and s/he must know not only how to use it, but also how useful it can be. The wealth of published materials for English language teaching (ELT) available in the market makes selecting the right textbook a challenging task. Moreover, the selection of a particular core textbook signals an executive educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial, and even political investment (Sheldon, 1988). As Richards (2010) asserted, textbooks are key elements in most language programs. In some situations, textbooks serve the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practices that occur in the classroom. They may lay the foundations for the content of lessons, the balance of skills taught, and the kinds of language tasks students actively use. In other situations, textbooks may primarily serve to supplement the teachers' instruction. For L2 learners, textbooks may provide a major source of contact they have with the target language, excluding the input provided by the teacher. In the case of novice teachers, textbooks may also be utilized as a form of teacher training, that is, they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use (Richards, 2010).

To choose fruitful materials for a course whether by a teacher or by an administrator, evaluation is done in the realm of language teaching and learning. To this end, many different schemes and checklists have been offered by prominent scholars and evaluators. Although the number of checklists is numerous, all of these checklists have a lot of similarities. Despite some commonalities among different checklists, every well-designed checklist is certainly driven from a framework which specifies and develops checklist. In this vein, this paper will concentrate on carrying out an evaluation on the Top Notch series of ELT materials based on Littlejohn's (1998) framework. This framework seeks to evaluate the selected textbook irrespective of how it is used in the classroom. Littlejohn (1998, p. 54) mentioned it "as analyzing the materials as it is, a set of materials can be used quite differently in different contexts based on the knowledge, abilities, and preferences of different teachers." This framework, thus, was claimed to be devoid of impressionistic criteria about what is desirable in a set of materials. By analyzing the individual activities/tasks in detail and by studying important features of the book, this framework was claimed to be in-depth and objective rather than subjective.

### **Statement of the Problem**

There are too many factors that affect the process of learning a language. Based on the aforementioned facts, materials especially textbooks have always been a mind-boggling concern of L2 teachers and learners. First, they are important because it is impossible to learn a language without them. Saphier and Gower (1997) (cited in Haldeman, 2008) have stated that "many things are important for good schools: curriculum ... parent involvement ... a clean, safe building ..., but of all the things that are important ... nothing is as important as the textbook and materials" (p. 15). During the last few decades, researchers have begun to recognize that textbooks, apart from the methods and teachers, are central to improving English teaching (Freeman, 2001; Richards & Nunan, 1990 cited in Bedir, 2010). Moreover, language teachers have become aware that learning is a process, and that the role of textbooks is to facilitate this process (Bedir, 2010).

Second, since there are many different ELT textbooks on the market, there is a necessity for the evaluation of textbooks in order to recognize the advantages of one over the others which, in turn, will lead to the adoption of the textbook. This would assist teachers with making optimum use of a book's strengths and with recognizing the shortcomings of certain exercises, tasks, and entire texts. Hence, the results of this evaluation may be beneficial to English teachers and materials developers who are going to use the mentioned series in their classes and institutes and might give them insight into the course book they use and help them to consider how to exploit it.

Last but not least, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, none of the studies conducted so far has investigated the Top Notch series based on Littlejohn's (1998) framework and its impact on different aspects of L2 learning. So, there has been no empirical or theoretical evidence on it. Consequently, the central goal of the research is to investigate and to evaluate the Top Notch series to know what explicit features and pedagogic values they have. In this respect, Littlejohn's (1998) framework is applied which comprises comprehensive checklists and questionnaires. By using these checklists, the researchers will be able to examine selected textbooks in first (what is there) level and second (what is required of users) level of Littlejohn's (1998) framework to arrive at the third level of evaluation (what is implied).

#### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

There is a vast body of literature on textbook selection and evaluation in an EFL setting. These studies mainly revolve around the exploitation of textbook evaluation checklists. There is a host of evaluation checklists based on different criteria that can be employed by teachers and researchers. For example, in evaluation study of two textbook packages, namely, opportunities and New English File incorporating 134 teachers' survey results, Kayapinar (2009) pointed out that there is not an overall positive view of the aforementioned course book packages among teachers and the course books must be adapted in a way to meet learners' needs and interest at nationwide scope. He suggested that the materials used in any teaching process should be evaluated on a regular basis to be kept renewed.

In another study by Dominguez (2003), the representation of gender in examples, dialogues, and job positions in both texts and examples of the New Interchange Intro was examined. She found that there is an upsurge in ESL system of Canada to adopt the series due to its perceived uniqueness. Hence, the study aimed at establishing the appropriateness of the New Interchange Intro for diverse multination dwellers of Canadian cities. She concluded that the New Interchange Intro was a worthwhile source for the teachers as it takes into account both multicultural and multiracial settings. Also, she highlighted the soundness of the textbooks for considering learners' settlement and integration needs especially in beginner levels and offering a balance in portraying the two genders.

Applying Cunningsworth's (1984) four guidelines, Ranalli (2002), also, evaluated New Headway Upper-Intermediate instructed at the Foreign Language Institute of Yonsei University in Seoul, Korea. He found that the textbook follows a present-practice-produce (PPP) approach to learning as units of the book offer a semiauthentic context for examples and the target language patterns ending with controlled and semifree exercises. He also maintained that the methodology of the textbook is too preoccupied with the knowing of grammatical rules and developing analytic knowledge which hinders further learners' preparation for unplanned discourse and predictable achievements in language ability.

Besides, Darali (2007) studied the important features of new English textbooks such as the Spectrum series to see how cultural pragmatic knowledge of the language is included in the lessons. The results of the study showed that the series provided a variety of language functions, but the most frequent ones in daily speech were not focused as much as other functions.

Azizifar, Koosha, and Lotfi (2010) examined an evaluation of two series of ELT textbooks used for teaching English in Iranian high schools from 1965 to the present. To do so, Tucker's (1975) textbook evaluation model was employed and the findings suggested that one of the main factors for the students' achievement in English is the ELT textbooks. They suggested that in the textbooks, there should be enough opportunity for the learners to practice the language they are learning communicatively.

Additionally, Jahangard (2007) evaluated four EFL textbooks used in Iranian high schools by the Ministry of Education. He discussed their merits and demerits with reference to 13 common criteria extracted from different materials evaluation checklists. The results of the study indicated that book four had better features in comparison with the three other textbooks.

Moreover, Sahragard, Rahimi, and Zaremoayyedi (2008) evaluated Interchange (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.) according to Littlejohn's (1998) framework. The study was set to find out the values of the newest version of Interchange in particular, the correspondence between the newly developed and widely used Interchange textbooks (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.) and their stipulated objectives, and the strengths and weaknesses of the series. The findings of the study indicated that the Interchange series (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.) own several pedagogical values, nonetheless, they suffer from certain drawbacks. The tasks of the series can be considered productive with regard to promotion of communicative competence and are promoting in that they give learners the opportunity to personalize the newly learned pieces of language through production.

And in accordance with Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of learning objectives, Riazi and Mosallanejad (2010) investigated the types of learning objectives represented in Iranian senior high school and pre-university English textbooks. To codify the learning objectives, three high school textbooks and one pre-university textbook were included in the analysis, and a coding scheme was developed based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy. The results of the study indicated that in all grades the lower-order cognitive skills were more prevalent than the higher-order ones. Furthermore, the difference between the senior high school and the pre-university textbooks in terms of the level of the taxonomy were significant insofar as the pre-university textbook used some degrees of higher-order learning objectives.

#### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

With regard to the role of textbooks in all aspects of L2 learning and based on what was suggested above and in line with recent approaches to the study of this phenomenon, the present study seeks to find answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent is Top Notch series able to fulfill the objectives claimed to be set for them?
2. What features do Top Notch series have?
3. What pedagogic values do Top Notch series have?

4. What are the strengths and weaknesses

of the series examined in this study?

## METHODOLOGY

### Research Design

The purposive, convenient sampling procedure was used in this study; purposive in the sense that only English teachers were recruited, and convenient in the sense that the participants were easily accessible ones which were intended to be representative of the whole population as diverse as possible. It should be mentioned that ethical issues such as confidentiality, originality of research, and morality were observed. The participants were made assure that their personal information would be kept confidential, and only treated data without referring to their names would be published. Also, they were informed of the fact that they were selected to take part in this research, and the obtained data would be used merely for the sake of research. The participation was voluntary, that is, there was no penalty for refusing to participate, and that the subjects may withdraw at any time without penalty.

They were given a clear statement of the purpose of the researchers' study or the basic outline of what the researchers would like to explore, making it clear that this research is dynamic activity that may shift in focus as it proceeds. The procedure in the research project and the types of information that the researchers are collecting for their study were explained. Moreover, the participants were given sufficient contact information so that they could reach the researchers for answers to questions regarding the research. Besides, any foreseeable risks and discomforts as well as direct benefits involved in agreeing to cooperate were described in detail. And, a signed consent form had been obtained from each subject that sets out the terms of the researchers' agreement with the participants.

### Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 30 EFL teachers teaching at language institutes in Esfahan, Iran. Each of these teachers had the experience of teaching the textbooks under investigation. The rationale behind the selection of these participants was that they had already been familiar with the textbooks under investigation, and they had the required experience to work with them. Therefore, it was assumed that these participants were in a better position to help the researchers to carry out the study. It should also be noted that the Top Notch series has been recently introduced to Iranian EFL institutions.

### Materials

The first source of material in the present study is the Top Notch series (Ascher & Saslow, 2011), a six-level communicative English course with two beginning entry levels namely fundamentals A and fundamentals B for adults and young adults. Generally, the Top Notch series consist of 12 textbooks on the whole, written by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher in 2006 and published in the United States of America by Pearson Longman Incorporation. A sample of these books which contains about 15% of the total materials was chosen – Littlejohn (1998) argued that it is useful to analyze about 10% to 15% of the total material. This sample included some units, each of which is composed of three lessons plus one page of reading and one page of writing activities. The sample contained a number of tasks. Each task was labeled by a number that was applied in task analysis sheets (TAS). Additionally, the Checklist for explicit nature of a set of materials, TAS, and Design Questionnaire with reasonable measures of validity and reliability, were used to fulfill the research. It should be mentioned that the validity and reliability of the aforementioned questionnaires and sheets had already been examined via experts' views and Cronbach's Alpha.

### Procedure

As far as the study was theoretically based on Littlejohn's (1998) framework, about 15 percent of the Top Notch series was selected as a sample material. Since the Top Notch series are 6 textbooks, 50 tasks were randomly selected from each of the books. Hence, the total number of selected tasks was three hundred. Due to the wide range of tasks, it was impossible to expect each participant to analyze all 300 tasks alone. Therefore, the tasks were divided into three categories, each category involving 100 tasks, which was given to 30 teachers. Each participant was provided with a sample of 100 tasks and checklists to work with. Then, by the use of the three checklists offered in the framework, the sample was evaluated by the participants. As Littlejohn (1998) claimed, the framework tries to be in-depth and objective rather than subjective by analyzing the individual activities in detail and based on important features.

### Data Analysis

For the first checklist, Checklist for explicit nature of a set of materials, a report on explicit features of the Top Notch series is provided by the researchers. For the TAS checklist, after the required data were collected, the researchers applied the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyze the data. Then, frequency counts and percentage indexes were reported for individual features listed in TASs to provide a basis for interpreting the research results. For the third checklist, Design Questionnaire, an analysis was performed to find an accepted view on each of the sections mentioned in Littlejohn's (1998) framework. By the use of statistical procedure, a general percentage index was also reported for subcategories of this checklist.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Results

#### *What is the Learner Expected to Do?*

In the Top Notch series, more than half of the tasks (60.06%) demand L2 learners to respond (see Table 1). Also, 29.36% demand L2 learners to initiate and 10.56% are the tasks that do not require learners to initiate or respond. These results showed that the Top Notch series encourage L2 learners to use the language and more importantly require them to express themselves rather than being a listener. In sum, the Top Notch series care for learners' participation in the classroom activities.

Table 1: frequency and percentage for "Turn Take"

Turn take	Frequency	%
Initiate	2643	29.36
Respond	5406	60.06
Not required	951	10.56
Total	9000	100

As shown in Table 2, 55.47% of the total tasks concentrate on meaning, 28.52% on form as well as meaning, and 16.00% on language system. This can be judged that meaning is more significant than form, thus, the series enhance comprehension of learners.

*Table 2: frequency and percentage for "Focus on"*

Focus on	Frequency	%
Language system (rules/form)	1440	16.00
Meaning	4993	55.47
Meaning/system relationship	2567	28.52
Total	9000	100

Based on the data in Table 3, "apply language rule" (18.00%) is more than the other operations, "decode semantic meaning" is 17.00%, "retrieve from long term memory" is 15.00% of the total portion. Activities that demand "draw on prior knowledge" are 11.00%, "select information" is 5.00% of the whole. Activities that refer to "build text" are equal to the tasks by which learners need to "deduce language rule", that is, (10.00%). Tasks which ask students to "compare" the information are 8.00% of the whole. Finally, "relating sound to objects" and "repeat with expansion" are the two next mental operations with 4.00% and 2.00%, respectively, which are less than the others. It can be concluded that the Top Notch series provide L2 learners with activities by giving them the opportunity to infer the meaning of the texts that accompany applying language rule, recalling previous learning, and using prior linguistic knowledge. These features aid L2 learners to improve and enhance their communicative and linguistic competence as much as possible and also contribute learners to associate the new information to the old information in their mind. "Repetition" is the least among the rest that reveals L2 learners are not required to learn English through a lot of repetition.

*Table 3: frequency and percentage for "Mental Operation"*

Mental operation	Frequency	%
Retrieve from LT memory	1350	15
Built text	900	10
Draw on prior knowledge	990	11
Relate sounds to objects	360	4
Compare	720	8
Decode semantic meaning	1530	17
Select information	450	5
Repeat with expansion	180	2
Deduce language rule	900	10
Apply language rule	1680	18
Total	9000	100

*Who with?*

As can be seen in the Table 4, activities which involve interaction of "learners in pairs or groups" compose 45.83%, tasks that involve "learner to class" are 38.88%, and 15.27% demand task completion by "learner individually simultaneously". It can be concluded that group activities in the process of learning are more emphasized than individual ones.

*Table 4: frequency and percentage of "Who with"*

Who with	Frequency	%
Learner to class	3500	38.88
Learner individually simultaneously	1375	15.27
Learner in pairs/groups	4125	45.83
Total	9000	100

*Input to the Learners*

As shown in Table 5, the input may be in the form of "graphic" like pictures, illustrations, and diagrams; "oral words/phrases"; "written words/phrases"; and "sound/music". In the Top Notch series, written words/phrases have dominant source of input (40.80%). Oral words/phrases are the next main source of input which is 28.00%. Sound/music with 15.10%, and finally graphic with 16.10% covers the whole portion of input to the learners. The results clearly showed that writing is utilized as a major source of input to learners, that is, the series have concentrated on writing as an input. In contrast, oral words/phrases are fewer. The next sources of input in tasks belong to graphic which has a satisfactory amount of input.

*Table 5: frequency and percentage for "Input to Learners"*

Input to learners	Frequency	%
Graphic	1444	16.10
Oral word/phrases	2520	28.00
Written word/phrases	3672	40.80
Sound/music	1359	15.10
Total	9000	100

*Expected Output from Learners*

The expected output from learners in tasks can be either written or oral, with either the form of word or phrase length or the form of extended length. In Littlejohn's (1998) framework, discourse which is more than 50 words is considered as extended form. The frequency and percentage of the expected output from learners for oral words/phrases are 2770 and 30.77% respectively, and written word/phrases have the proportion of 31.23% with the frequency of 2810 (see Table 6). As a result, there is a balance between written and oral forms of expected output from learners in tasks of the series and the attention was paid equally to both the oral and written form.

Table 6: frequency and percentage for "Expected Output from Learners"

Expected output from learners	Frequency	%
Oral word/phrases	2770	30.77
Oral extended discourse	1791	19.90
Written word/phrases	2810	31.23
Written extended discourse	1539	17.10
Total	9000	100

Source

The Top Notch series provide a great amount of materials and contents for lessons itself (70.10%). The next sources of content are teachers with 21.00% and learners with 8.90%. The noticeable point here is that the textbook provides more shares of tasks and activities. It seems the series demand teachers to be abided by their teachers' book and other components.

Table 7: frequency and percentage for "Source"

Source	Frequency	%
Materials	6309	70.10
Teacher	1890	21.00
Learner	801	8.90
Total	9000	100%

Results of Design

The second section in Littlejohn's (1998) framework, Design, relates to the thought underlying materials. This part involves consideration of areas such as the explicit purposes of the materials and how the tasks, language, and content in the materials are selected and sequenced. The results of the study of Design can assist teachers to know to what extent materials developers have been successful in achieving their intended goals. The results depicted that the series obtained up to 80.00% of the optimum score (120 out of 150) for aims and objectives part (see Figure 1). The next part regarding the selection of the tasks in the series acquired the average of 74.75%. Regarding the sequence of tasks in the books received 77.00%. Also, the form, source, and nature of the contents in the series obtained 81.75% which seem to be rather high. Types of teaching and learning activities obtained 63.33%. The participation received 46.50%. The classroom roles of teachers and learners, and the learner roles in learning obtained 55.33% and 67.00% respectively. Finally, the role of materials as a whole received 68.66% of the total.

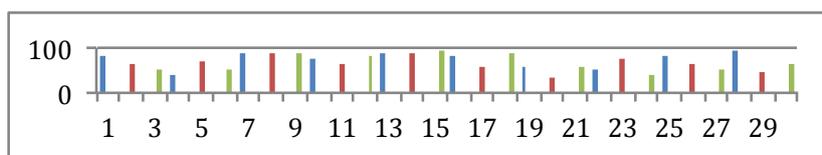


Figure 1: Design

Discussion

After analyzing the data, the results demonstrated that that regarding turn-take L2 learners are more likely to respond than to initiate. Also, the textbook encourages L2 learners to use language and requires them to express themselves rather than being a listener. This indicates that the Top Notch series care for learners' participation in the classroom activities.

Moreover, meaning is more significant than form in the Top Notch series. This can be judged that the series enhance comprehension of learners. Because one of the objectives of the book is to develop a communicative competence which is achieved by enhancing comprehension of the language, and comprehending the language needs giving attention to meaning. So, the results can be seen as one sign of success for this textbook. Regarding the mental operation, it was revealed that a variety of mental operations exist in tasks with the highest portion of 18.00% for apply language rule and the least one focusing on repeat with expansion (2.00%).

Regarding the type of interaction, it was revealed that tasks in the Top Notch series mostly require learners to act in pairs and groups (45.83%), thus, group activities in the process of learning are more emphasized than individual ones (only 15.27%). The study also showed that written words and phrases are dominant forms of input (40.80%) while sound or music is almost 16.10%. This means that that writing is utilized as a major source of input to learners. In other words, the series have more emphasis on writing as an input. In contrast, oral words/phrases are less. The next sources of input in tasks belong to graphic which has a satisfactory amount of input (16.10%).

In case of expected output from learners, it was proved that there is a balance between written and oral forms of expected output from learners in tasks and attention was paid equally to both the oral and written form (31.23% and 30.77%, respectively). In addition, it was shown that the main source for the tasks in the Top Notch series is the textbook itself (70.10%) and learners provide the least amount of materials (8.90%). The noticeable point here is the fact that the textbook provides more shares of tasks and activities.

Regarding the nature of tasks, fact is more frequent than others, about 40.00%. Personal information and personal opinion are almost equal (18.30 % and 19.40%, respectively). And, fiction has the least frequency (2.30%). This could be interpreted as a sign of variety in the text. In fact, the Top Notch series expose students to authentic contexts using their own information. The aforementioned points are all pedagogic values of the Top Notch series based on the TAS.

CONCLUSION

The authors claimed that the Top Notch series prepare students to interact successfully and confidently. According to the results of TAS and Design Evaluation, it can be concluded that the Top Notch series are almost successful in fulfilling the claimed objectives. Moreover, as Design Evaluation results showed, the evaluators believe that the course book is appropriate and successful in with regard to design.

As to answer the second question “What features the Top Notch series have?”, it should be mentioned that the Top Notch series are a corpus-informed course backed by the extensive database of the Longman Corpus Network, and it uses both the Longman Spoken Corpus and the Learners’ Corpus of Common Learner Errors. The Top Notch series are also based on use of a broader, more informal corpus of spoken and written language including authentic interviews, real conversations, and authentic texts to ensure that conversation strategies are well understood and applied. In addition, the title and topic of the units found in the Top Notch series are tangible and worldly, for instance names and occupations, directions and transportation. The context of the course book is not suitable for any English for specific purposes, but suits a general course on English. The themes and topics of the units throughout the book clearly indicate this fact. The book was also designed to raise learner “grammar awareness”. Hence, L2 learners are able to perform self-correct more readily.

The material in the course book is all core rather than supplementary. Moreover, in the Top Notch series, there is an alphabetical word list for the whole book at the end of the book, which is very convenient because of alphabetically ordered presentation. In addition, there is a section named “Vocabulary Booster” which presents additional vocabulary. It seems as though the list provided in the Top Notch series is convenient.

There are also lively, colorful, and authentic photographs and pictures in the Top Notch series. Moreover, the series were printed in glossy paper and was not culturally biased in anyway. A variety of information from different cultures and nationalities were used in the series. In the course book, there is some review sections, assessing the previous aspects worked on in the preceding sections. This type of assessment is not a test per se but it is more like a class activity. So, it can be useful for the learners to see what they have accomplished and what problems they still have.

Usually in other English course books, the material presented in different sections of a unit varies from one unit to the next, so, learners don’t have an idea of the amount of material presented under each heading before going through the unit, but in the Top Notch series as mentioned earlier, each unit is made up of 2-page lessons. On every 2-page lesson, there are conversation and vocabulary sections. So, to some extent the organization of the material is predictable. As a whole, the Top Notch series seem to be systematic, presenting the material in an easy to difficult order.

Another advantage of the series under investigation is that, as the findings of TAS evaluation revealed, they introduce tasks that mainly demand learners to participate in pairs and groups activities (45.83%). As it is known today, working in pairs and groups let learners learn from each other. Furthermore, working in groups reduces learner’s anxiety which is one major problem when an individual learner is responsible for doing the task and answering individually.

Finally, the tasks of the series can be considered productive with regard to promotion of communicative competence and are promoting in that they give learners the opportunity to personalize the newly learnt pieces of language through production. The series, in addition, focus mainly on pair works and meaning. They also encourage students to use the language and more importantly they more often require them to express themselves than to be a listener.

However, with regard to the checklists, the series suffer from other shortcomings that require EFL teachers’ consideration. One of the drawbacks is the lack of activities or discussions that present new words or vocabularies. There is a need to improve textbooks in terms of providing more activities or discussions in order to present new words. The second shortcoming, as the results of TAS evaluation showed, is that writing is utilized as a major source of input to learners. In other words, the series have more emphasis on writing as an input. In contrast, oral words and phrases are fewer. It is believed that there should be a balance between written and oral form as an input. The third drawback of the series is that they do not use learners or even the teachers as a source for its content. Suprasentential level is ignored for both the expected output and input of the learners. More importantly, in most cases these are not the learners who initiate the tasks but the teachers. Moreover, the majority of tasks in the Top Notch series require learners to respond, and a much smaller proportion require them to initiate using the language. This is not desirable if we want to have an active class. According to the in-depth examination of the Top Notch series, the researchers concluded that the series met most of the criteria. In general, they are considered to be an appropriate material of education despite shortcomings and negative points, mainly because the turning points have triumph over the demerits.

As stated earlier, although questionnaires and checklists used in the study have undeniable advantages, namely the Checklist for explicit nature of a set of materials, Task Analysis Sheet, and Design Questionnaire, it cannot provide as rich as investigation of the other factors of a textbook. There are different kinds of frameworks for textbook evaluation and each of these frameworks examines the selected textbook based on a number of theories and assumptions. Thus, the results may have been different if it had used other frameworks as data elicitation method. There is also a limitation in the fact that the number of participants in the research, namely L2 teachers, was 30. It is beyond denial that studies with larger numbers of participants will produce more reliable results. There is also a limitation in the fact that collecting data do not have time constraints and participants can change their answers. As a result the answers may differ from what participants really think. As mentioned earlier, the participants of the present study were L2 teachers. A major limitation would go to selecting teachers with the same years of teaching experiences. L2 teachers with different experience may have different ideas about a specific course book so they evaluate it differently.

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THE EFFECT OF TEACHING SYSTEMIC-ORIENTED SUMMARIZATION STRATEGIES ON THE READING  
COMPREHENSION OF ADVANCED IRANIAN  
EFL LEARNERS

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#### ABSTRACT

Reading comprehension is central to language and reading is often referred to as the most important of the four language skills for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. One of the problems, however, that EFL learners complain about is how they can summarize the text and comprehend the text immediately. In this regard summarizing strategies through expansion (de-expanding) is an approach which helps learners. Therefore, this study is an attempt to study the effects of systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL learners. To do so, out of a pool of 100 learners, 68 advanced-level EFL learners were randomly selected based on the results obtained from the Preliminary English Test (PET). They were divided into two groups, one experimental group ( $n=34$ ) and one control group ( $n=34$ ). In order to get assurance as to the homogeneity of the learners they were pre-tested. The same test was repeated as a post-test after 9 weeks. The experimental group was taught three expansions' sub-classes (such as elaborating, extending, and enhancement) while the control group did not receive any strategies. The results based on the *t*-test indicated that teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies had no effect on the reading comprehension of advanced-level Iranian EFL learners. Moreover, it was found that systemic-oriented summarization strategy instruction made no statistically significant difference in reading comprehension of male and female EFL learners.

**KEYWORDS:** Reading comprehension, Learning strategies, Cognitive Reading Strategies, Meta-cognitive Strategies, Summarization, Expansion, SFL(Systemic Functional Linguistics), Clause Complex, Tactic

#### INTRODUCTION

The English language is an international language and people in different areas of expertise need to be proficient in this language. For this reason, learning four skills of it is necessary; but reading is a highly valued skill by teachers and learners because it helps learners to read for different purposes, particularly for academic purposes. People all over the world in non-English speaking countries use English as a foreign language. Learning to read in English is a great challenge for EFL learners, especially when it is for academic purposes. Students' academic success depends on well-developed reading comprehension ability. People in non-English countries, have English only in the classroom, for this reason learners need to have both good language proficiency and strong cognitive skills in strategic thinking and learning. Reading is not only understanding of printed words, but also it is the kind of process in which learners need to comprehend its implied ideas. "Learning to read is not only learning to recognize words; it is also learning to make sense of texts" (Tierney, 2005; p. 51). Reading comprehension is a thinking process. Comprehension takes the readers to a new level of active understanding and insight. Comprehension increases language knowledge.

According to Chamot (1987, P.P.71-84), "learning strategies are techniques, approaches, or deliberate action that students take in order to facilitate the learning". Teaching strategies can help students comprehend text more efficiently (Palinscar, Brown, & Trathen, 1996, Brown, Pressley, Van Meter & Schuder, 1996). Readers must use different types of comprehension strategies in order to be proficient readers. Pressley (2002) asserted that good readers know how to use specific strategies. In contrast, poor readers are weak at making

inference. Reading comprehension consists of metacognitive and cognitive strategies. One important type of these strategies is summarizing a text (Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertage, 1987). According to (Armbruster, Anderson & Ostertage, 1987, Doctrow, Wittrock & Marks, 1978; Wittrock & Alesandirini, 1990) including students to write summaries of text have been shown to improve reading comprehension.

#### Statement of the problem

Reading is often known as the most important of the four language skills for EFL learners. As it enables students to obtain presentation to the target language and receive valuable linguistic input to build up language proficiency. It is a fluent and energetic process which involves the reader and reading material in making meaning (Anderson, 1988).

Reading comprehension is a complex skill, it which students are asked to find main idea and details and make a distinction between the two. On the other hand, learning strategies play a decisive role in second or foreign language learning. Learning strategies also help learners to gather new information and then assimilate this information into their available knowledge. According to some studies that revealed when strategies are taught explicitly, this knowledge helps ESL/EFL students become more strategic in reading process (Anderson, 1999; Block, 1992; Brown et al., 1994; Carrell, 2001; Casanave, 1988; EL-Hindi; 1997; Krapels, 1990; MCGee & Richgels, 1990; Paris et al., Colomb, 1993).

Summarizing is conceived of as a challenge for learners, especially for those in EFL and ESL setting, because they do not know what to include and what to leave out in their summaries (Friend, 2002). In investigating the previous studies in using summarization strategies there is nothing on the qualities of summary which students stray from main subject of the text and wrote disconnected summaries with theme. Although, students must use their own sentences, but digression from the theme and main ideas of the text is not a correct way. Although, writing short summaries is the rule, but heart of the matter should be offered. All of this indicates that teaching summarizing strategies is inadequate. Readers at first must have a better reading comprehension in the use of summarizing strategies.

According to some studies that have been observed, most EFL teachers tried to improve students' reading comprehension. Many studies (e.g., Ahmadi, 2001; Poorahmai, 2009; Ebadi, 2002; Khalaji & Vafaeeseresht, 2012; Ghabel, 2004; Kazemi & Khalili, 2012) have aimed at finding solutions to deal with students' weaknesses in accomplishing reading comprehension

assignments. Some of the proposed solutions are focusing on cognitive and metacognitive strategies or using translation as a supplementary reading technique. But few studies have been conducted to investigate the effect of systemic-oriented summarization (e.g., Hallidays'1985 clause complex and expansion) strategies, on reading comprehension of female and male EFL students in Iran. This reason motivated the present study. Today EFL/ESL reading instruction is shifted from teaching texts to teaching readers (Hass & Flower, 1988). Reading strategies and skills are now taught learners for understanding such elements as textual features, rhetorical elements, content and cultural background. One of these strategies is summarization. Summarization is an effective reading strategy that can help students to make a summary of important proposition from text and summarization help students to comprehend knowledge, transferring it to long-term memory because it leads students to reading to understand, to recognize important ideas and to express the information by using their own words (Senemoglu, 2001: 569).

Some teachers still use traditional approaches to teach reading comprehension. This study investigated the effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL learners. To put in simple terms, it finds out whether the systemic-oriented summarization strategies can help to solve the problem of EFL readers in reading and enhance their reading comprehension ability. This study attempted to search for ways to effectively enhance students' reading comprehension. English teachers do not know how to use reading strategies effectively. So, this study attempted to introduce more effective strategies to EFL learners (especially Iranian EFL learners) through Hallidays'(1985) clause complex Expansion. Finally, this study investigated how systemic-oriented summarization strategies can be useful for students' comprehension of text.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Most of the research which has been done on teaching summarization is based on the model of the text comprehension developed by Brown and Day (1983), and another model developed by Kintsch and Van Dijk (1978). Three kinds of operations which take place during the reading process are taken into account by these models including:

- 1) The elements of meaning are integrated into a coherent whole;
- 2) The whole meaning of the text is compressed into its main ideas;
- 3) The gist is used to modify those elements which have previously been constructed and to have an effect on those yet to be constructed.

Regarding Kintsch and Van Dijk's (1978) models of text comprehension a lot of researchers based teaching summarization as a applicable model (e.g., Brown & Day, 1983; Hare & Borchardt, 1984). According to this model, the students are taught "How and Why" to summarize and to understand that the component skills are essential comprehension operations (Brown, 1978; Brown, Day & Jones, 1983). As mentioned, know-how of teaching summarization strategy, there are at least two major approaches:

First, rule-governed approaches which rely heavily on Kintsch and Van Dijk's (1978) theoretical model of text comprehension emphasizing macrostructure propositions and Brown and Day's (1983) two sets of macro-rules for producing summaries emphasizing, especially written summaries. These rules consisted of six rules including:

1. Delete unnecessary information;
2. Delete redundant information;
3. Compose a word to replace a list of items;
4. Compose a word to replace the individual parts of an action;
5. Select a topic sentence;
6. Invent a topic sentence if one is not available.

Wittrock and his colleagues suggested that, the process of generating summaries help readers build relation among concepts contained in a text as well as link these concepts to prior knowledge. There are considerable research evidence regarding the validity and reliability of summaries as a measure of reading comprehension (Head, Readence, & Buss 1969, Taylor, 1984). In recent years, the importance of the reading comprehension strategies has been understood better; therefore, work on the summarizing strategy training increased. Some of them are as follows: With his study which includes the summarizing strategies Hamman (1995), researched the effect of the strategy training on students' achievement. Palinscar and Brown's (1984) reciprocal teaching method was used in these strategy training. The other study done by SusarKirmizi (2006) used cooperative learning method based on the Multiple Intellect Theory in the training for summarizing strategy. Comprehension Strategies: These are strategies that occur before, while and after reading. Comprehension failure may happen at the three phase of reading. Good readers of all ages engage in conscious, active comprehension strategies before, during and after reading (Pressley & Wharton – MC Donald, 1997). At college, reading activities are made to comprehend the academic materials and to learn how learners can read conceptually. Unlike traditional material, reading comprehension strategies help learners to be an effective reader. Reading comprehension strategies can help readers remember the points, distinguish the necessary and unnecessary information, think about the main idea and comment on the subject matter. Good readers use lots of strategies before and after reading (Dogan, 2002). Haller (2000, P. 21-24) modeled a number of school-based post-reading activities, which enhance learning comprehension through the use of matching exercises, cut-up sentence, and comprehension questions. To achieve comprehension in reading, an effective reader should be able to successfully implement such practices as relating the text with his/her own background knowledge, summarizing information, drawing conclusions, and posing questions at the text (McNamara, 2007; Block, Rodgers & Johnson, 2006; Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005; Allen, 2003). Language teachers help the reader to be an effective and proficient reader through possible procedures pre, while and after the reading activity.

### *Before Reading*

Before reading a text some readers use different types of strategies. For instance, they overview the text, make plan for how to read the text and often readers clarify their purpose and some of them before reading consider what they know about a topic and about the structure of a text. Before reading activities are called as enabling activities, because these activities provide a reader with necessary background knowledge to organize activity and help reader to comprehend the text (Ringer & Weber). This kind of activity motivates students to want to read. Activities that are mentioned are as "devices for building the gap between the text's content and the reader's schemata". Some scholars believed that pre-reading activities are called as planning activities. In planning activities, readers use it before reading, they activate their own background knowledge to get prepared for reading. It can be an example of planning strategies (Almasi, 2003; Israel, 2007).

Also previewing a title, picture illustration, heading or subheading can help readers grasp the overview of the text. Readers may also preview the general information in the text and its structure (Almasi, 2003; Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991).

*While and Post Reading Activities*

Students must be aware of what is their level of comprehension. Many students read but they are not aware of what is happening and they do not comprehend the text. When expert readers, read a complex text, they use controlled strategies (Pressley, 2000). Proficient readers for example while and after reading, ask questions of the text and relate information in the text to their previous understanding of the topic; and re-read, summarize, and make notes, to monitor their comprehension and clarify their understanding. Research has shown that students' comprehension of complex texts can be improved by teaching them a number of strategies to use while they are reading and after they finish the reading text (Pressley & Wharton- Mc Donald, 1997; Schuder, 1993). List of prompts intended to facilitate student strategic thinking during and after reading:

1. Attending to text structure (e.g. How is the text organized?)
2. Summarizing the text
3. Checking understanding (e.g. readers ask themselves Can I answer who, what, When and Where and Why questions about the text?).
4. Using fix-up strategies (e.g. monitoring comprehension, seeking clarification).

As mentioned before, there are some strategies that readers use during and after reading. They are named as Monitoring strategies (those occur during reading), and another one that readers use it when they finish their reading activity is called as Evaluating strategies. Monitoring strategies take place during reading and some examples of them are as follow (Israel, 2007; Pressley, 2002):

- 1- Comprehension of vocabulary,
- 2- Self-questioning
- 3-Summarizing and,
- 4-Infering the main idea of each paragraph

Evaluating strategies are strategies in which readers use them after reading process. For example, after reading a text, a learner may think about how to use what they have read to other situation. They may identify with the author, a narrative or main character, and may have a better perspective of the situation in the book than they did at first.

*A. What is Summarization?*

To achieve reading comprehension, an effective reader should be able to successfully use such practices: Summarizing information, drawing conclusions, posing questions, etc. Summary writing is an activity which contains both reading and writing. Summarizing is a strategy to help to understand what is being read and is an activity that requires students to comprehend, analyze and synthesize ideas. It is an important skill for readers of all levels, even those in college and beyond. A summary therefore, is a shorten version of an original text, stating the main ideas. Garner (1982), defined efficient summarizers as a person who can "integrate important pieces of information". He believed that, the summaries in this study became like new texts for the reader i.e. their mental representations of the original texts. Then he conclude that effective summarizers probably "streamline" the information they have read so successfully and comprehend them, that the summary product becomes the text which is stored and retrieved. One of the most important priorities for summarizing is comprehensive reading of the text. To learn summarizing, students must take these steps:1) Setting main and second ideas of each paragraph within the text.2) Setting the most important paragraph within the text.3) For writing a good summary, in general, discovering and setting of the main idea of the text. 4) Referring the concepts and the ideas of the text, and paraphrasing, that is, using his/her own words (Wormeli, 2004; Garcia & Michaelis, 2001). Summarizing is semantic processing in which it occurs during reading process and it also is cognition process. It is an effective learning strategy that can help students to construct and retain a succinct summary of important propositions from text. So, summarization as comprehension strategies is important to teach. Summarization is an intervention for teachers and has been demonstrated to improve reading comprehension (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984; Pearson & Fielding, 1991; Rinehart, Stahl & Erickson, 1986).

*B. What is Systemic-Functional linguistics (SFL)*

The last five decades have been marked by an interest in functional approaches to language, such as Systemic Functional linguistics (SFL), Functional Discourse Grammar, Role and Reference Grammar, Emergent Grammar and Word Grammar, etc. It involves the notion that language consists of a set of systems which offers the writer/speaker choices in expressing meaning. The view of language within Systemic Functional Linguistics is both rich and complex. It is a modeling of language that sees discourse as text-in-context. It is concerned with how people use language and how language is structured for use. Systemic Functional Linguistics views meaning as social meaning impact on linguistic forms. Systemic Functional Linguistics is that a meaning-making system. Systemic Functional Linguistics, established by M.A.K. Halliday, is the most influential. As a functional theory of language rather than just a theory of grammar, SFL seeks to be applicable and 'applicable' describing, explaining, and evaluating why and how people communicate with each other by use of language (cf. Halliday & Mathiessen, 2004). Systemic functional theorizing is all about exploring the function of language as enabling humans to make meaning in the world. To that end, it models language as a multi-dimensional phenomenon, as language in context (Halliday, 1978; Mathiessen, 2007). Second, it develops comprehensive description of language that brings out the uniqueness of particular language as meaning-making resources.

**A clause complex:** is a constituent of grammar. When a number of clauses are linked together grammatically we will use the term clause complex. It is serial structure, where the same element is repeated again and again by iteration. Clause complex, when one or more clause s linked by tactic and logico-semantic relations. Clause complexes are formed either by combining two Independent clause through linking words known as Coordinators, or by combining an Independent clause with Dependent one through the binding words known as Subordinators.

*What is Expansion?*

the secondary clause expands the primary clause. Expansion is subdivided into elaboration, extension, and enhancement. Theoretical framework of this study is Halliday's (1985a) description of clause complex relation. SFL is an approach to linguistics developed by Halliday. He sees language in a social context. The theory behind this approach is functional rather than formal, that is, it considers language as a resource used for communication and not as a set of rules. Language based on the SFL, consists of discourse-semantic and lexico-grammar levels. Discourse-semantics describes language from discursal and semantic perspectives. From discursal point of view, cohesion and coherence are of focal attention at the text level; and from semantic point of views three layers of meaning such as ideational, interpersonal and textual(are as internal organization of a clause) are investigated at the clause level. According to Halliday and Hassan (1976), the interpretation of some parts of a text depends on the understanding of some other parts of mentioned earlier or later in the body of the text or out of the text in the surrounding environment. There is "scale of rank" in the grammar of every language, but for English it is

as clause, phrase/group, word and morpheme. Units of every rank form complexes. External organization of a clause consists of Expansion and Projection. Above the clause named as clause complex. There are two systemic dimensions when interpreting clause complexity:

1. *Interdependency (or tactic) system: Parataxis, Hypotaxis*
2. *Logico-semantic system: Expansion: Elaboration, Extension, Enhancement*

Clause complexes or above the clause: The notion of "clause complex" enables us to account in full for the functional organization of sentences. A sentence will be defined, in fact as a clause complex. The clause complex will be the only grammatical unit which we shall recognize above the clause. Hence, there will be no need to bring in the term 'sentence' as a distinct grammatical category. It simply can be refer to the orthographic unit that is contained between full stops. This will be avoiding ambiguity: A sentence is a constituent of writing while, A clause complex is a constituent of grammar. When a number of clauses are linked together grammatically we will use the term clause complex. Clause complexes are formed either by combining two independent clauses through the linking words known as Coordinators, or by combining an independent clause with dependent one through the binding words known as Subordinators.

*Example of clause complex:*

/// Rita enters, // close the door, // goes to the desk, // and dumps her bag on it. /// (1, 2)

*What is Paratactic?*

in parataxis, elements are equal status. Each element could stand as a functioning whole. The relation can be logically (in general) symmetrical (salt and pepper, pepper and salt) or transitive (salt and pepper, pepper and mustard, salt and mustard). Paratactic structures will be represent by a numerical notation 1, 2, 3 with nesting indicated in the usual way.

11 [2 2 3] 3 2 means 1(1 2)2 3 (1 2)

*What is Hypotactic?*

Hypotactic relationships are elements of unequal status. The dominant element (primary) is free; the dependent (secondary) of course is not. The relations are in general logically non-symmetrical (I breathe when I sleep is in contrast with I sleep when I breathe) or non-transitive (I fret when I have to drive slowly + I have to drive slowly when it's been raining is in contrast with I fret when it's been raining).

*Example of hypotactic relation:*

When she graduated from high school, she undertook a trip through the country (Hypo-taxis  $\alpha=\beta$ ).

As mentioned above, there are two systemic dimensions when interpreting clause complexity. One is the system of interdependency, or 'tactic' system, Parataxis and Hypo-taxis, which is general to all complexes- word, group, phrase and clause alike. The other is thelogico-semantic system of expansion and projection, which is specific to clause combining. Parataxis and Hypo-taxis illustrated:

2 and then (she) undertook a trip through the Country (Parataxis).

$\beta$  When she graduated from high school,

$\alpha$  she undertook a trip through the country (Hypo taxis).

*A. Elaboration*

One clause expands another by elaborating on it, restating it in other words, specifying it in greater details, commenting or exemplifying it. In elaborating, nothing new is added to the message in the primary clause. In every clause complex, the secondary clause has an elaborating, extending or enhancing relation to the primary clause (Halliday, Mathiessen, 2004). Example of clause connectors of elaborated paratactic clauses: (And, in other words, that is to say, for instance, i.e.,for example, to be precise, in particular, in fact, actually, indeed, at least).

*Example of clause connectors of elaborated hypotactic clauses:* Which, When, Where

*B. Extension*

One clause expands another by extending beyond it, adding some new element, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative. Example of clause connectors of extended, paratactic clauses: (Both...) and, Not only...but also,(Neither...)nor, (And) yet, But, But not, Not...but only, except, (Either...) or (else)

///Jim entered the class and took a seat next to me. /// (1 +2)

*Example of clause connectors of extended, hypotactic clauses:* Whereas, while, except that, as well as, without, instead of

///Whereas the director gave no votes, his deputy said aye. ///

*C. Enhancement*

One clause expands another by embellishing around it, qualifying it with some circumstantial feature of time, place, cause or condition. Examples of clause connectors of enhanced, paratactic clauses: (Then, so, for, but, yet, however, still, meanwhile, at that time, in that way, therefore, nevertheless).

Examples of clause connectors of enhanced, hypotactic clauses: (As, in case, while, before, since, after, provided that, because of).

Table 1: Logico-semantic relationship in a clause complex along with notations (Pandian&Assadi, 2010)

Logico-semantic relationship		Paratactic	Hypotactic
E X P A N S I O N	Elaboration (=)	Apposition (1 = 2)	Non-defining relative clause ( $\alpha = \beta$ )
	Extension (+)	Coordination (1 + 2)	While, whereas clause Apart from/as well as/except for non-finite clause ( $\alpha + \beta$ )
	Enhancement ( $\times$ )	Otherwise/and then/for/thus/so/but clause (1 $\times$ 2)	Subordination ( $\alpha \times \beta$ )

*De-expansion*

A clause complex is formed by combining two or more clauses. The clause complex are formed either two independent clause (Paratactic) or by combining one In-dependent clause with a dependent clause (Hypotactic).

*Examples of clause complex:*

/// Rita enters, // close the door, // goes to the desk, // and dumps her bag on it. ///

In Hallidayian expansion there are three sub-types such as elaborating, extension and enhancement. In elaborating one clause expands another by elaborating on it, restating in other words, or commenting it. In this type of expansion nothing new is added to the message in the primary clause. For example:/// she is green; she is envious of everything.///

According to this example the secondary clause is restating the primary clause in other words.so, the readers must notice to it and write only primary clause and de-expand it, because nothing new is added to the message in the primary clause. Finally, the above example can be de-expanding in this way: //She is green.//

The second kind of the Hallidayian expansion is extension. In this type, one clause expands another by extending beyond it, adding some new element, giving an exception to it, offering an alternative. In extending, the secondary clause adds further information to the primary clause. According to below example the secondary clause adds further information about the primary clause

///My favorite season is spring, but my mother hates it///.

The above example can be de-expanding in this way: //My favorite season is spring//.

Enhancement is another type of Hallidayian expansion. In this type one clause expands another by embellishing around it, qualifying it with some circumstantial features of time, place, cause and condition. Here, the secondary clause provides background information for the message in the primary clause. See below example:

///We didn't have the rehearsal on Monday because it was a public holiday///.

In this example the secondary clause give reason for the message in the primary clause and it can be de-expanding in this way:

//We didn't have the rehearsal on Monday//. (De-expand)

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The questions that can be addressed in this study are:

1- To what extent does teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies affect reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL learners?

2- Is there any difference between the effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of male and female advanced Iranian EFL learners?

H<sub>1</sub>:The teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies has an effect on the reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL Learners.

H<sub>2</sub>: The teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies has a differential effect on male and female advanced Iranian EFL Learners.

**METHODOLOGY**

*Research Design*

In this study the learners were selected and they were divided into experimental and control groups. Then a pre-test and post test were administered to them. Only the experimental group received treatment and control group did not receive any treatment. These are principles of quasi-experimental study. therefore, this study is type of quasi-experimental research design. The independent variable in this study is the systemic-oriented summarization strategies and the dependent variable is the reading performance of the experimental and the control groups. And in this study the gender is moderate variable.

*Participants*

The participants in this study were 68 male and female EFL learners (their L1 was Turkish). Their age range was between 22-28. They were at advanced level. The study was conducted at Payame Noor University in MeshkinShahr, Iran. Sixty eight learners were chosen through administration of PET test (Preliminary English Test). Learners whose score were 1 SD (SD=7.9) above and below of the mean score (M=33.83) were selected. All learners participated in this were advanced level and only the advanced level learners whose score were one standard deviation above and below of the mean score were selected as participants of the present study. In order to get assurance as to the homogeneity of the learners they were pre-tested on their level of proficiency in reading comprehension. Then, these 68 male and female English learners were divided into two groups experimental and control groups. The aim of this study is to train students to learn strategies

and to read academic text more effectively.

#### **Instruments**

*Proficiency Level Test (PET)*, PET (Preliminary English Test) was used in order to determine the proficiency level of participants' in reading, writing, speaking and listening. To select the participants, all 100 students took part in PET English Language Test.

*Reading Comprehension Test from TOEFL Test (pre-test and post-test)*, this test was selected from "TOEFL Actual Tests" administered by ETS 7full-length test. The test-retest reliability estimated for these tests indicated that the all instruments were reliable ( $\alpha = 0.75$ ).

#### *Treatment (Lesson Plan)*

Different research materials were used for the purpose of this study:

Hallidays' (1985a) clause complex techniques were selected materials for this study. These material (Sample of Lesson Plan for Experimental Group, See Appendix A), were chosen from "The ABC's of Functional Grammar (Pandian, &Assadi, 2010), Chapter 5, The Clause Complex.

Another material of this study was selected from "ENGLISH REXT", system and structure by J.R. Martin, University of Sydney. John Benjamins Publishing Company Philadelphia/Amsterdam 1992 (See Appendix A). Chapter 4, Conjunction and Continuity the logic of English text.

Some materials of the present study used for the lesson plans were selected from "An Introduction to Functional Grammar" by M.A.K. Halliday and Christian M.I.M. Matthiessen (2004), Chapter7; above the Clause: the clause complex (See Appendix A).

Another material was taken from Functional Grammar in the ESL Classroom by Rondey H. Jones and Graham Lock (2011), Chapter 6 Elaborating (See Appendix A).

During this study, the participants in Experimental group received Hallidays'(1985) clause complex expansion in order to learn the de-expansion' rules and summarize text. On the other hand, the participants in control group did not receive any techniques. This technique was introduced to the experimental group then, they received some examples about de-elaboration, de-extension and de-enhancement. In order to, use these techniques for summarizing the given reading passage.

#### *De-expansion:*

A clause complex is formed by combining two or more clauses. The clause complex are formed either two independent clause (Paratactic) or by combining one In-dependent clause with a dependent clause (Hypotactic).

#### *Examples of clause complex:*

/// Rita enters, // close the door, // goes to the desk, // and dumps her bag on it. ///

In Hallidayian expansion there are three sub-types such as elaborating, extension and enhancement. In elaborating one clause expands another by elaborating on it, restating in other words, or commenting it. In this type of expansion nothing new is added to the message in the primary clause. For example: /// she is green; she is envious of everything.///

According to this example the secondary clause is restating the primary clause in other words. So, the readers must notice to it and write only primary clause and de-expand it, because nothing new is added to the message in the primary clause. Finally, the above example can be de-elaborating in this way: //She is green.//

The second kind of the Hallidayian expansion is extension. In this type, one clause expands another by extending beyond it, adding some new element, giving an exception to it, offering an alternative. In extending, the secondary clause adds further information to the primary clause. According to below example the secondary clause adds further information about the primary clause

///My favorite season is spring, but my mother hates it. ///

The above example can be de-expanding (de-extension) in this way: //My favorite season is spring.//

Note: notation for clause complex is (///) while a clause notation is (/).

Enhancement is another type of Hallidayian (1985a) expansion. In this type one clause expands another by embellishing around it, qualifying it with some circumstantial features of time, place, cause and condition. Here, the secondary clause provides background information for the message in the primary clause. See below example:

///We didn't have the rehearsal on Monday because it was a public holiday.///

In this example the secondary clause give reason for the message in the primary clause and it can be de-expanding in this way:

///We didn't have the rehearsal on Monday///. (De-enhancement)

#### **Procedure**

One hundred male and female EFL learners were selected as participants in this study and the entire study took 10 weeks. Male (N=50) and female (N=50) EFL learners at four classes at Payame Noor University in MeshkinShahr, Iran participated in the present study. They were at advanced level and the PET (Preliminary English Test) was administered to establish participants' proficiency level. The learners of all classes were asked to complete a PET test in two hour and thirty minute. The learners whose score were 1 SD (SD=7.9) above and below of the mean score (M=33.83) were selected. Sixty eight English learners (males and females) were chosen. Reading comprehension test from TOEFL test administered to the students in order to homogenize them. Then, two groups (n=68) were selected and assigned into experimental and control groups. The students in control group were instructed in reading comprehension through regular instructional plan of Iran University. They didn't receive any systemic-oriented summarization strategies based instruction. They only were given the PET and pretest (reading comprehension test), and a post-test (reading comprehension test) the same as experimental groups. Their scores were compared with learners in experimental groups in order to determine the effect of systemic-oriented summarization strategies instruction on reading comprehension. On the other hand, the experimental group received treatment. The experimental group was instructed through using Hallidays'(1985) clause complex expansion. In the treatment session of the third week, the experimental group received their treatment

while, the control group did not receive any treatment (Table 3.1). The pre-test was administered before the treatment sessions while post-test show the effect of treatment. All of the 68 EFL learners were asked to complete a post-test after the treatment sessions. The same test was repeated as post-test seventh weeks after the pre-test.

Experimental Groups	Control Groups
- Pre-test (Reading Comprehension)	- Pre-test (Reading Comprehension)
- Treatment (7 sessions), Instructional Plan of Iran University	- Treatment (7 sessions).Regular Hallidays'(1985a) expansion
- Post- test (Reading Comprehension)	- Post-test(Reading Comprehension)

**DATA ANALYSIS**

**Findings Regarding Pre-test Homogeneity (Descriptive & Inferential Statistics)**

A number of descriptive analyses such as minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation have been conducted on the data collected from students' pre-test homogeneity in control and experimental group. The descriptive statistics of the participants' pre-test in control and experimental group are presented in the table 2. Regarding the experimental and control groups' homogeneity, it has been found that students' mean score in experimental group was 22.02 with the standard deviation of 6.16. Pre-test scores in control group revealed a mean score of 22.91 with the standard deviation of 6.39

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for Pre-test Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Experimental	34	22.029	6.1668	1.0576
Control	34	22.911	6.3930	1.0963
Total	68	22.470	6.2497	.7578

According to Table 3, (F= 0.33 and Sig., 0.56), there was no difference between the experimental and the control group in their pre-test scores. However, both groups are homogenous.

Table 3: Test of Homogeneity of Pre-test Between and Within Groups (one way ANOVA)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13.235	1	13.235	.335	.564
Within Groups	2603.706	66	39.450		
Total	2616.941	67			

Table 4 presented the descriptive statistics results for pre-test homogeneity of male and female EFL learners in the study. Regarding the male and female learners' homogeneity, it has been found that students' mean score for the male learners was 22.38 with the standard deviation of 6.90 and students' mean score for the female learners was 22.55 with the standard deviation of 5.62.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for Pre-test Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Male	34	22.382	6.9063	1.1844
Female	34	22.558	5.6202	.96387
Total	68	22.470	.75789	.75789

According to Table 5, (Sig. =.908), there was no difference between male and female learners(experimental and control group) in their pre-test scores. So, both groups are homogenous.

Table 5: Test of Homogeneity of Pre-test Between and Within Groups (One Way ANOVA)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.529	1	.529	.013	.908
Within Groups	2616.412	66	39.643		
Total	2616.941	67			

**Hypothesis Testing**

Research Question One: Does teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies affect reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL learners?

Descriptive analyses such as mean and standard deviation have been conducted on the data collected from students' posttest in control and experimental group. The descriptive statistics of the participants' posttest in control and experimental group are presented in the table 6. Regarding the effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies in the experimental and control group, it has been found that students' mean score in experimental group was 25.35 with the standard deviation of 5.89. Post test scores in control group revealed a mean score of 23.38 with the standard deviation of 6.22

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post mark	Experimental	34	25.352	5.8923	1.0105
	Control	34	23.382	6.2232	1.0672

As it is shown in Table 7, the P-value is equal to 0.18 which is higher than 0.05, so with regard to the first hypothesis of the study, that is, the teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies has an effect on the reading comprehension of advanced Iranian

EFL learners, an Independent samples t-test was conducted and it showed that teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies had no effect on the learners' reading performance. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Independent Samples Test for the Experimental and Control Groups

		Levene's Test for Equality Of Variance		T-test equality of Mean		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
Post mark	Equal variances assumed	.893	.348	1.341	66	.185
	Equal variances not assumed			1.341	65.804	.185

The Results Regarding the Second Research Hypothesis. (The teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies has a differential effect on the reading comprehension of male and female advanced Iranian EFL learners).

Research Question Two: Is there any difference between the effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of male and female advanced Iranian EFL learners'?

Descriptive analyses such as mean and standard deviation have been conducted on the data collected. The descriptive statistics of the male and female participants' posttest in the control and the experimental group are presented in the table 8. Regarding the effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of male and female advanced Iranian EFL learners in the experimental and control group, it has been found that male students' mean score was 24.41 with the standard deviation of 6.85. Post test scores of the female learners revealed a mean score of 24.32 with the standard deviation of (5.33).

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics (Gender)

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post mark	male	34	24.411	6.8539	1.1754
	female	34	24.323	5.3355	.91504

As it is shown in Table 9, the P-value is equal to 0.95 which is higher than the level of significance 0.05, so with regard to the second alternative hypothesis of the study, that is, the teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies has a differential effect on male and female advanced Iranian EFL learners, an analysis of an independent sample t-test was conducted. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 9. According to the results available, there is not a significant difference in the male and female students' performance in post-test. In other words, the second alternative hypothesis of the study is not accepted. It means that there is not any significant difference between the reading performance of Iranian male and female EFL learners in two groups.

Table 9: Inferential Statistics Independent Sample Test

		Levene's Test for Equality Of Variance		T-test equality of Mean		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2- tailed)
Post mark	Equal variances assumed	4.125	.039	.059	66	.953
	Equal variances not assumed			.059	62.253	.953

## DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

In this study, at first, data from the pre-test were collected from 68 Iranian EFL learners in experimental and control groups. Analysis of the data through independent samples t-test revealed that there was no difference between experimental and control groups. The observed p-value estimated for the first question of the study which is as follow:

Does teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategy affect reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL learners? P-value observed that (Table 4.7) Sig=.18 is more than the level of significance (p= 0.05).The research hypothesis that claimed there is an effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL learners was not supported. The findings of the present study proved that there is no significant difference between score of participants of experimental and control group. Then results reject the related an alternative hypothesis of the study. However, it can be said that systemic-oriented summarization strategies has no effect on Iranian EFL learners reading comprehension. The results of the study revealed that learners' post test scores in experimental group and control group have not had significant differences.

Although the result of this study proved that teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies have no effect on Iranian EFL learners' Reading comprehension, but teaching strategies have significant effect in increasing EFL learners' reading knowledge. Oxford (1990) defined LLS (Language Learning Strategies), as conscious manipulation and movement toward a goal. All three types of LLS are important to the language learning process. Meta-cognitive strategies help students monitor and evaluate their learning after an activity is completed

while cognitive strategies are more limited to specific learning task and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. It includes using previous knowledge to help to solve new problems. Another strategy is socio-affective strategies include asking a classmate to work together on a particular language problem. These strategies help the learners control their own learning (OMalley et al, 1987; & Fedderholt, 1997). Reading comprehension has a multi-dimensional aspect so; mastering all of these dimensions takes time and need large number of participants.

Summarization is in the category of cognitive strategies and it is reading-writing connection activity. Summarization is a strategy that learners use to comprehend knowledge and recognize important ideas and express information by using their own words. For years and more recently, summarizing have been called as an important tool in reading comprehension by the National Reading Panel (2000) and a lot of researchers (Brown et al., Duke & Pearson 2002; Graham & Harris, 2005; Pressley & Block 2002; Taylor, 1986).

Summarization is important as tool for improving comprehension (Pressley, 2000). Some other studies indicated that summarization have significant impact on the reading comprehension (Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertage, 1987; Doctrow, Wittrock & Alensandrini, 1990). Cordero – Ponce (2000) in their study randomly selected 64 intermediate college level learners of French as a foreign language. They divided their participants to experimental and control groups. The result revealed that summarization training was effective for L2 readers. All above views show the importance of summarizing strategies on the reading comprehension. While, the results of the present study revealed that there is no effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of advanced Iranian EFL learners.

It is worth mentioning that student's prior knowledge (experimental and control group) may have effects on their production. They may have seen the TOEFL test in other situations. The students' prior knowledge in control group regarding Hallidays' (1985) expansion strategies may have been taught previously in other classes. These two points should be affecting the results of this study.

As mentioned before LLS are used to refer to all strategies language learners apply in learning the target language and summarization strategies are one type of language learning strategies. Different factors affect language learning strategies. Rees-Miller (1993) concludes "attempt to translate the theory behind learner-training is far more complex owing to the different factors that interact to influence the teaching and learning strategies: culture, situation, age, personal learning style. Pressley, et al. (1983), proposed that students need to be able to practice the learning strategy over a long period of time. Further research in this area will be necessary to determine the features of summary skill and the length of time will help students use the summarization skills.

This study was conducted among advanced level subjects. Main point in this study is about the different results gained by experimental group. The result of this study revealed that teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies had no effect on the learners' reading comprehension. Also answering to this question that why the result of experimental group is different maybe depend on different factors. One of the main points in this study is maybe because of little schedule time. Learners should have the opportunity of practicing the learning strategies. They should ask to make conscious effort to use Hallidays' (1985a) expansion strategies. The learners should become aware of systemic-oriented summarization strategies. However, students practice should be increased along with re-explanation which can continue as long as necessary for the students to acquire the strategic procedure (Palinscar, 1986; Palinscar & Brown, 1984). And another point as mentioned above is students' prior knowledge. So, further investigation is required with regard to using systemic-oriented summarization strategies within EFL contexts.

#### ***The Results of the Effect of Teaching Systemic-oriented Summarization Strategies on the male and females' Reading Comprehension***

As the result of the study indicated, there was no significant difference among scores of participants (males and females) in control group with scores of participants in experimental group. Thus, results rejected an alternative hypothesis with respect to the related research question. However, according to the results it can be concluded that there is no any difference between the effect of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of male and female advance Iranian EFL learners. The second hypothesis (The teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies has a differential effect on the reading comprehension of male and female advanced Iranian EFL learners.) was not confirmed because there were no any differentiates between the performance of the male and female advance Iranian EFL learners. According to the results the p-value estimated for the second research question of this study is (Sig=.95) and it is more than the level of significance (p=.05). So, male and female learners to English report no significance difference in their using of systemic-oriented summarization strategies.

Language learning strategies help learners become more autonomous. They also enhance self-efficacy, and individuals' perception that can help learners to successfully complete a task or series of tasks (Carter & Nunan, 2001). According to Oxford, et al. (1990), language learning strategy use is influenced by many factors. One of these factors is gender. Research in second language showed that female and male learners to English report differences in their use of language learning strategies. The another core interest in this investigation, thus, was to identify the gender differences in EFL context in terms of using systemic-oriented summarization strategies by boys and girls in Iranian University. Research in second language teaching shows that female and male learners of English report differences in their use of language learning strategies while, the result of this study revealed that there was no any significance difference between Iranian EFL learners in using systemic-oriented summarization strategies. Therefore the research hypothesis that claimed the teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies has a differential effect on male and female advanced Iranian EFL learners was not confirmed.

#### **CONCLUSION**

According to many researchers (e.g., Armbruster, Anderson & Ostertage, 1987; Bean & Steenwyk, 1984; Berkowitz, 1986; Doctrow, Wittrock & Marks, 1978; Wittrock & Alesandrini, 1990) instructing students to generate summaries of text has been shown to improve comprehension. Previous studies indicated that summarization can help readers to focus on gist information and therefore improve comprehension (e.g., Anderson & Armbruster, 1984; Pearson & Fielding, 1996). Based on the findings of this study, the experimental and control groups developed their reading comprehension. However, the development of the experimental group was not significantly than the development of the control group. The fact that control groups' development may be attributed to their previous knowledge. It may have effects on their production. The learners in control group may have seen the TOEFL test in other situations. The students' prior knowledge regarding Hallidays' (1985) expansion strategies may have been taught previously in other classes.

At the end of instructional period, the female and male experimental groups' development was approximately the same.

In the beginning of this study, data analysis showed that learners in experimental and control groups had same reading comprehension strategy awareness while, independent samples t-test also revealed that there was no difference among them in their post test scores. The obtained data showed that there was no any difference between female and male learners in using systemic-oriented summarization strategies. The present study was also carried out to investigate the degree of probable difference between post-test scores of male and female EFL students. The researcher draws some conclusion based on the comparison made between the performance of the male and female EFL learners in posttest.

The findings of the study revealed that explicit teaching of systemic-oriented summarization strategies was not effective in the improvement of the EFL learners' reading performance. It is also indicated that there is not a significant difference between males and females reading performance after taking the treatment. Based on the findings of the study, it became clear that systemic-oriented summarization strategies did not affect Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension and according to the findings of the present study the participants in the experimental groups did not outperform the subjects in the control group significantly. In conclusion, the arguments raised in this paper indicate that learning strategies in this study depend on different factors such as learners' prior knowledge.

#### ***Pedagogical Implications***

This study was an attempt to investigate one of the most important issues in EFL situations, i.e., learning to read through using Hallidays' (1985) expansion. The findings of this study suggest that teaching reading through using Hallidays' (1985) expansion did not improve the students' performance in the process of reading. Although the results did not carry an important effect for EFL learners of this study, teacher must not easily neglect the influence of teaching systemic-oriented summarization strategies on the reading comprehension of EFL learners. This study is expected to be helpful for those teachers who feel disappointed in attempting a creative approach to the teaching of the reading process. It is already known that in academic setting reading is the most important skill for students to be independent readers. However, how to teach students in order to be proficient readers is important issue. Syllabus designers, teachers, curriculum developers can use these strategies but they should consider the following suggestions. They should pay attention to students' prior knowledge and their awareness of these strategies and they may need to modify the design of the study was used in the present research because the important point in further research which should be taken into account is learner's schedule time.

#### ***Suggestion for further research***

In this study different levels of proficiency were not taken into account. To examine the effects of the strategies used, different levels of proficiency can be included in the further studies. The number of participants was rather small in this research, and the results may not be generalized to a larger population of the learners. Thus, this study could be conducted with a large sample size. Important point in further research which should be taken into account is learner's schedule time. Another important point is the student's prior knowledge (experimental and control group). It may have effects on their production. The group that we were working on may have seen the TOEFL test in other situations.

The students' prior knowledge regarding Hallidays' (1985) expansion strategies may have been taught previously in other classes. These two points should be taken into account in further research.

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#### ABSTRACT

The current study aims to investigate Iranian learners' beliefs about learning English and the stability of these beliefs over time. 50 learners, males and females, studying English as a foreign language in different English institutes in Isfahan were selected. Horwitz (1987) Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), a 34-item survey instrument, was used to collect data twice with the interval of three months. After data analysis was done, the results indicated that generally, learners recognized the existence of foreign language aptitude and placed strong emphasis on excellent pronunciation, vocabulary acquisition, and the benefits of practice. Most of them reported of being highly motivated and interested to learn English. The findings also revealed that with the exception of slight change to two items on language learning difficulty, two items on nature of language learning, and five items on learning and communication strategies, most of their beliefs were stable over time.

**KEYWORDS:** Learner's Belief, Language Learning, Language Learning Inventory (BALLI), Communication Strategy.

#### INTRODUCTION

Recently, research on learner beliefs has evolved out of a growing interest in the role of affect in language learning. Beliefs are defined as "psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (Richardson, 1996, p. 103) and are said to act as strong filters of reality (Arnold, 1999). "Beliefs are predispositions to action" (Rokeach, 1968); they influence what and how students learn. It has been shown (Schoenfeld, 1983) that one's belief systems, social cognitions and metacognitions are important force for intellectual performance, including learning and acquisition of foreign languages. According to Horwitz (1987), learners' beliefs or notions about language learning can influence both their experiences and actions as language learners. Educational psychologists believe that learners' self-beliefs are a defining factor of their learning behavior (Bandura, 1986; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). Learners with high self-efficacy are likely to expend more effort at a learning task and persevere even in the face of failures. Conversely, learners who doubt their ability to continue a learning task will put in less effort and give up easily in the face of challenges. According to Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005), beliefs have the potential to influence the learners' attitude to language learning, their motivation to learn, and also shape their experiences and actions in the classroom. It has been noted that successful learners develop insightful beliefs about language learning processes, their own abilities, and the use of effective and efficient learning strategies, which have intensified their competence and performance in language acquisition. On the other hand, learners can also have misconceptions, uninformed or negative beliefs about language learning, resulting in their reliance on less effective strategies and negative attitude and perspective towards learning and autonomy (Victori & Lockhart, 1995), classroom anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986), and poor performance (Reid & Hresko, 1981). Victori and Lockhart (1995: 225) discussed differences between insightful beliefs that successful learners hold, and the negative or limited beliefs that poor learners hold, and stated that:

if students develop or maintain misconceptions about their own learning, if they attribute undue importance to factors that are external to their own action, they are not likely to adopt a responsible and active attitude in their approach to learning and may never become autonomous.

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For instance, a learner who assumes that one shouldn't say anything in English until one can say it accurately and fluently will not make an effort to practice speaking in English while a learner who believes that it is important to repeat and practice a lot will benefit from applying that strategy. Similarly, learners who believe that they do not possess any special aptitude necessary for acquisition of English will start off with a relatively negative expectation of ultimate success compared to someone who believes otherwise.

#### Literature Review

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Since beliefs about language learning have been found to significantly affect language learning and outcomes, one of the areas of research interest in recent years is the factors that affect beliefs, such as individual learner differences and contextual diversity (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007). Interdisciplinary research suggests that learner beliefs are intertwined with factors such as self-percepts (e.g. self-concept, self-efficacy), personality traits, and other individual differences (Bernat, 2007; Langston & Sykes, 1997; Siebert, 2003). Recent studies have examined learners' beliefs about language learning for their relationship to factors such as strategy use (Yang, 1999); anxiety (Kunt, 1998; Tsai, 2004); learner autonomy (Cotterall, 1995; Wenden, 1991); gender (Bacon & Finnemann, 1992; Siebert, 2003), personality traits (Bernat, 2006); and language proficiency (Mantle-Bromley, 1995; Peacock, 1998, 1999; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). Among other things, these studies have found that learners who held unrealistic beliefs or misconceptions about language learning were more anxious and intolerant than those who held more positive and realistic beliefs. Moreover, these beliefs have direct links to proficiency in that the more proficient learners were the more realistic and/or positive were their beliefs. Learner beliefs about language learning have also been found to be dynamic and context-specific (Alexander & Dochy, 1994; Chawhan & Oliver, 2000; Cotterall, 1995; Ellis, 2008; Horwitz, 1999; Riley, 2009). Learner beliefs have been revealed to change over time to new experiences and learning as well as change of attitude. The results also indicated that there were significant differences between groups of diverse language background students, for example students studying in Australia (Chawhan & Oliver, 2000) and New Zealand (Cotterall, 1995). However, studies conducted using the BALLI did not have consistent findings (Kern, 1995; Peacock, 2001). Kern (1995) conducted a survey involving university students studying French, reported that 35% to 59% of the responses changed over a period of 15 weeks. A significant change was observed in the response to the statement: "If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, it will be hard to get rid of them later on", with 37% of the students reporting greater agreement and 15% lesser agreement. This suggests that many students were becoming increasingly conscious of their mistakes and were having difficulty in avoiding them, although they tried to correct them. Another change was in responses to the statement: "Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammar rules", with 32% showing greater agreement and 20% lesser agreement. Meanwhile, Peacock (2001) reported a longitudinal study that investigated changes in beliefs about L2 learning of trainee ESL students in a three-year program at the City University of Hong Kong. His findings revealed that there were no significant changes in learner beliefs at the end of the program. Since the research findings regarding change in learner beliefs so far are not comprehensive and thorough, Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) suggested that there is need for further investigations on the stability of beliefs and effects of instructional

interventions based on students' beliefs about language learning. The present study aimed to explore this phenomenon among Iranian learners belief.

Wong (2010) did a research to explore learners' beliefs about learning English and the stability of these beliefs over time by using the Horwitz' BALLI in Malaysia. The findings revealed that learners recognized the existence of foreign language aptitude and placed strong emphasis on excellent pronunciation, vocabulary acquisition, the benefits of practice, and an immersion approach to language learning. Most of them reported of being highly motivated to learn English and were positive about their ability to master the language. The findings also revealed that with the exception of slight change (ranging from 4% to 20%) to two items on language learning difficulty and six items on nature of language learning, most of their beliefs were stable over time.

As it was mentioned, research on learner beliefs in teacher education research has gotten significant attentions in recent years, particularly in investigating teacher beliefs and the connection between their beliefs and educational practices (Brown & McGannon, 1998; Calderhead, 1996; Peacock, 2001), since their beliefs play an important role in their learning. Brown and McGannon (1998) and Breen (1991) studied teacher beliefs and concluded that teachers had many incorrect beliefs about how foreign languages are learned and that this influenced their teaching practices later. Kennedy (1996) argued that real and effective change in teachers' practices could only occur through a change in their beliefs.

In Iran, a place where English is being learnt as a foreign language, no studies have been reported investigating learners' or pre- service teachers' beliefs about language learning over time, particularly studies involving English learners who are learning English in institutes for different purposes to teach English. Documenting language learners' beliefs is indispensable, so that efforts can be made to bring about awareness and changes in beliefs while they are still undergoing training to learn English. Discernment into learners' language learning beliefs would prove practical to teacher educators in incorporating appropriate and pertinent instruction on language learning during English lessons. The present study aimed to fill a gap in research on language learning beliefs.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In line with what was stated above, this study aimed to gain insights into the following research questions:

1. What are the main Iranian EFL learners' beliefs about language learning?
2. To what extent are Iranian learners' beliefs stable over time?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

Participants were fifty English students, male and female, who were learning the language in different English institutes at least for six months. The age range of learners was from 18 to 30 years.

### *Instrument*

The survey instrument used to collect data consisted of 34 items from the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) designed by Horwitz (1987). This instrument has been widely used (Bernat, 2006; Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Horwitz, 1989; Siebert, 2003; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003; Yang, 1999) to assess learners and teachers' beliefs in relation to second or foreign language learning. Nikitina and Furuoka (2006) showed that the BALLI is a valid and suitable tool for research on language learning beliefs in different context. The BALLI measures learners' beliefs about five language learning categories: (1) foreign language aptitude, (2) the difficult of learning language, (3) the nature of language learning, (4) learning and communication strategies, and (5) motivation and expectations. Participants were required to respond to the items on a 5-point rating scale, with 34 items ranging from agree (1), neutral (2), and disagree (5). The reliability of the inventory was estimated at 0.92 in this study.

### *Procedure*

The BALLI was administered on the English learners in this study. The learners were not informed that they were involved in a study to investigate their beliefs about learning English but they were asked to check their ideas. They were told that there were no right or wrong answers. What was important was that they answered according to their beliefs about learning English. Most of the learners completed the inventory in 20 minutes and all the instruments were collected back for analysis. Three months later, the same instrument was administered again on the same group of learners. In both sessions they did not have any difficulties in understanding any of the statements in the BALLI. They were asked to write their names but they did not know that they would be asked to answer to the BALLI in three month again.

### *Data Analysis*

Descriptive analysis was used to calculate the frequency of responses for each item. Additionally, the BALLI is a multidimensional instrument where each item assesses a specific belief about language learning. Therefore, the scores for the items were not added together or averaged. For ease of viewing, the BALLI item ratings were collapsed into three categories namely agree (for strongly agree and agree), neutral and disagree (for disagree and strongly disagree). Changes in beliefs were investigated through comparing learners' responses to each item in the five language learning areas over the interval.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of this study have revealed some interesting insights into learners' beliefs about language learning and the variability of learner beliefs over time. The frequency of learners' responses for the items in the BALLI and the relevant discussion are presented according to the five language areas of the instrument (outlined in the method section) in Tables 1 to 5. This is then followed by results on the stability of beliefs of the learners over time in tables 6 to 8.

### *Learners Beliefs about Learning English*

#### *Foreign Language Aptitude*

The items in this language area refer to various aspects of the individual's potential to be successful in language learning. The findings show that majority of the English learners (40 of them) agreed with the commonly held belief that it is easier for children than adults to learn a second language (table1). Their beliefs were consistent with research findings that show a positive effect of young age on aspects of

language learning such as phonological development (Patkowski, 1990) and fluency (Donato, Antonek & Tucker, 1996). Similarly, English learners in the present study agreed that some people have special abilities for learning a foreign language. Their ideas about item 10: It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one were mostly neutral (21 out of 50), seventeen of them agreed and the twelve left disagreed. Examining item 11 just one participant believed that people who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages and most of them (31) disagreed. This response suggests that the majority of the learners do not make a distinction between an aptitude for the sciences versus an aptitude for the humanities-type subjects — a distinction put forward by Gardner (1983) in his Multiple Intelligence theory distinguishing linguistic intelligence from logical/mathematical intelligence.

For Item 16, twenty three learners agreed that they had this special ability while some of them (15 out of 50) believed that they did not have this special ability although the majority of them (45 out of 50) agreed that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language (Item 33). Learners' response to Item 33 is very encouraging as it shows a positive attitude towards learning a foreign language among EFL learners. The effect of culture and gender were addressed by Items 6 and 19. Here, 25 of them agreed that people in Iran are very good at learning second languages while six of them were neutral about this and the remaining nine disagreed with the statement. In terms of gender ability in language learning, the learners had interesting beliefs. Half of them agreed with the statement while 10 were neutral as to whether women are better than men are at learning languages and 15 of them disagreed that Women are better than men are at learning foreign languages.

Regarding the effect of intelligence on language learning aptitude (Item 30), the learners believed differently. Twenty two of the learners agreed with this belief while 17 were neutral and eleven disagreed that People who speak more than one language are very intelligent. According to Lightbrown and Spada (1999), intelligence is a strong factor in language learning when it comes to language analysis and rule deducting but it has less effect on language learning in the classroom where instruction focuses more on communication and interaction.

*Table 1: Foreign Language Aptitude*

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
1	It is easier for children than adults to learn a second language.	40	5	14
2	Some people have a special ability for learning a second language.	31	10	9
6	People in my country are very good at learning second languages.	25	16	9
10	It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	17	21	12
11	People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.	1	18	31
16	I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	23	12	15
19	Women are better than men are at learning foreign languages.	25	10	15
30	People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.	22	17	11
33	Everyone can learn to speak a second language.	55	2	3

Note: A = Agree and Agree; N = Neutral; D = Disagree and Strongly Disagree

*Difficulty of Language Learning*

Items 3, 4, 15, 25 and 34 were on difficulty of language learning. Nearly all of the learners (46 out of 25) agreed that some languages are easier than others (Item 3) while three of them were neutral and the remaining one disagreed with the statement. Regarding difficulty of the English language, 17 of them rated the English language as a language of medium difficulty while 25 in the group rated it as very easy or easy and the remaining 8 agreed that English is very difficult.

Meanwhile, a few (19 out of 45) of the learners agreed that it would take 3 to 5 years to learn a foreign language well if one spent an hour a day learning the language, although 25 of them believe that it would take 5 to 10 years to learn a language well if one spent an hour a day learning the language. As it is obvious in the table .2 nobody answered that people can learn English less than 1 year if they spent one hour a day learning a language. Items 25 and 34 assessed the relative difficulty of language skills (speaking, reading, and writing). Learners appeared to be divided on this issue. Three of the learners agreed with the statement while nineteen were neutral on this and a larger number (28 persons) disagreed with the statement. For Item 34, there were more learners agreeing that it is easier to read than to write a foreign language; forty of them and seven of the learners were neutral and the remaining three disagreed. It is important to mention that items 15 and 34 had different answers in the interval which will be completely explained in table 6.

*Table 2: Difficulty of Language Learning*

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
3	Some languages are easier than others are.	46	3	1
4	The English language is*	8	17	25
15	If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take them to speak it very well?			
	Less than 1 year	-	-	-
	1 to 2 years	8		
	3 to 5 years	19		
	5 to 10 years	10		
	You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day	13		
25	It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.	3	19	28
34	It is easier to read than to write a foreign language.	40	7	3

Note: A = Agree and Agree; N = Neutral; D = Disagree and Strongly Disagree \* A = A very difficult or difficult language; N = language of medium difficulty; D = A very easy or easy language

*Nature of Language Learning*

Items 8, 12, 17, 23, 27 and 28 are related to the nature of the language learning process. Items 8 and 12 investigated learners' opinion regarding the role of cultural contact in language learning. More than half of the learners (36) agreed that it is necessary to learn about the culture of the foreign language under study in order to speak the language while the 10 of them were neutral and the remaining 4 disagreed about this view. A larger number of learners (42), however, supported the immersion-type setting in language learning, judging from their

response to Item 12, that it is best to learn English in an English-speaking country. In such a setting, there would be greater exposure to the foreign language, its culture, and its people. A majority of the learners (38 out of 25) agreed that the most important part of learning a foreign language is learning new words (Item 17). Two persons however, did not agree that vocabulary acquisition was that important while ten neither agreed nor disagreed. For Item 23, learners were asked to rate the importance of learning grammar, and the remaining eight disagreed this view. Half of the learners agreed with the statement but seven of the learners were neutral. Mentioning that participants' beliefs were changed about this item over time is important. Item 27 surveyed learners' views regarding learning English as different from other types of learning. Thirty out of fifty learners agreed with the statement and just three of them disagreed this statement. Meanwhile, quite a large number of learners (30 out of 50) agreed with the belief that translating from one's mother tongue is a highly valued learning strategy in language learning (Item 28). Therefore their belief does not support the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, where the target language is used during authentic, functional, communicative activities, and students' native language has no particular role in the classroom. The best way for learners to achieve native-like control of the target language is to think in that language rather than to translate or reprocess the target language into their mother tongue. However, five of the learners, agreed that translation is not important in language learning while the rest were neutral on the matter. The answers to this item were changed over time.

Table 3: Nature of Language Learning

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
8	It is necessary to learn about English-speaking cultures to speak English.	36	10	4
12	It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.	42	3	5
17	The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning new words.	38	10	2
23	The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning grammar.	25	17	8
27	Learning a foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects.	30	13	3
28	The most important part of learning English is learning to translate from my own language.	30	9	5

Note: A = Agree and Agree; N = Neutral; D = Disagree and Strongly Disagree

*Learning and Communication Strategies*

BALLI items 7, 9, 13, 14, 18, 21, 22 and 26 investigate the use of learning and communication strategies in language learning practices. most of the learners(40 out of 50) believed that it is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation (Item 7), but the majority of them(43 out of 50) did not believe that one should only say something when one can say it correctly (Item 9). This finding revealed that while they support the idea of achieving excellent pronunciation, they also believed that it is all right to make mistakes, as is reflected in their responses to two Items 13 and 14. It is elating to note that many of these learners believe in the benefits of practicing speaking in English without waiting to be perfect and accurate before attempting to use the language. In fact, as seen in their responses to these two items, most of them enjoy practicing speaking in English with people who speak English well and felt that it is okay to guess when they don't know a word. Griffiths (2003) said that instead of literally translating, painstakingly, and meticulously looking up every new word, good language learners guess and keep going. Guessing the meaning of new words instead of relying too much on mono or bilingual dictionaries is a useful skill. Nearly all of the learners also believe that it is important to repeat and practice a lot when trying to master the language (Item 18). If this belief is put into practice more often, it would help them to improve their proficiency in English, as this English proverb says practice makes perfect. Meanwhile, superiority of the learners appeared to agree over whether it is important to practice using tapes and CD-ROMs and nobody disagrees with this item (Item 26). Learners' responses to Item 21 are encouraging in that half of them did not feel shy about conversing in English. Ten of them indicated that they felt shy speaking in English with other people and fifteen of them had neutral ideas in this view. Finally, for Item 22, greater of the learners did not agree that if mistakes are not corrected immediately, it is difficult to 'unlearn' them. Few (3) of them agreed with this while the rest (9) neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement.

Table4: Learning and Communication Strategies

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
7	It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.	40	6	1
9	You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	3	4	43
13	I enjoy practicing English with people who speak English as a native language/speak English very fluently.	45	4	1
14	It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in English.	43	5	2
18	It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	44	4	2
21	I feel shy speaking English with other people.	10	15	25
22	If beginning students are allowed to make mistakes in English it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	3	9	38
26	It is important to practice with cassettes/tapes or CD ROMs.	46	4	-

Note: A = Agree and Agree; N = Neutral; D = Disagree and Strongly Disagree

*Motivation and Expectations*

The items in this language category concern the desires and opportunities learners associate with learning English. The responses of the majority of the learners indicates that they were positive about their ability to speak well in English (Item 5), have a strong desire to do well in English (Item 31), and they would like to improve in English through getting to know native speakers of English (Item 32). Learners' responses to items 29 and specially 24 suggest that they have strong motivation to learn English. A majority of the learners indicated that they would like to learn English because of its utility value, that is, it enables them to understand native speakers of English better (Item 24) and to have better job opportunities (Item 29). For the item20 most of the learners (38 out of55) believed that people in Iran feel like that it is important to speak English.as the table shows the majority of learners had a positive attitude and motivation toward learning English. There was no change in their beliefs in the motivation and expectations area.

*Table 5: Motivation and Expectations*

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
5	I believe I will learn to speak English very well.	42	8	-
20	People in my country feel that it is important to speak English.	38	9	3
24	I would like to learn English so that I can better understand people who speak English as a native language.	40	7	3
29	If I learn to speak English very well, I will have better job opportunities.	29	13	8
31	I want to speak English very well.	46	4	-
32	I would like to get to know people who speak English as a native language.	30	14	6

Note: A = Agree and Agree; N = Neutral; D = Disagree and Strongly Disagree

*Table 6: Change in Beliefs about Difficulty of Language Learning*

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
15	If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take them to speak it very well?			
	i. less than 1 year	-	-	-
	ii. 1 to 2 years	(8)5		
	iii. 3 to 5 years	(19)15		
	iv. 5 to 10 years	(10)25		
	v. You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day	(13)10		
34	It is easier to read than to write a foreign language.	(40)35	(7)9	(3)6

Note: the numbers in the parenthesis show the results of the first survey

*The Stability of Beliefs over Time*

The results of the BALLI administered learners after three months showed that there was no change in two of the five language learning areas, namely foreign language aptitude, and motivation and expectations. There were, however, slight changes ranging from .5% to 9% in the responses to two of the items on difficulty of language learning, five of the learning and communication strategies and two items on nature of language learning, as presented in Tables 6 and 7 and 8. As is evident in Table 6, there seems to be a change in learners' beliefs regarding the issue of the length of time it would take to learn a foreign language well. While there were still 19 learners who indicated that it would take 3 to 5 years the rest of the learners seemed to be in favor of a shorter length of time compared to previously. There was an increase of 1.5% of those who believed that it would take less than a year, decrease of 2% for those who believed it would take between 1 to 2 years, and an increase of 7.5% for those who thought it would take 5 to 10 years to master the language and finally an increase of 1.5% in the last statement: You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.

It could be that the experience and knowledge acquired over the past three months have shown them that it does not really take that much time to master the language. Another change in belief is seen in Item 34, regarding whether it is easier to read than to write a foreign language. The number of learners who were neutral on this seems to have increased by 1% while those who agreed with the statement decreased by 2.5% and those who disagreed increased by 1.5%.

*Table 7: Nature of Language Learning*

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
23	The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning grammar.	25(27)	(6)7	(8)10
28	The most important part of learning English is learning to translate from my own language.	(30)36	(9)4	5(10)

The results about the nature of language learning were different in two items 23 and 28. In 23, there was an increase of 1% in learners' beliefs regarding the most important part of learning a foreign language is learning grammar, a decrease of 2% who were neutral and an increase of 1% who disagreed this view. Regarding item 28 there was an increase of 2.5% who agreed that the most important part of learning English is learning to translate from my own language, the number of learners who were neutral have decreased by 2.5% by which those who disagreed with the statement increased by 3%.

Meanwhile, the bulk of the change in beliefs seems to be concerning the learning and communication strategies. As shown in table 8 there was an increase 9% in the number of learners who agreed that it is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation while there was an increase of 1.5% in those who were neutral and an increase of .5% who disagreed the statement (item 7). The next strategy was that you shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly (item 9), the results show that the learners who agreed this view had a decrease of 5%, there was an increase of 1.5% in those who had a neutral idea and finally a decrease of 1% in those who disagreed this statement. With the respect to the matter of whether it is Ok to guess if you don't know a word in English, there appears to be an increase of 2% in those who agreed this statement and a decrease of about 1% in those who were neutral and disagreed this view. As for the attitude to feel shy speaking English with other people (item 21) learners seemed to have changed their beliefs on this, judging by the drop of 3.5% in those who agreed with the statement, decrease of 3% in those who were neutral and an increase of 6% who disagreed this view. The last statement which revealed the learners change in strategy was item 22 which states if beginning students are allowed to make mistakes in English it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on; there was a decline of 5% in those who agreed and a drop of 1.5% in those who were neutral, and a rise of 1% in those who disagreed this statement. Although the percentage change in beliefs is small, learners appear to be more divided on the issues put forward in the statements on learning and communication strategies. Generally, the findings concur with those of previous researchers (Alexander and Dochy, 1994; Chawhan and Oliver, 2000; Cotterall, 1995; Ellis, 2008; Horwitz, 1999) in that learner beliefs can change with time due to new experiences and learning as well as change of attitude.

Table 8: Learning and Communication Strategies

Items		Frequency		
		A	N	D
7	It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.	(40)46	(6)4	(1) 0
9	You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	(3)2	(4)7	(43)41
14	It's OK to guess if you don't know a word in English.	(43)47	(5)3	(2) 0
21	I feel shy speaking English with other people.	(10)3	(15)9	(25)38
22	If beginning students are allowed to make mistakes in English it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	(3)4	(9)6	(38)40

## CONCLUSION

In summary, the analyses of findings in this study provide some interesting insights into EFL learners' beliefs about the five language areas covered in the BALLI. Learners' responses to nine of the items changed slightly ranging from 0.5% to 9% after three months when they were asked to report on their beliefs again, supporting the view that learner beliefs are situational and dynamic in nature. In terms of pedagogical implications, the findings presented here will be useful to teacher educators in planning activities, to learners and administrators that could increase awareness and even adjustment of learners' beliefs about language learning. However, it is important to pay attention that the beliefs about language learning held by the respondents in this study are only those specified in the BALLI instrument. As Bernat (2006) noted, for such a cognitively and affectively rich construct such as one's belief system, it is difficult to capture the complete picture merely through responses to a set of normative statements. Future researchers might want to employ a contextual approach and use a variety of qualitative data collection methods such as semi-structured or unstructured interviews, observations, and questionnaires to gain more insights into learners' and even teachers' beliefs and any change in their beliefs over time.

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HEDGE AS MITIGATION DEVICES IN THE NOVEL “*KETIKA CINTA BERTASBIH*”

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**ABSTRACT**

This paper will analyze one of mitigation device type in the novel “*Ketika Cinta Bertasbih*”. It focuses on hedge, how it works as mitigation device. Hedge in this paper is to show how the speaker can save his or her utterance because of uncertain utterance. It will be divided into two classes according to Fraser (2010), propositional hedging and speech act hedging. These classes will help the speaker utters something and will achieve speaker’s goal easier. Finally, the aims of this paper are to find the function, the perlocutionary act of hedge and to find hedge as a mitigation devices in conversation to achieve speaker’s goal easier and to save his or her utterance because of uncertain utterance.

**KEYWORDS:** Hedge, Mitigation Devices, Indonesian Novel.

**INTRODUCTION**

When two or three people open a conversation, they or one of them will do some impolite utterance. The interlocutor will ignore the speaker’s utterance or some will feel offended of the utterance. In order to avoid the interlocutor’s negative response, mitigation device is needed. The function of mitigation is to soften the speaker’s utterance. As Caffi (1999), mitigation is “the attenuation of unwelcome effects on the hearer”. Many type of mitigation devices; shield, bushes, opener, softener, filler, preparator, grounder, disarmer, expander, promise of reward. One of the types is Hedge. Hedge occurs if someone utters something inaccurately, something uncertainty. Hedge usually involves adjective, adverbs, predicate adjectives, predicate nominal and declarative sentence such as *actually, extremely, anyway, I guess*, etc. In bahasa, the word or phrase or even sentence which is involved to hedge is the same as in English. But the function may be different. Hedge can be affected by the speaker’s speech act. One of the uses of hedge also will affect the perlocutionary act where the interlocutor will do the speaker’s utterance as the function of mitigation device; the interlocutor will achieve the speaker’s goal easier. In this case if the speaker uses hedge in their utterances the achievement will be occurred. But what if the result is unequal from the theory?. As the background above, the authors will analyze beside the function of hedge as mitigation. The authors analyze the perlocutionary act and to analyze whether hedge as mitigation is same as the theory. Here, the authors use *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* as data.

**THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

Hedge is introduced famously by Lakoff (1972) as fuzziness. “For me, some of the most interesting questions are raised by the study of words whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness – words whose job it is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy (195)”. As Hyland (1998) wrote the function of hedge is either a lack of complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition or a desire not to express that commitment categorically. Another hand, the function of hedge is to express inaccurate the speaker utterance. Here, hedge as a device or known as mitigation device is to make easier the speaker conveys his or her meaning or to attenuate the strength of utterance. As Zuck and Zuck (1986) mentioned that “Hedge is the process whereby the authors reduce the strength of a statement.” Hedge in this paper will be divided into two classes; propositional hedging and speech act hedging. Propositional hedging involves predicate adjectives, predicate nominal, and declarative sentence. It where the truth value of the proposition is affected (Prince *et al*,1982). Another class of hedge is speech act hedging where hedge is depended on the speech act. It is not a semantic point of view anymore but it is a pragmatic point of view and it focuses on illocutionary force of speech act. As Brown and Levinson (1987) said that

*“A hedge is a particle, word, or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is partial, or true only in certain respect; or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected.” (145)*

Here hedge re-divided into two classes according to Prince *et al*, Fraser and Brown and Levinson that are approximators and shields. Approximators is another term of propositional hedging which work on the propositional content. For example: *sort of, kind of, somewhat, some, a little bit*, etc. Second type is Shields or speech act hedging. It is to changing the relationship between propositional content and the speaker’s uncertain utterance. For example: *I think, probably, as far as I can tell, right now, I have to believe, I don’t see that, etc*. Here, Hedge will be related to speech act. Speech act divided into three; locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act. According to Yule (1996) locutionary act is act which has no a meaningful power. Illocutionary act is act which has a meaningful power and perlocutionary act is the effect of locutionary act and illocutionary act. Those are the theories of hedge are bringing the authors to analyze; my focus is on hedge as mitigation device in Indonesian novel which is in Indonesian sentences.

**DATA AND METHODS**

The data in this research are from Indonesian Novel titled *Ketika Cinta Bertasbih part I. Ketika Cinta Bertasbih* written by Habiburrahman El Shirazy. He was a student who graduated from Al Azhar Cairo University, founder and main owner of Basmala Islamic boarding school. The novel is ...these were best selling novel in 2002 and had many awards such as the most favorite book in 2005. Because of its popularity, these novels were made as movie and became one of favorite movie in that time. The story was about finding their soul mate. The method of this research is the writer sorts and finds hedge in the novel. and the data are analyze by the type and the function as mitigation devices. The data are literally and followed by the analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This research focuses on hedge as mitigation devices in novel “*Ketika Cinta Bertasbih*”. It would examine the function, the perlocutionary act of hedge as mitigation devices. Based on the data, the authors found most of the uses of hedge in the novel are; *kayaknya, jika* or *kalau, mungkin* and *ngomong-ngomong*. The authors took some data which contain the hedges.

- (1) Pak Ali : “Kalau boleh tahu berapa umur mu Mas Khairul?”  
*If may know how age you, Mas Khairul?*  
“May I know how old are you, Mas Khairul?”
- Khairul : “Dua puluh delapan Pak.”  
*Twenty Eight Sir.*  
“Twenty Eight years old, sir.”
- Pak Ali : “Kalau aku perhatikan, gurat wajah mu lebih tua sedikit dari umur mu.  
*if I notice line face you more old little from age you.*  
**Kayaknya** kamu memikul sebuah beban yang lumayan berat.  
*Like you carry a burden which quite heavy.*  
Aku perhatikan kau lebih banyak bekerja daripada belajar di  
*I notice you more many work then study in*  
Mesir ini. Boleh aku tahu tentang hal ini?.”  
*Egypt this. May I know about thing this?*  
“I see your face is quite older than your age. As if you carry a heavy burden. I notice you like working than studying in Egypt. May I know what is happened?”
- Khairul : “Ah Pak Ali terlalu perhatian pada saya. Saya memang harus bekerja keras Pak.  
*ah Mr. Ali too care to I. I indeed have to work hard Sir.*  
Bagi saya ini bukan beban. Saya tidak merasakannya sebagai beban.  
*For I this not burden. I not feel as burden.*  
Meskipun orang lain mungkin melihatnya sebagai beban.  
*Eventhough people other maybe see as burden.*  
Saya memang harus bekerja untuk menghidupi adik-adik saya di Indonesia.  
*I indeed have to work for live sister sister I in Indonesia.*  
“You too care about me. I indeed must work hard sir. For me it is not a burden and I don’t feel as a burden. Even though other people see as it. I must work for supporting my sisters’ finance in Indonesia.”

In the data (1) *kayaknya* is hedge because *kayaknya* shows the speaker hesitation. In English *kayaknya* is translated to *as if*. *Kalau aku perhatikan, gurat wajah mu lebih tua sedikit dari umur mu. Kayaknya kamu memikul sebuah beban yang lumayan berat*. The sentence is uttered by Pak Ali to Khairul. Here, the speaker uses hedge; speech act hedging which affect the speech act of the speaker’s uncertain utterance. The function in the data is the speaker does not sure whether his utterance is right or wrong. *As if* can represent the function of hedge to cover the speaker’s inaccurate utterance. The perlocutionary act of hedge for interlocutor is when the speaker utters *kayaknya*, the interlocutor covers his condition from the speaker, but in the end he tells his condition. Here, hedge *kayaknya* as mitigation device works because the interlocutor follow the speaker’s goal to achieve easier the goal.

- (2) Khairul : “Apa tidak ada topic lain Pak, selain Eliana?”  
*what not there topic another Sir, beside Eliana?*  
Pagi- pagi gini sudah membahas Eliana. Eliana lagi.”  
*Morning morning already discuss Eliana. Eliana more.*  
“Is not another topic beside Eliana’s topic, sir? In the morning, we have already talked about her.”
- Pak Ali : “Aku ingin menceritakan hal penting pada mu. Untuk kebaikan mu.”  
*I want tell thing important to you. For goodness you.*  
“I want to tell an important thing to you. It is for your goodness.”
- Khairul : “Tentang Eliana?”  
*about Eliana?*  
“about Eliana?”
- Pak Ali : “**bisa dikatakan tentang Eliana bisa juga dikatakan tidak.**”  
*can say about Eliana can also say not.*  
“It can be said about Eliana and it can be not.”
- Khairul : “mendengar nama Eliana saja saya sudah bosan Pak.”  
*Hear name Eliana just I already bored Sir.*  
“hearing Eliana’s name, I have been already bored, sir.”
- Pak Ali : “Ah yang benar?”  
*ah which right?*  
“are you serious?”
- Khairul : “Benar Pak, sungguh,”  
*right Sir, really.*  
“Yes, I am sir.”
- Pak Ali : “Mas, bapak ini sudah makan asam garam lebih dari mu.  
*Bro, father this already eat sour salt more from you.*  
Bapak tidak bisa kau bohongi.  
*Father not can you lie.*  
Jujur saja, bapak sungguh memperhatikan mu empat hari ini. Dan bapak  
*Honest just father*  
*really notice you four day this. And father*  
Melihat kamu ini sesungguhnya sangat mengagumi Putri Pak Dubes itu.  
*See you this really very admire princess Sir ambassador that*  
Bahkan bapak berani menyimpulkan kamu itu sebenarnya suka sama dia.”  
*Even father brave conclude you that actually like to she.*  
“hey, I have experienced the bittersweet of life than you. I can not be lied by you. I have been noticing  
you for four days. And I noticed that you admire the ambassador’s

daughter. Even I dare to say that you really like her.”

In the data (2) *bisa dikatakan tentang Eliana bisa juga dikatakan tidak* is hedge because *bisa dikatakan tentang Eliana bisa juga dikatakan tidak* shows the speaker hesitation. In English that sentence is translated to *It can be said about Eliana and it can be not. bisa dikatakan tentang Eliana bisa juga dikatakan tidak*. The sentence is uttered by Pak Ali to Khairul. Here, the speaker uses hedge; speech act hedging which affect the speech act of the speaker’s uncertain utterance. The function in the data is the speaker does not sure whether his utterance will be heard by the interlocutor. *It can be said about Eliana and it can be not* can represent the function of hedge to cover the speaker’s inaccurate utterance. The perlocutory act of hedge for interlocutor is when the speaker utters *bisa dikatakan tentang Eliana bisa juga dikatakan tidak*, the interlocutor seems lazy to hear the speaker’s utterance, so the conversation did not go well. Here, hedge *bisa dikatakan tentang Eliana bisa juga dikatakan tidak* as mitigation device does not work because the interlocutor does not follow the speaker’s goal.

- (3) Eliana : "Tapi tadi malam dia berkata kasar di telpon pada saya Pak.  
*but ago night he say rude in phone to I Sir.*  
 Dia juga memutus pembicaraan seenaknya saja!  
*He too decide conversation arbitrarily just!*  
 Apa itu tidak penghinaan Pak Ali?!"  
*What that not insult Sir Ali?*  
 "but last night he said rudely to me on the phone. He also stopped the conversation. Was that an insult, sir?"
- Pak Ali : "Mungkin saat itu Mas Khairul sedang capek. Letih.  
*maybe moment that bro Khairul average tired. Exhausted.*  
 Orang kalau letih itu pikirannya bisa tidak jernih.  
*People if exhausted that thinking can not clear.*  
 Cobalah ingat, kemarin itu ia kerja sejak pagi sampai malam."  
*Try remember, yesterday that he work since morning until night.*  
 "Semestinya Mbak Eliana harus berterima kasih pada Mas Khairul.  
*Should sister Eliana have to thank you to brother Khairul.*  
 Enam hari ini tenaga dan waktunya ia curahkan untuk membantu Mbak  
*Six day this energy and time he lavished to help sister*  
 Bahkan dalam kondisi sangat letih, dia masih mau membakar ikan *Even in condition*  
*really exhausted. He still want burn fish*  
 untuk membantu Mbak Eliana. Dan pagi ini,  
*to help Sister Eliana. And morning this,*  
 dia mengirim sesuatu yang sangat Mbak suka.  
*he send something which very sister like.*  
 Semestinya Mbak berterima kasih sama dia. Saya dengar orang Barat yang  
*Should sister thank you to he. I listen people west which*  
 terdidik itu mudah mengucapkan terima kasih pada orang yang  
*educate that easy say thank you to people which*  
 membantunya."  
*help.*  
 "Maybe last night, Khairul was being tired. Exhausted. If People are being exhausted, their thinking is not clear. Try to remember. He had been working since in the morning until in the night. You should say thank you to him. He had already spent his energy and his time to help you. Even, in exhausted condition. He still wanted to grill the fish. And in the morning, he sent something that you like. I hear that educated foreigner is easy to say thank you."
- Eliana : "Baik Pak. Saya akan meneleponnya untuk meminta maaf. Terima kasih ya Pak.  
*Fine Sir. I will call for ask sorry. Thank you yes Sir.*  
 "Oke. I am going to call him to ask apologize. Thank you Sir."
- (4) Sara : "Saya mengundang Tuan nanti malam jam 19.30 di Abu Sakr Restaurant  
*I invite Mr. later night clock 19.30 in Abu Sakr Restaurant*  
 di Qashr Aini Street, tepat di depan Qashr El Aini Hospital.  
*in Qashr Aini Street exactly in front Qashr El Aini Hospital.*  
 Setelah berkenalan dengan Tuan di perpustakaan itu,  
*After introduce with Mr. in library that.*  
 saya lalu mencari data lebih jauh tentang Tuan di bagian kemahasiswaan.  
*I then search data more far about Mr. in part student*  
 Saya jadi mengetahui banyak hal tentang Tuan. Saya juga sering melihat  
*I become know more thing about Mr.. I too often see*  
 Tuan melintas di gerbang kampus, tapi Tuan pasti tidak tahu.  
*Mr. pass in gate campus. But Mr. exactly not know.*  
 Saya harap Tuan bisa memenuhi undangan saya malam ini"  
*I hope Mr. can fill invitation I night this.*  
 "I invite you tonight 7.30 PM at Abu Sakr Restaurant in Qashr Aini Street, in front of Qashr El Aini Hospital. After I knew you in the library. Then, I looked for more about you. I often see you passing the campus gate. But you do not know. I hope you can fill my invitation tonight."
- Furqan : "Maaf, mungkin saya tidak bisa Nona. Ada yang harus saya kerjakan."  
*sorry, maybe I not can miss. There which have to I do.*  
 "I am sorry miss, maybe I can not fill your invitation. There is something that I have to do."
- Sara : "Tidak harus Tuan jawab sekarang. Lihat saja nanti malam,  
*not have to Mr. answer now. Look just later night,*  
 jika ada waktu silakan datang. Jika tidak, tidak apa.  
*if there time please come. If not, not what,*  
 Namun saya sangat senang jika Tuan bisa datang. Ini saja Tuan,  
*but I very happy if Mr. can come. This just Mr.*  
 maaf mengganggu. Sampai bertemu nanti malam. Syukran."

*sorry disturb. Until meet later night. Syukran (thank you)*  
"you do not answer now. We will see tonight. If you have time, please come. If not, it is alright. But I am very happy if you can come. That is all, sorry to disturb you. See you later. Thank you."  
Furqan : *"Afwan."*  
*sorry.*  
"I am sorry"

In the data (3) and (4) there two statements which contain hedge  *mungkin*. It shows the speaker hesitation. In English  *mungkin* is translated to  *maybe*.  *Mungkin saat itu Mas Khairul sedang capek. Letih and Maaf, mungkin saya tidak bisa Nona*. Here, the speakers use hedge; Propositional hedging which contains adverb is  *maybe*. The functions of hedge in the data are to express the speaker's doubt. In data (3) beside express the speaker's doubt,  *maybe* here has another function; to save Khairul's face. While in data (4) beside express the speaker's doubt,  *maybe* here has another function; to reject the Sara's invitation. In data (3) the perlocutionary act of hedge to interlocutor is when the speaker utters  *maybe*, the interlocutor realizes that her attitude was bad to Khairul and she felt guilty. Here, hedge as mitigation device works because the interlocutor follows the speaker's goal. In data (4) the perlocutionary act of hedge for interlocutor is when the speaker utters  *maybe*, the interlocutor does not want to understand about the speaker utterance. Here, hedge as mitigation device does not work because the interlocutor does not follow the speaker's goal to achieve easier the goal.

- (5) Furqan : "Ya siapa ini?"  
*Yes who this?*  
"Yes, who is this?"  
Sara : "Ini Sara, Tuan Furqan. Mengingatkan aja. Anda tidak lupa dengan undangan saya bukan? Pukul 19.30 di Abu Sakr Restaurant."  
*This Sara, Mr. Furqan. Remember just. You not forget with invitation I not? Clock 19.30 in Abu Sakr Restaurant.*  
"I am Sara, Furqan. To remind about my invitation, you do not forget, do you? At 07.30 PM at Abu Sakr Restaurant."  
Furqan : "Saya tidak lupa. Tapi saya kelihatannya tidak bisa datang"  
*I not forget. But I look not can come.*  
"I do not forget. But I think I can not come."  
Sara : "Saya sangat berharap Tuan datang."  
*I very hope Mr. come.*  
"I wish you came."  
Furqan : "**Kalau** tidak datang semoga Nona tidak kecewa."  
*if not come, hope miss not disappointed.*  
"If I can not come, I hope you will not be disappointed."  
Sara : "Justru saya kuatir, jika Anda tidak datang, Anda menyesal."  
*exactly I worry, if you not come. You regret.*  
Undangan ini mungkin hanya sekali Anda dapatkan dalam hidup Anda"  
*Invitation this maybe only once you get in life you.*  
"I am exactly worried. If you can not come. You will regret it. Maybe this is the invitation that you get once in your life."  
Furqan : "Terima kasih, saya merasa tersanjung."  
*thank you. I feel flattered.*  
"Thank you. I feel to be honored."  
Sara : "Saya merasa lebih tersanjung jika Anda berkenan datang."  
*I feel more flattered if you can come.*  
"I will feel more to be honored, if you can come."  
(6) Erna : "Mbak kita jadi ke Palace?"  
*sister we become to Palace?*  
"Anna, are we going to Palace?"  
Anna: "Sekarang, sudah jam tujuh lebih lima, tapi Wan Aina dan Sholihati belum pulang."  
*now, already clock seven more five, but Wan Aina and Sholihati not yet return home.*  
Apa tidak terlalu malam jika kita keluar setelah mereka pulang?"  
*What not too night if we out after they return home?*  
"already seven past five now, but Wan Aina and Sholihati have not come back home yet. will not be too late we go out if we wait them come back home?"  
Zahraza: "Iya, terlalu malam. Nanti dilihat orang tidak baik."  
*yes, too night. Later see people not good.*  
"yes it is too late. It will be a gossip"  
Erna : "Atau tidak usah ke Palace saja Mbak. Nanti kalau mereka pulang kontak Babay saja. Pesan makanan minta diantar ke sini."  
*Or not have to to Palace just sister. Later if they return home contact Babay just. Order food ask deliver to here.*  
"Or we do not have to go to Palace. If they come home just call Babay. Order some foods, ask him to deliver it"  
Anna : "Yah, nanti **kalau** mereka pulang kita musyawarah. Enaknya bagaimana."  
*Yes. Later if they return home we discuss. Taste how.*  
Yang jelas malam ini insya Allah tetap syukuran  
*Which clear night this insya Allah still expression of gratitude*  
Seperti yang saya janjikan."  
*like which I promise.*  
"oke. If they come back. We will discuss it. For tonight, I hope the thanksgiving party is held like I promise."  
Erna : "Oke"  
*Oke*  
"Oke"

In the data (5) and (6) there two statements which contain hedge *Jika* shows the speaker's expectation. In English, *Jika* is translated to *If*. *Kalau tidak datang semoga Nona tidak kecewa* and *nanti kalau mereka pulang*. Here, the speakers use hedge; Propositional hedging which contains noun is *if* and adverb is *exactly*. The functions of hedge in the data are to express the speaker's expectation. In data (5) the perlocutionary act of hedge for interlocutor is when the speaker utters *if*, the interlocutor felt worry her invitation was rejected by the speaker and in her utterance contains *justru = exactly* which she has a big expectation and she tends to threaten the speaker. Here, hedge as mitigation device does not work because the interlocutor does not follow the speaker's goal. In data (6) the perlocutionary act of hedge for interlocutor is when the speaker utters *if*, the interlocutor follows the speaker utterance. Here, hedge as mitigation device work because the interlocutor follows the speaker's goal.

- (7) Pak Ali : "Eh **ngomong-ngomong** Mbak Eliana sudah makan pagi?"  
*talk talk sister Eliana already eat morning?*  
 "ehm. By the way, have you already had breakfast?"  
 Eliana : "Belum Pak. Lagi tidak nafsu. Apalagi menu hotel. Sudah bosan sekali rasanya."  
*yet Sir. More not appetite. Moreover menu hotel. Already bored really taste.*  
 "not yet sir. I do not have an appetite to eat. Moreover, I do not have an appetite of the taste of hotel's food"  
 Pak Ali : "Kalau *habasy takanat* mau?"  
*If habasy takanat want?*  
 "what is about *habasy takanat*, do you want?"  
 Eliana: "Wah itu boleh Pak. Sebenarnya saya lapar. Yuk kita keluar cari *habasy*  
*that can Sir. Actually I hungry. Let's we out search habasy*  
*takanat Pak Ali yuk?*  
*takanat Sir Ali let's?*  
 "wow, I love it. Actually, I am hungry. Let's go to find *habasy takanat* sir?"  
 Pak Ali : "Tak usah keluar. Ini saya sudah bawa. Tadi saya baru saja makan  
*not have to out. This I already bring. Ago I already eat*  
*tha'miyah bil baidh. Ini saya bawa untuk Mbak Eliana.*  
*tha'miyah bil baidh. This I bring to sister Eliana.*  
 "do not have to go out. Here I bring it. I have already eaten *tha'miyah bil baidh*. Here, I bring *Habasy takanat* for you."
- (8) Khairul : "**Ngomong-ngomong** Nasir kemana kok belum pulang?"  
*talk talk Nasir where not yet return home.*  
 "by the way, where is Nasir?"  
 Nasir : "Nasir tadi pamit tidak pulang. Dia ada urusan ke Tanta  
*Nasir ago permit not return home. He there business to Tanta*  
 "Nasir asked not to go home. He has a business to Tanta."  
 Khairul : "O ya sudah kalau begitu."  
*o yes already if that.*  
 "oh, ok"

In the data (7) and (8) there statement is *ngomong-ngomog*. In English, *ngomong-ngomong* is translated to *by the way*. Here, the speaker uses hedge; speech act hedging which affect the speech act of the speaker's uncertain utterance. The function of hedge in the data is not to express the speakers' uncertain utterance but to change the topic conversation. The speakers want to know another thing so they change the topic. The perlocutionary act of hedge for interlocutor is when the speakers utter *by the way*, the interlocutors follow the speakers utterance to answer the different topic. Here, hedge as mitigation device work because the interlocutor follows the speaker's goal.

#### CONCLUSION

The data in this paper revealed that there are 30 data which contain different result. But the data contain hedge;  *mungkin, jika* and *ngomong-ngomong*. So, the authors took some data which the hedges. The data involve eight data. From the eight data, the type of hedge is propositional hedging and speech act hedging. The propositional hedging is represented by  *mungkin, jika* and *justru*. While the speech act hedging is represented by *Kayaknya, bisa dikatakan..bisa dikatakan tidak* and *ngomong-ngomong*. In the data, the function of hedge beside to show the speaker's uncertain utterance, the authors find out that there are three functions of hedge are to save the third person's face, to reject something in hedge  *mungkin* and to change the topic conversation in hedge *ngomong-ngomong*. In this paper, hedge as mitigation device is equal and there some is contradicted as the theory that mitigation device is to attenuate the strength of the speaker's utterance to achieve the speaker's goal. Hedge as mitigation device affects the perlocutionary act. The perlocutionary act which occurs in this paper is different from the theory whereas the interlocutor follows the speaker's utterance. He/she helps achieving the speaker's goal easier. In this paper, authors find out that in perlocutionary act, the interlocutor deny the speaker's utterance. He/she does not help achieving the speaker's goal.

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to measure up the impact of digital stories on reading comprehension among Iranian young learners through an internet-based instruction. The design of the study was based on experimental method through pre and post test procedure. Thus, 90 students ranging from 11 to 16 years old were selected to take a placement test based on their English course book "Family and Friends 3" and the young learners whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were chosen. Finally 60 subjects (18 boys and 42 girl, mean age = 12.7 years) were randomly divided in to three groups, two experimental and one control group. They took a pre-test of reading comprehension based on 10 digital stories based on three different groups' instructions: 1) Internet-based with pre and post reading tasks, 2) Paper-based with the same pre and post reading tasks, 3) Conventional instruction group without any pre or post reading tasks. For the first group, 10 digital stories available at the site [WWW.learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org](http://WWW.learnenglishkids.britishcouncil.org) were worked on in 10 sections, together with pre-reading and post-reading tasks. For the two other instructions the hard copy of the same 10 digital stories were used. Finally, an immediate post-test was conducted to measure the effect of instructions on reading comprehension immediately after the final section. Immediate post-test measured the learners' reading comprehension in the short-term recall. After two weeks, a delayed post-test was administered to assess the retention of the learners. Based on the results there was significant difference between the means of the three groups. Findings showed that the internet-based instruction of digital stories had the most effect on young EFL learners' reading comprehension. Moreover, it was found out that using pre and post work activities can also help to improve learners' reading comprehension.

**KEYWORDS:** Digital stories, reading comprehension, Internet-based instruction, EFL

## INTRODUCTION

Technological advances, such as more powerful personal computers and internet, directly affect the way people live and people's literacy world in this information century (Mishan, 2005, p. 242). People, nowadays, tend to rely more on computer-based resources (such as writing emails, sending free e-cards, watching online video, reading online news, transmitting instant messages and photos by Yahoo or MSN messengers, exchanging information in online chat room or discussion area) than paper-based resources (such as writing letters, sending cards and postcards, reading newspapers, magazines, novels, and sending pictures by regular mails). Other affected areas by the advance of technology, particularly, include the education system (Gulek & Demirtas, 2005, p. 1).

Recent advances in computer technology and Internet have led to opportunities to teach and learn English through practical ways and authentic materials. Today, computer technology is integrated into almost every aspect of learning in higher education: virtual classes are hold, textbooks arrive with CD-ROMs; homework is delivered and graded on the World Wide Web (WWW); audio ESL (English as a Second Language) files are available on the net; assignments are designed to be completed collaboratively through electronic mail. There are also numerous websites (e.g., ESLPOD, My English Club, Ebaby) available for independent self study especially for young learners and beginners. These websites if appropriately selected and organized can be very useful to improve all skills and proficiency level in a joyful and interesting way. Today's students must be involved in both text and multimedia which can help them gain four skills (i.e., listening, reading, writing and speaking), through understanding and creating by using their multisensory abilities. Many studies (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis, 2000) suggest that integration of technology can improve student's performance, enhance motivation, and promote learning. Digital sources, such as internet-based digital stories, allow young learners to develop creative presentations and participate in a playful context. In such contexts authentic language, its culture, linguistic and paralinguistic features such as body language, prosody, and gestures can be introduced in to the classroom.

The aim of this study is to improve Iranian young learners reading skill. In this regard, one of the crucial techniques of enhancing this is to use digital stories in an internet-based instruction which is associated with meaningful and playful context for young learners. Here we have three instructions of Internet-based, paper-based, and conventional to determine which instruction is more effective to teach reading.

### *Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL)*

CALL is very well-known and applicable nowadays and can be defined as learning language in formal or informal contexts through computer technology. In CALL, learners and teachers can be involved in different activities from communicating or writing in distance courses to carry out task or leaning structure and reading. It is comprised of the combination of learners, language, and context such as physical and temporal environment or other external influences, tools, and pedagogical activities or tasks. Peers, teachers, or other practitioners can influence this process. All these factors are important and crucial in conducting research on CALL. The number of researches and studies conducted on CALL has been increased due to the increase of computer use and availability nowadays, which leads to the lack of agreed-upon standards for CALL research. Thus, in CALL research, some factors and criteria should be called upon to reduce the faults affecting research outcomes, factors such as a good theoretical support, limitation on CALL such as having a valid design, describing both the benefits and limitations of computer use. The concept of environment or context in CALL can be quickly connected to the concept of authenticity. Lived and real life (RL) environments are something undeniable in cyber and internet-based instruction (IBI) learning in that these are good infinite resources of authentic materials (Cope & Kalantzis, 2000).

Teaching of reading has been a principle focus for many years. Based on Chastain (1988) the reading goal is to read for meaning or to recreate the writers' meaning, it involves comprehension which require a productive fashion

so as to determine meaning even when some of the words, endings, and patterns are not immediately meaningful. The students should control the speed at which they read, they should not be forced to receive and process language at a rate controlled by someone else (Chastain, 1988).

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### *Theoretical Background*

Using computer technology and Internet-based syllabus may be of great help in teaching young learners. Hayati (2005, p. 75-81) states in his article "Computer and Language Teaching", the benefits of using computers in language learning, for instance, improving intonation, grammar, structure, giving learners confidence and freedom, testing learners' knowledge, self-evaluation, more contact with language in different situations, problem solving activities toward authenticity and automaticity, etc.

Computer technology and Internet can be used by teachers and authorities as a practical and useful tools to improve learning, Chen, Belkada and Okamoto (2004, p. 47) in their article "How a Web-based Course Facilitates Acquisition of English for Academic Purposes", argue that technological innovations foster changes in SLA, facilitate computer-base learning activities, and encourage student autonomy, they are ultimately tools in the hands of course authors who must use them creatively to maximize the students' language learning experience and to increase their language acquisition for communicative purposes.

There are many literatures based on the potential of technology and using computer for language teaching and learning. Dunkel (1990), for example, mentioned the possibilities of computer technology as a tool include increasing language learners' (1) self esteem, (2) vocational preparedness, (3) language proficiency and (4) overall academic skills. Armstrong & Yetter-Vassot (1994) and many others explored the benefits of multimedia, the Internet, and various forms of distance education. Ehsani and Knodt (1998) emphasized the role of CALL programs, especially speech technology and voice-interactive CALL for improving learners' speaking skills. Computer technology in combination with a conferencing system was an effective tool for organizing a goal-directed writing and reading instructions.

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) in language education, which relates to the use of technology and specially computers in language teaching, is maturing and showing that can be a perfect and efficient tool in the hands of experienced teachers. CALL can offer solutions to the teaching and learning processes through different interactions. Learning would be fun and effortless and it can relatively alleviate the burden on the teachers' shoulders.

### *Internet-Based Instructions Vs Traditional Instructions*

Nowadays, many internet-based and online instructions and courses are in process and the number of students interested in such instructions is growing (Bryan & Hegelheimer, 2007). Even distance education has grown fast in recent years. Until now the benefits of using internet and online instruction was not known. On one hand, Clark (1985) maintained that media do not influence learning in any condition. On the other hand, Liu (2005, p. 61) debated that educational technologies influence learning by interacting with an individual's cognitive and social processes in constructing knowledge.

With online instruction, the student is separated from the teacher and connected through the use of a computer and the Internet. More and more institutions are offering online courses and/or programs to their students in order to meet various learners' needs. Online learning and instruction, as an integral part of the teaching and learning process in higher education, is growing as fast as the technology itself. On the other hand, conventional classroom instruction is face-to-face instruction, typically conducted in a classroom setting in a lecture/discussion/note taking mode.

Kearsley (1995) found that some benefits of online courses include increased student satisfaction, better examination scores, and a higher level of critical thinking. Other cited benefits of internet-based instruction are user-friendliness, self-paced learning and 24-hour access. With regard to information retention, Barth (1990) found that interactive multimedia computer lessons resulted in an 80 per cent retention rate, while lecture and associated visuals resulted in a mere 20 per cent retention rate in a sample of students. Other studies have found that computer-assisted instruction allows teachers to deliver the same material in a shorter period of time (Jain & Getis, 2003, p. 2)

The advancement of the Internet has created new ways of learning and teaching English as a second/foreign Language (ESL/EFL). For instance, the Internet can be considered as an ideal learning and teaching tool because it offers authentic learning resources available.

### *Reading Comprehension*

Chastain (1988, p. 216) in his book developing second language skills illustrated that reading is a receptive skill because the reader receives a message from the writer. Various writers also referred to reading as a decoding skill which considers language as a code which should be deciphered to arrive at the meaning of a message. Learners of the second language can probably learn to read more easily in compare with any other skill and also can use reading materials as a fundamental source of comprehensible input.

Chastain (1988, p. 217) inserts that the goal of reading is to read for meaning or to recreate the writer's meaning. By this definitions, reading for grammatical forms, study vocabulary or improve pronunciation is not reading at all, because reading involves comprehension. The process of the type that students may look up too many words in a laborious and painful effort to decipher the text should not be the type of reading in the mind of the teacher or students. Instead they have to learn to interact with the reading in a productive way so that be able to determine the meaning even when some of the words and patterns are not clear to them, and will be able to understand the writers' general meaning and use reading for enjoyment.

Two of the psychological, emotional, and cognitive benefits of reading skill are that students can control the speed at which they read and can also read in privacy which is an advantage for those students who are apprehensive about reading in front of their classmates. Chastain (1988, p. 218) also emphasized the importance of the relationship between reading and other skills. The teacher should not underestimate the relationship between sound and its written symbols. Without this knowledge students will not meet the objectives of a reading class with comprehensible input.

### *Experimental Background*

There are several empirical researches conducted on using stories in language teaching and learning. Ghasemi and Hajizadeh (2011, p.72) investigated teaching L2 reading comprehension through short stories, they concluded that the exposure of the students to literature as ESL material can ensure that they enjoy, understand and appreciate a life-like material while they are improving their linguistic proficiency.

Thus, it will be to the overall benefit of the ESL learners if the instructors promote the use of stories as a tool to introduce, accompany, and supplement tried and basal teaching techniques. The power and emotional impact found in a short story can offer the learners deeper meaning about the acquisition of language skills. Finally, short stories invite students to engage in a more active and informed discussion of their involvement with the text and their own personal experiences relevant to the world of the text.

Stories also can have a great effect on vocabulary learning. In a study conducted by Collins (2005), the effect of storybook reading on 70 ESL pre-school kids' vocabulary acquisition was investigated. The results showed that the treatment (i.e., explanation of new vocabulary) effected significant gains in ESL preschoolers' new vocabulary acquisition from storybook reading.

Žigárdyová (2006), in his thesis investigated the role of stories in English learning. He argues that Texts in pupils' textbooks are quite difficult to read. Pupils do not feel confident when reading some texts and exercises. Some of them can read fluently but the rest of the class needs practice. Story brings many interesting opportunities for reading and in addition it is a good way to improve the pupils' interest.

In another study by Yoon (2012) on sixty two Korean elementary students, he explored the effects of an e-book reading on the following aspects: 1) vocabulary increase over the experiment period, and 2) the changes of affective factors on learning English through an e-book. The results showed that with an e-book reading, vocabulary knowledge, motivation, and interest on reading and English learning have been remarkably increased. In addition to four skills, Digital stories through their multisensory effects can bridge the gap between two cultures and may have higher thinking benefits. The combination of animation pictures, sound, music, rhyme, and narration can help learners to understand the meaning in a faster way.

### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The main questions to be investigated in this study are:

- (1) Do Internet-based instructions of digital stories improve Iranian young EFL learners' reading comprehension?
- (2) Is there any difference between students' reading comprehension proficiency in conventional, paper-based, and internet-based instructions?

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### ***Participants***

The study is conducted at Pooyandegan institute in Abadan. 90 students ranging from the age 11 to 16 took a placement test based on their course book "Family and Friends 3" written by Tamzin Thompson and Naomi Simmons (2010). This test contained 60 questions including multiple choice, short answer, and true-faults. The learners whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were chosen as the participants of the study. The reliability coefficient of the proficiency-test in this research was calculated by Kuder-Richardson formula (KR-21). The reliability coefficient for the test was 0.76. Finally, 60 subjects (14 boys and 48 girls, mean age= 12.7 years) were divided randomly into three groups for participating in three different groups of conventional, paper-based, and internet-based-based instruction to be taught reading through digital stories.

#### ***Instrumentation***

##### ***Proficiency Test***

90 students ranging from the age 11 to 16 took a placement test based on their course book "Family and Friends 3" written by Tamzin Thompson and Naomi Simmons (2010). This test contained 60 questions including multiple choice, short answer, and true- faults. The reliability coefficient for the proficiency test was 0.76.

##### ***Pre-test***

The next instrument was a pre-test of reading comprehension including 10 digital stories to measure the participants' reading comprehension skill before the instructions (Appendix C). The pre-test contained 50 items and was organized around three types of items: true and false, multiple choice, and short answer questions (Heaton, 1990). The reliability coefficient of the pre-test calculated by Kuder-Richardson formula (KR-21) was 0.78.

##### ***Post-test***

Finally, an immediate post-test was used to determine the effects of treatment period and the result of the two other instructions. The immediate post-test also contained 50 items based on 10 digital stories. The reliability coefficients of the test calculated through KR-21 formula was 0.77.

#### ***Procedure***

To make a homogenous group, the learners took a placement test of their course book "Family and Friends 3". The test took 30 minutes, then the scores were obtained and average mean of the scores were calculated. The subjects whose scores were one standard above and one standard below the mean were divided into three groups for three different conventional, paper-based, and internet-based instructions. The number of subjects in each group was 20. The whole research project took place in 12 weeks. The reading classes were carried out once a week in one and half hour classes. It is worth to mention that the instructor for all three instructions was the same to prevent any interference of different teaching methods, pronunciation, accent, motivation, etc.

The participants in the internet-based instruction group met with the researcher in the first week at a computer lab, where in the first session, each was asked few questions about their background knowledge of synchronous CALL program and working with internet. The purpose of the interview was to provide data concerning participants' use of computer for the purpose of language learning.

At the beginning of each section in the computer site, the instructor started the class with some pre-reading activities, such as simple questions related to the topic of the story and new vocabularies, and tried to elicit some words from the students and write them on the board. After that the name of the story was announced and the students were asked to find it at the site and listen to it as much as they want in the time limit of 35 minutes. The students were supposed to write down each and every word that they understand clearly or have problems to find the meaning. After all the students finished their listening, the instructor asked some related questions about the story and check students' comprehension of the new vocabulary, story, and also answered their questions, if any. Then the printed form of the story

was given to the students and they started to read the story voluntarily to check their pronunciation. Finally, after all the students finished reading the story aloud, a printed paper of the activity worksheet presented at the site was given to students for checking their comprehension and also their writing skill.

In the paper-based instruction class, the same pre and post reading tasks such as question and answer or volunteering reading were applied but there was no computer and internet access, instead the students were given just the printed form of the same digital story and activity worksheet and the same pre and post reading activities were applied.

In the conventional reading class which is the control group, the students were given the printed text of the same 10 digital stories. There were no pre and post work and the teacher's role is to read and translate the story and answer students' questions. Finally the students had to read the story aloud. The time of the two instructions was the same, one and half an hour, and also volunteering reading was applied. Finally, each group was given a post test based on 10 digital stories. The post-test contained different reading comprehension questions such as questions with short yes/no answers, true and false, and multiple-choice. Then obtained scores were compared to see which group had more progress in reading comprehension. In order to determine whether or not the three groups differed, One way- ANOVA was conducted. Because the F value was significant a post-hoc analysis was used. Two weeks later after the end of the course and without prior knowledge of the students, the instructor administers the delayed post-test. The sudden, without notice presence of the instructor in the class was to test the reading comprehension to see the real effect of the treatment and also retention. Obviously as far as long-term retention is concerned in this study, we adopted the definition provided by Laufer (2007). She asserts that "some people administer a test a week or two later, some a month or even three months, some people repeat measurement several times to check how much learners retain in different points of time" (p.30). The only difference of this delayed test from the immediate post-test was that the items were changed to wipe out the probable recall of immediate test answers.

**RESULTS**

**Results of Three Groups' Pre-test**

At the beginning of the study, three groups were given a pre-test which their statistical data is presented in Table 1.

*Table 1: Groups' Descriptive Statistics in Pre-test Scores*

<i>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</i>								
Groups	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
1. Control	20	9.0000	4.58838	1.02598	6.8526	11.1474	3.00	20.00
2.Paper-based	20	8.9000	4.58717	1.02572	6.7531	11.0469	3.00	20.00
3.Internet-based	20	8.6500	4.15838	.92984	6.7038	10.5962	3.00	21.00
Total	60	8.8500	4.37568	.56490	7.7196	9.9804	3.00	21.00

As can be seen in Table 1, the number of the students in three groups is 20. Initially, each student's pre-test score on the proficiency test was obtained. Then descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation of each groups, were calculated. Results indicated that the average means for every three groups was 8.8500 and the difference among the three groups' was not significant. Regarding the standard deviation (SD), it was found out that the SD of conventional instruction in control group was 4.588, a bit higher than other two groups, and SD of the internet-based instruction group was 4.158 as the lowest comparing to the other two groups.

In order to find out whether the difference among the performances of the three groups was statistically significant, One- way ANOVA for the three groups was applied, and the results of the test were interpreted from two points: Level of significance and F-ratio. Table 4.2., displays the results of the statistical operations.

*Table 2: One-way ANOVA (Pre-test)*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	1.300	2	.650	.033	.968
Within Groups	1128.350	57	19.796		
Total	1129.650	59			

Table 2, indicates the statistical analysis of One-way ANOVA on the three groups' pre-test scores. Results of the pre-test on the subject's scores did not reject the null hypothesis at (p<.968) level of significance which indicated that the difference among the means was not significant, because of the fact that the probability level chosen for rejecting the null hypothesis of no difference was  $\alpha = .05$ , so that the null hypothesis was not rejected if the amount of signification was lower than 0.05. By dividing the between-group variance by the within-group variance and finding the ratio between them, we found the probability that the ratio we obtained would recur if the experiment were repeated an infinite number of times with three sample groups on the same participants or any other experimental groups under the same conditions (Hatch & Farhady, 1981, p. 132). The critical F was (19.47) while the observed F was (0.033); therefore, the observed ratio was not large enough to convince the researcher that the mean difference was significant. On the other hand, in Table 2 , the amount of observed F (0.033) for the three groups was lower than Critical F (19.47) suggesting that the difference between three group's mean was not significant. This showed that the groups were homogenous before the research period at the pre-test level.

**Results of the Three Groups' Post-test**

The descriptive statistics for the three groups on the post-test are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 3: Groups' Descriptive Statistics in Immediate Post-test

Groups	N	Mean	95% Confidence Interval for Mean					
			Std.Deviation	Std.Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Conventional	20	32.9000	5.24053	1.17182	30.4474	35.3526	25.00	42.00
Paper-based	20	37.3000	6.05327	1.35355	34.4670	40.1330	25.00	48.00
Internet-based	20	46.4000	3.06766	.68595	44.9643	47.8357	39.00	50.00
Total	60	38.8667	47.47077	.96447	36.9368	40.7966	25.00	50.00

It can be seen in Table 3, that the mean in the internet-based group differs significantly from two other groups, and also the mean for paper-based instruction group shows difference to some degree from conventional group. The mean for internet-based, paper-based, and conventional instruction groups were 46.4, 37.3, and 32.9 respectively. To describe the statistical significance of the three groups' mean, One-way ANOVA was applied, and the results of the test were interpreted from two points: Level of significance and F-ratio. The results of the statistical operations are analyzed in Table 4.

Table 4: One-way ANOVA (Immediate Post-test)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1896.133	2	948.067	38.688	.000
Within Groups	1396.800	57	24.505		
Total	3292.933	59			

Based on Table 3, the results of the immediate post-test on the subject's scores rejected the null hypothesis at ( $p < .000$ ) level of significance which shows that the differences among the means were significant. The amount of observed F (38.688) for the three groups was higher than Critical F (19.47) suggesting that the difference between the three group's mean was significant. Since the probability level for rejecting the null hypothesis was smaller than  $\alpha = 0.05$ , therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. To clarify which group outperformed other groups in the post-test, the Post-hoc Scheffe test was conducted to compare the specific mean effectiveness among the three groups. Data are illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5: Post-Hoc Scheffe Tests, Multiple Comparisons (Immediate Post-test)

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	95% Confidence Interval			
			Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Conventional	Paper-based	-4.40000*	1.56542	.025	-8.3347	-.4653
	Internet-based	-13.50000*	1.56542	.000	-17.4347	-9.5653
Paper-based	Conventional	4.40000*	1.56542	.025	.4653	8.3347
	Internet-based	-9.10000*	1.56542	.000	-13.0347	-5.1653
Internet-based	Conventional	13.50000*	1.56542	.000	9.5653	17.4347
	Paper-based	9.10000*	1.56542	.000	5.1653	13.0347

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

It can be inferred from Table 5, that conventional instruction group is significantly different from paper-based instruction group ( $p < 0.025$ ) and internet-based instruction ( $p < 0.000$ ). Also the Paper-based instruction group shows difference in compare to two other conventional and internet-based instruction groups with significance of 0.025 and 0.00 respectively. Also in the third row internet-based instruction group shows great difference from conventional and paper-based groups with the significance level of 0.000. The differences among the three groups were significant but it cannot be understood from the table that which groups gained more significant difference toward others. The results of post hoc Scheffe are presented in three columns showed with numbers one to three. It can be inferred that three group who conventional, paper-based, and internet-based instructions show great difference in compare to each other. But internet-based instruction group shows the greatest difference (46.4000) in compare to two other groups and it shows that the internet-based instruction had the most influence on the results of reading comprehension post-test and learners' scores.

**Discussion**

Results of pre-test and post-test stages showed an improvement in overall learners' reading comprehension skill through instructions and strategies used during this study. However, the most important issue is the usefulness of both internet-based instruction and pre and post reading activities in order to obtain better results. Thus, the results will be discussed concerned with the two research questions.

*1. Does Internet-based instruction of digital stories improve Iranian young EFL learners' reading comprehension?*

After analyzing data, the results showed that there was not a significance difference among students' performance in pre-test, but in contrast there was a significant difference among the performances of the three groups in post-test (see Table, 4. 6). Also it could be observed that students who received the internet-based instruction got better marks and their performance was better than the group who received paper-based or conventional instruction. By looking at the groups' means in Table 4.8, the resulted of post-hoc Scheffe test revealed that internet-based instruction group had the greatest improvement in their reading comprehension post test. Based on the post test results and data, the scores obtained from internet-based instruction group were also much better in compare to other groups. It can be understood that the learners of the internet-based group after two weeks outperformed the two other groups. Therefore, the first research null hypothesis is rejected ( $p < 0.05$ ). The reasons behind this result could be discussed in terms of the effectiveness of digital stories in developing learners' reading comprehension.

Pre-reading and post-reading tasks also may be of great help in the internet-based instruction and learners' improvement in reading comprehension. Chatwirote (2003 cited in Thangyon & Chiramanee, 2011) suggested that the teachers could provide reading promoting activities, such as the activities that interest the learners. The activities should contain the reading objectives that suit the learners and teacher's interest. The teachers should provide the learners with various pre-reading activities that help them have certain amount of background knowledge about the reading text because the schema would help the reader get better comprehension (Graves, Watts & Graves, 1994).

The results of this study are compatible and in line with previous studies conducted by Busch (2003), Verdugo and Belmonte (2007), and Ghasemi and Hajzadeh (2011). Regarding the results of the delayed post-test, which showed that the digital stories may have better effect on memory and retention, the present study is compatible with the study conducted by Barth (1990) who found that interactive multimedia computer lessons resulted in an 80 percent retention rate.

## 2. Is there any difference between students' reading comprehension proficiency in conventional, paper-based, and internet-based instructions?

Based on the result section, there are significant differences between the three groups. The results of immediate and delayed post test may show the difference between the three groups in case of recall and retention. The group of paper-based instruction outperformed the group of conventional instruction. It shows that the application of pre and post reading tasks might be of great help in approving the learners' reading comprehension. By comparing the delayed pos-test scores of the two groups of paper-based and conventional instructions it can be inferred that the difference may be due to the pre-reading and post-reading tasks applied by the teacher in the reading classes. These activities may cause better retention in case of reading comprehension. The lower scores of the conventional instruction group may be due to the teacher-centeredness of the instruction that may make the students bore. Also there is a great difference between paper-based instruction and internet-based instruction which shows the positive effect of digital stories on the learners' reading comprehension. The results of the descriptive statistics show that, after the post-test, the mean for internet-based, paper-based, and conventional instruction groups were different. These results might show at the application of the both pre and post reading tasks may impact and improve the learners' reading comprehension in the two instructions of digital story and paper-based in which pre-reading and post-reading activities was used. These findings are compatible and in line with the study conducted by Thongyon and Chiramanee (2011) which showed the positive effect of pre-reading tasks such as introducing new vocabulary, pre –reading questioning, or volunteering reading on the reading comprehension. It is also in line with Grave's (1983) study in which he compared the score of students who received previews in reading with those who had not any reading previews. The results showed that the first group's scores were 13 to 120 percent higher than the second group's score.

Therefore, based on the results of One-way ANOVA and the answer to the second research question above, the second null hypothesis was also rejected. There was not a significant difference between conventional, paper-based, and internet-based instructions concerned with improving reading comprehension.

## CONCLUSION

This study began with the assumption that applying digital story instruction could enhance the young EFL learners' reading comprehension. The three groups were taught reading comprehension through three methods of instruction .The participants had a course of English by the book "*Family & Friends 3*" simultaneously. The instructor explored to see if the application of digital stories and pre-reading and post-reading tasks have any effect on the Iranian young EFL learners or to investigate the effect of each approach.

Having administered the posttest and analyzing the data through specific statistical analysis of One way ANOVA, the results indicated that the instruction of using digital stories did affect the learners' reading comprehension the most. The results also showed that applying the pre and post reading tasks may improve the learners reading comprehension. On the basis of the results of the present study, the following conclusions may be made:

- a. CALL generally and synchronous digital stories specifically may influence EFL learners' reading comprehension skill.
- b. Exposure to language materials through synchronous approach is an influential factor for EFL learners.
- c. The online instruction of digital stories does have more significant impact on the learners' reading comprehension skill than conventional or paper-based instruction.
- d. In the internet-based instruction of digital stories, the learners listen and analyze the story independently and freely and thus comprehend it better.
- e. In digital stories instruction, pre-reading activities such as new vocabulary explanation, questioning can influence learners' reading comprehension ability.
- f. In digital stories instruction, post-reading tasks such as questioning and volunteering reading improve reading comprehension.
- g. Paper-based instructions, associated with pre and post reading tasks, in compare to conventional instructions have more positive impact on learners reading comprehension.
- h. conventional instruction which was based on reading and translating can also affect reading comprehension but its effect is much less than paper-based or internet-based instructions.

The following suggestions are drawn based on the limitations of the study. They may be applied in future researches. They are as follow:

1. As the study was only conducted at an institute, more research is needed in similar situations to support the findings and to find more about the effect of internet-based instruction of digital stories on Iranian young EFL students. It can also be applied at the schools or university for different range of ages.
2. This study was conducted to measure the improvement of reading comprehension ability. Future researches can be done regarding the effect of digital stories on other skills such as writing, listening or speaking.
3. The internet-based instruction in this study as associated with some limited pre and post reading activities. In future researches, other useful reading strategies and tasks such as note taking, or skimming and scanning can be examined.
4. In the present study, just the synchronous way of instruction in case of digital stories was used. Future research can cover asynchronous way of applying stories as the material of reading.
5. There are different websites containing effective digital story resources. Regarding learners' age and level of proficiency, other websites can be used instead of the "British Council" website used in this study.
6. Instead of using digital stories other kinds of literature such as songs, poem and novels or other kind of podcasts, videos, clips, or mp3 files can be used in future researches.

7. This study was an attempt to compare internet-based instruction to two other instructions (paper-based and conventional); other different kind of instructions can be compared to digital stories in future researches.

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**THE INFLUENCE OF BREADTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS AN INTERNAL FACTOR ON EFL READING COMPREHENSION TEST PERFORMANCE**

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**ABSTRACT**

Many factors (internal and external) are claimed to influence students' reading comprehension test performance. Among such factors one can refer to breadth of vocabulary knowledge which is classified as an internal reader variable. In addition to the limited literature, the existence of contradictory results highlights the necessity to conduct a survey with different participants and at a different setting. As a result, this research targets at finding the extent to which this factor influences English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' reading comprehension (RC) test performance. A total of 207 students (102 males and 105 females) participated in this study. They took an RC test from TOEFL: test of English as a foreign language and a vocabulary size test. The analysis of the gathered data was then conducted through running simple linear regressions. The results revealed that breadth of vocabulary knowledge is an influential factor in RC test performance and can be used to predict EFL learners' reading ability. These findings have implications for language instructors, EFL students, and curriculum organizers.

**KEYWORDS:** breadth of vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, influence

**INTRODUCTION**

Reading is a composite of many abilities. It is an interactive process between the reader and the text resulting in comprehension which is its principal point (Carmin et al., 1997). The reader needs to be armed with a wide range of abilities in order to comprehend the reading material and to solve the possible ambiguities. Among the factors affecting reading comprehension one can refer to breadth of vocabulary knowledge. Although vocabulary knowledge can be divided into a good deal of aspects in knowing a word, some lexical researchers (Grave, 1986; Lessard-Clouston, 2006; Qian, 1999, 2002; Read, 2004) divided it into two main dimensions: breadth and depth. Breadth of vocabulary knowledge is the longitudinal dimension of vocabulary knowledge, which refers to "the size of vocabulary or the number of words the meaning of which one has at least some superficial knowledge" (Qian, 2002, p. 515). It is a dimension defined by how many words have meaning for the individual (Anderson & Freebody, 1981). On the other hand, depth of vocabulary knowledge is viewed as the latitudinal dimension which includes all word characteristics such as phonemic, graphemic, morphemic, syntactic, semantic, and collocation properties and refers to the richness of knowledge that the individual possesses about the words that are known.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Nowadays, many reading teachers concede that when their students encounter an unfamiliar text in the foreign language, the first challenge seems to be its vocabulary (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Lack of sufficient word understanding has been frequently stated as one of the major barriers to content comprehension in ESL/EFL reading. Indeed, Bernhardt (2005), Grabe and Stoller (2002), Nassaji (2003), and Segalowitz et al. (1991) claimed that the main difference between skilled and less skilled readers lies in slower and inefficient lexical access and semantic processing. Nassaji (2004) believes that one type of knowledge source that is intensively related to the learner's ability to read texts is vocabulary knowledge. Students with high levels of vocabulary knowledge will be able to decode and understand the reading passage better than students with low levels of vocabulary (Nation, Clarke, Marshall, & Durand, 2004). Zhang and Annual (2008) maintained that comprehension decreases whenever a text contains words that are beyond the learners' level of understanding, no matter how much the text is cohesive or how much background knowledge the students have. The more vocabulary students know, the better they can decode and understand what they read (Qian, 2002). This implies that having vocabulary knowledge could increase the overall performance of a reading comprehension test.

Anderson and Freebody (1981) have three hypotheses which interpret the relationship between the vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. These three hypotheses are: instrumental, general aptitude, and general knowledge hypothesis. The instrumental hypothesis suggests that vocabulary is the critical factor for text comprehension and that there exists a cause-effect relationship between them. The more word meanings the reader knows, the more easily he/she understands the text. General aptitude hypothesis states that vocabulary knowledge is the orientation of the general language ability, and the general language ability is the decisive factor on reading comprehension. Last but not least, General knowledge hypothesis confirms that vocabulary knowledge is one of the sources of the general knowledge which is fundamental for comprehension.

Obviously, researchers tend to agree that vocabulary knowledge is a major prerequisite and causal factor in comprehension and that there is a relationship between vocabulary size and reading comprehension. Some studies have used vocabulary size as a predictor variable for reading comprehension (Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer 1992, 1997; Liu & Nation, 1985). Moreover, research on the role of decoding and vocabulary skills, as predictors of reading comprehension in young L1 and L2 language learners, proved that vocabulary is a critical predictor of the development of reading comprehension skills in both L1 and L2 learners (Lervåg & Aukrust, 2010). Empirical studies on the relationship between vocabulary size and L2 reading comprehension have consistently shown a strong correlation between them ranging from 0.50 to 0.85 (Laufer, 1992; Stæhr, 2008).

To understand text meaning, one must be able to decode the printed message (Adams, 2004; Alderson, 2000; Day & Bamford, 1998); however, the presence of high density of unknown words in a text may seriously hinder comprehension (Curtis, 1987; Nation, 2001). Laufer (1998) and Qian (1999, 2002, 2004) revealed that lexical issues prevent successful comprehension and that vocabulary familiarity correlates strongly with other linguistic skills in the target language. To estimate how many words the learners know in their L2 vocabulary, breadth/size tests have been developed and researchers have found that breadth test of vocabulary knowledge can very well predict success in reading, writing, general proficiency, and academic achievement (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Nation & Meara, 2002). A number of studies (e.g., Al-Nujaid, 2003, as cited in Alsamadani, 2011; Koda, 1989; Laufer, 1992, 1996; Qian, 1999) have used scores on vocabulary size to predict levels of academic reading comprehension. Al-Nujaid (2003 as cited in Alsamadani, 2011), for example, found that there is a strong and significant relationship between vocabulary size and comprehension level. In fact, the relation of breadth of vocabulary knowledge with reading comprehension is recently paid much attention and viewed as a striking point by numerous ESL/EFL lexical and reading researchers who believe that the more words the EFL/ESL readers know, the better their reading (e.g. Huang, 2001, 2004; Hu & Nation, 2000).

#### OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY AND THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Taking a look at the studies available in the literature, one can come to the conclusion that the area of reading comprehension still requires further research, especially in EFL contexts. The main objective of the present study is to examine the effect of breadth of vocabulary knowledge as an internal or according to Samuels (1983) "inside- the-head" factor on reading comprehension test performance of Iranian EFL learners. The present research also endeavors to discover the difference between male and female Iranian EFL learners regarding the extent to which their RC test performance is influenced by the selected internal factor. Therefore, the present study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent does breadth of vocabulary knowledge influence students' RC test performance?
2. Is there any significant difference between Iranian male and female EFL learners regarding the extent to which their RC test performance is influenced by the selected internal factor? (Does any gender influence exist?)

#### METHODOLOGY

##### Participants

A total of 207 students (102 males and 105 females) participated in this study. They were Iranian EFL learners comprising students of an upper intermediate level at a private language institute (Navid English Institute, Shiraz branch). All students were native speakers of Persian, with the average age of 20 who had been studying English for almost 10 semesters.

##### Instruments

Two instruments were utilized in this study. The first one was the revised version of nation's 3000 vocabulary Level Test (VLT) (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001), which was used to assess breath of vocabulary knowledge of the students. The vocabulary size test (VST), called the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT), was originally designed by Nation (1983, 1990) and used to measure learner's size of vocabulary knowledge. Nation (2001) referred to the revised version as a major improvement on the original test made by Schmitt *et al.* (2001). Each level of the test includes 30 word-definition matching items and a total of 60 target words are used for testing; ten groups of six words on the left and three definitions on the right make up the test. Test-takers are required to match the words to the definitions.

The following example illustrates the test format of a noun cluster (Schmitt *et al.* 2001, p. 82):

1. business \_\_\_\_\_
2. clock \_\_\_\_\_ part of a house
3. horse \_\_\_\_\_ animal with four legs
4. pencil \_\_\_\_\_ something used for writing
5. shoe \_\_\_\_\_
6. wall \_\_\_\_\_

The second instrument was a reading comprehension test drawn from the TOEFL Actual Tests (2005, pp. 25-35) employed to assess the students' reading comprehension test performance. It was a standardized reading comprehension test composed of five passages. Regarding the validity and reliability of the test, as an established standardized language test, all of the official TOEFL tests have been carefully pretested for validity and reliability before being put into actual use.

##### Procedure

To neutralize the influence of the RC test, all students first took the vocabulary test and then the reading comprehension test. The tests took 20 and 55 minutes respectively. To carry out the statistical analysis, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 21.0 was used. Scores gathered through selected instruments were calculated and arranged in different columns. Along with showing students' gender and age in the first two columns there were columns for each student showing his/her score in reading comprehension and breadth of vocabulary knowledge. The analysis of the data was then carried out through running simple linear regressions.

#### DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

##### Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge vs. RC Test Performance

The first aim of this study was to investigate the extent to which the students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge influences their RC test performance. To this end, a simple linear regression analysis was carried out. The hypotheses under investigation in this phase of research were as follows:

- $H_0: \beta_1 = 0$  (The independent variable does not affect the dependent one.)  
 $H_1: \beta_1 \neq 0$  (The independent variable affects the dependent one.)

Before conducting the analyses, the outliers were checked through Cook's and Leverage values and they were deleted from the data. Then normal distribution of the dependent variable (RC score) was assured through one-sample kolmogorov-smirnov test (Table 1, sig. = .09 >  $\alpha$  = .05).

Table 1: kolmogorov-smirnov test

		RC score
N		207
Normal Parameters <sup>a,b</sup>	Mean	25.77
	Std. Deviation	7.250
	Absolute	.086
Most Extreme Differences	Positive	.086
	Negative	-.048
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.241
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.092

The regression analysis was then run and the results (Table 2) show that regression line and the independent variable account for 33 percent of the variance in RC test scores ( $R^2=.33$ ).

Table 2: Model Summary<sup>b</sup> of regression analysis

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.579 <sup>a</sup>	.335	.332	5.925

a. Predictors: (Constant), vlt  
 b. Dependent Variable: RC score

Table 3 provides evidence for the significance of the results ( $\text{sig.} = .00 < \alpha = .05$ )

Table 3: ANOVA<sup>a</sup> (Significance of the regression results)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3629.948	1	3629.948	103.397	.000 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	7196.922	205	35.107		
	Total	10826.870	206			

a. Dependent Variable: RC score  
 b. Predictors: (Constant), vlt

The results indicated that the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative one (The independent variable affects the dependent one) was confirmed. Moreover, the following linear equation was proved to help predict the value of the dependent variable, RC test performance (Table 4, Figure 1)

$$\text{RC test performance} = 3.82 + .92 * \text{vlt grade}$$

Table 4: Coefficient<sup>a</sup> of the selected internal factor

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.822	2.197		1.739	.083
	Vlt grade	.919	.090	.579	10.168	.000

a. Dependent Variable: RC score

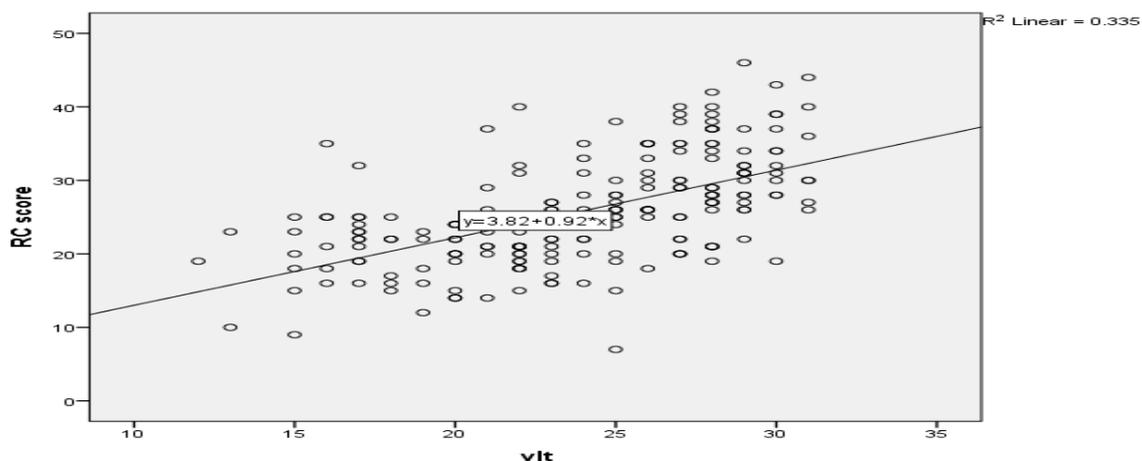


Figure 1: regression line and linear equation

**Breadth of Vocabulary Knowledge and RC Test Performance in males vs. females**

To investigate the relative influence of the selected internal factor on RC test performance of males versus females, the SPSS file was first split based on the participants' gender and then a simple linear regression was carried out.

According to the results of the regression analysis (Table 5), regression line and the independent variable accounted for 37 percent ( $R^2=.37$ ) of the variance in RC test scores in the male group, and 30 percent ( $R^2=.299$ ) of the variance in RC test scores in the female group.

*Table 5: Model Summary of regression analysis*

gender	Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
male	1	.613 <sup>a</sup>	.376	.369	5.246
female	1	.547 <sup>a</sup>	.299	.292	6.563

a. Predictors: (Constant), vlt

Table 6 provides evidence for the significance of the results ( $\text{sig.} = .00 < \alpha = .05$ ).

*Table 6: ANOVA<sup>a</sup> (Significance of the regression results for males and females)*

gender	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
male	1	Regression	1655.115	1	1655.115	60.142	.000 <sup>b</sup>
		Residual	2752.032	100	27.520		
		Total	4407.147	101			
female	1	Regression	1892.336	1	1892.336	43.935	.000 <sup>b</sup>
		Residual	4436.293	103	43.071		
		Total	6328.629	104			

a. Dependent Variable: RC score

b. Predictors: (Constant), vlt

As Table 7 indicates, the following linear equation can help predict the value of the dependent variable, RC test performance, in each group:

Males: RC test performance = 2.62 + .96 \* vlt score

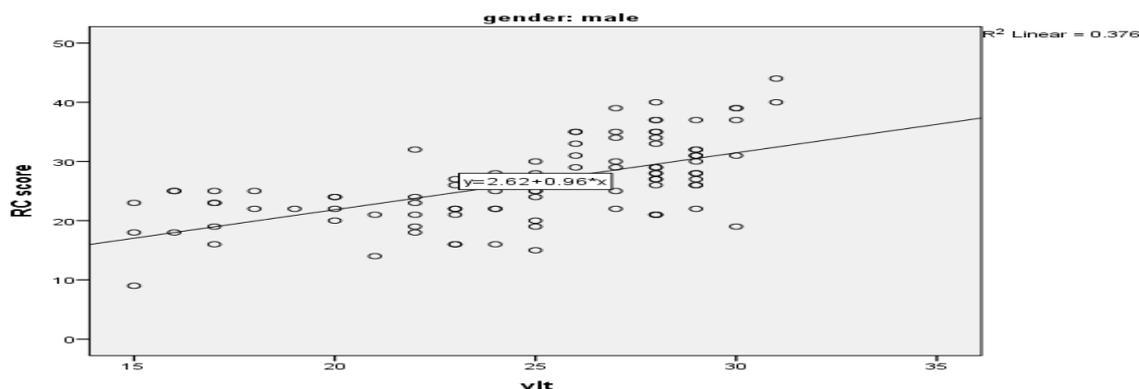
Females: RC test performance = 4.46 + .9 \* vlt score

*Table 7: Coefficients<sup>a</sup> of the selected internal factor for males and females*

	Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	Beta		
male	1	(Constant)	2.617	3.116		.840	.403
		vlt	.962	.124	.613		
female	1	(Constant)	4.458	3.181		1.401	.164
		vlt	.897	.135	.547		

a. Dependent Variable: RC score

Overall, the results of the linear regression (Table 5) indicate that there is difference between Iranian male and female EFL learners regarding the extent to which their RC test performance is influenced by their breadth of vocabulary knowledge (Figures 2 & 3).



*Figure 2: regression line and linear equation for males*

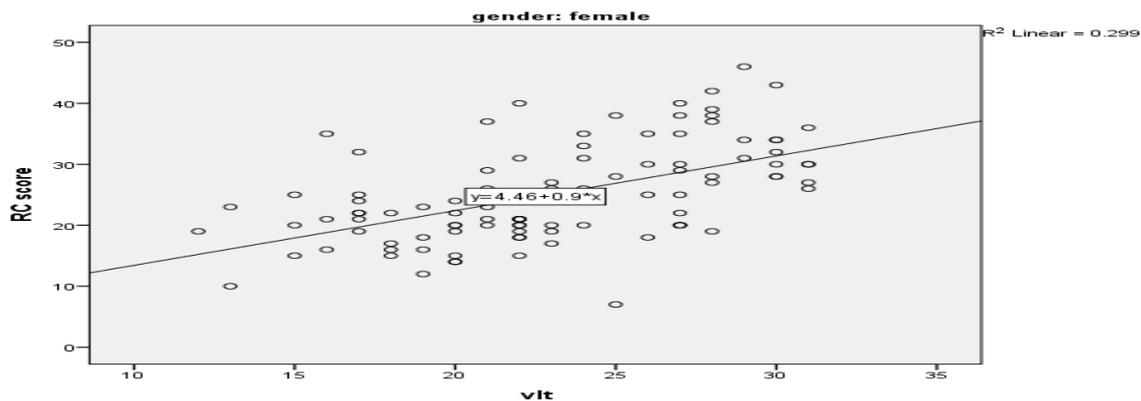


Figure 3: regression line and linear equation for females

### Discussion

The results of the present study lend support to many researchers. Alderson (2000), Qian (2004), and Read (2000), for instance, underscored the prominent role of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. Bernhardt (2005), Fukkink *et al.* (2005), Koda (2005), and Zhang (2000, 2002a, 2002b) have also consistently indicated the importance of vocabulary knowledge in reading comprehension. Moreover, Read (2000), and Nation (2001) argued for the claim of significant function of breadth/size of vocabulary in reading comprehension. In addition, the findings seem to be in compliance with Anderson and Freebody's (1981) general knowledge hypothesis according to which vocabulary knowledge is one of the sources of the general knowledge which is fundamental for comprehension. In this regard, Nation, Clarke, Marshall, and Durand (2004) also stated that students with high levels of vocabulary knowledge will be able to decode and understand the reading passages better than students with low levels of vocabulary. The findings are also in line with that of Joshi and Aaron (2000) who found that vocabulary knowledge is a predictor of reading ability. It is also supported by Hu and Nation (2000), Laufer (1992, 1997), and Liu and Nation (1985), who found that vocabulary size is a predictor variable for reading comprehension.

### CONCLUSIONS

The present study aimed at examining the effect of breadth of vocabulary knowledge as an internal factor on reading comprehension test performance of Iranian EFL learners. The results of linear regression analysis revealed that EFL learners' breadth of vocabulary knowledge influences their reading comprehension test performance to a considerable extent. Moreover, a linear equation was proved to help predict their RC test performance on the basis of their vocabulary test grade. It was also confirmed that the influence of breadth of vocabulary knowledge on RC test performance is more significant in males compared with females. These results will inform language instructors, EFL students, and curriculum organizers of the significance of vocabulary breadth in reading comprehension. Many EFL students approach reading passively, relying heavily on the bilingual dictionaries and spending long hours laboring over sentence-by-sentence translations. In spite of all the efforts they see no improvement in their reading comprehension. Moreover, according to several experimental studies (Alexander, 1998; Kaivanpanah & Alavi, 2008a; Nassaji, 2003), in reality, inferring word meanings from context is not reliable for EFL students, since the success rate of this strategy is not as high as we anticipate and the word meanings the EFL/ESL learners infer are often incorrect, misinterpreting or too general. Therefore, students' vocabulary assessment and instruction should be a focus of every English course. Vocabulary teaching should be regarded as a priority in the curriculum. In addition, although vocabulary instruction is very common in foreign language classrooms in Iran, most textbooks in English only provide explicit instruction of relatively basic English vocabularies. It is necessary for teachers to find ways to increase the student's vocabulary knowledge. For example, the teacher can encourage students to do extensive reading beyond the classroom requirements. When students do extensive readings, they will be able to build new vocabulary. However, vocabulary knowledge is just one of the factors that should be emphasized. Investigating all different factors in a single study is not feasible. As a result, this study focused on the role that one of many internal factors plays in reading comprehension. More research is needed to examine how other factors influence RC test performance of Iranians as well as other EFL learners.

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**THE EFFECT OF COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING (CALL) AND CONTEXT-BASED INSTRUCTION OF LEXICAL ITEMS ON THE RECALL AND RETENTION OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS AT ELEMENTARY LEVEL**

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**ABSTRACT**

This research was done at a non-profit school in Masjed-e-Soleyman (MIS) city in Iran. The aim of this research was to find the effect of using computer-assisted language learning (CALL) approach on the learners' recall and retention at the elementary level. In order to have homogeneous participants, the researcher used Nelson proficiency test (Fowler & Coe, 1976). 50 participants whose scores fell one standard deviation below the mean were chosen to take part in the research. The null hypotheses were proposed: CALL would not improve learners' recall and retention and there would be no significant difference between the mean scores of the students who were instructed traditionally and those who were instructed based on CALL regarding the recall and retention of vocabulary learning. The chosen participants were divided randomly into two groups of 25 students, one control, and one experimental group. Three sets of tests were designed by the researcher as the pre-test, immediate, and delayed post-test. Learners were taught ten units of Picture Dictionary (Nakata, Frazier & Hoskins, 2011) during ten sessions of treatment. Two groups took a post-test immediately after the treatment and a delayed post-test after a two-week interval. Paired samples t-test and independent samples t-test were used to compare the groups' means. The findings revealed that control group was good only at the recall of vocabulary items and the experimental group was good not only at recall but also at retention of vocabulary items.

**KEYWORDS:** Computer assisted language learning (CALL), context-based instruction Lexical Items

**INTRODUCTION**

The importance of learning English as a foreign language (EFL) cannot be overlooked. While many people have engaged in teaching and learning English and used different methods and instruments, they have needed to optimize the use of available resources to help the learners to become more proficient and fluent in using English. One of them is Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) which has, in particular, been used in pedagogy more frequently since 1960s (Levy, 1997). It has rapidly been spread through the world and used in all aspects of teaching. Nowadays, there are a lot of software and programs in teaching a foreign language. Some focus on one aspect of language learning such as Babylon dictionary that focus only on vocabulary, while others are more comprehensive like Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (5<sup>th</sup> ed.), helps learners to develop not only their vocabularies but also their pronunciation. It provides some examples of vocabulary use, the origin of the vocabulary and its family. Nowadays, Language teachers have been taking advantages of CALL to teach a foreign language totally or its components such as teaching grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary individually.

Learners used CALL to remember the vocabularies easier and faster. In a recent research, Jones (2004) examined the performance of the experimental group that was provided written forms and pictures when they heard the words with a group not provided these. She wanted to know whether there was any significant difference in their performance after the course of instruction or not. She concluded that the group who received pictures, spelling, and sounds through CALL simultaneously was better to remember the words.

Using English as a foreign language (EFL) has been spreading throughout the world. Therefore, everybody who is engaged in teaching English such as teachers, syllabus designers, and educational specialist should help them-no matter that they have different reasons. Due to the significant role of vocabulary learning, it has been regarded as an important research topic for investigation in the context of foreign language learning and teaching.

Students and generally people cannot speak if they do not know vocabulary. Research has shown than due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge, most Iranian students as (EFL) learners are either not interested to communicate, or if they initiate a communication, they would abandon it rapidly because introduced vocabulary items are not practiced in the exercises efficiently and effectively (Abdollahi-Guilani, SubakirMohdyasin & Hua, 2011). Therefore, it seems vital for teachers to find more effective methods to contribute to teaching and learning vocabulary.

Unfortunately, in Iran, textbook writers and syllabus designers have paid less attention to the role played by the CALL in the classroom. Teaching is not supplemented with modern technologies, specially CALL in teaching English. Students are forced to follow the teacher. The classes are teacher-centered and teachers do not want to give students autonomy and independence to decline their authority. Therefore, they use traditional ways (Abdollahi-Guilani, SubakirMohdyasin & Hua, 2011).

This study is crucial because it provides helpful evidence on the use of two approaches of CALL or context-based and non-CALL instruction. It will be necessary for teachers to equip themselves with up-to-date techniques if significant differences are found. The researcher hopes that the results of this study help teachers to teach vocabulary effectively and learners to recall and retain them easily and for a longer period. Also it is hoped that syllabus designers, textbook writers and the like take the advantages of it.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

***The Importance of Vocabulary Learning***

Cobb, Spada and Zahar (2001) claim one of most important aspects of language learning is vocabulary development. They believe that as a new and interesting subdivision of applied linguistics and producing a lot of books and papers, there are a number of remarkable

unanswered questions about Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition (SLVA). Knowing a lot of words can help learners not only to communicate well but also to have control over their academic progress (Gorjian, 2008). After the decline of Audio-lingual Method, vocabulary has become dominant and it has taken the most important role in language learning (Nunan, 1999). He (1999) also found that the more we know vocabularies, the better we pull out the meaning from spoken and written texts. Although knowing grammatical points are important, it is impossible to communicate without vocabulary (Harmer, 1991). According to Celce-Murcia (2001), learning a foreign or second language involves the acquisition of two thousands of words. Meara (1995) maintained that, due to the importance of vocabulary in language learning, the students should not only try to learn vocabularies but also to focus on the more frequently occurred words in a language.

#### ***The Role of Computer in Language Teaching and Learning***

According to Holland and Fisher (2007), computer as tutor has been used to provide materials such as grammatical points and vocabulary items and language practices such as exercises in pronunciation, writing, listening, or reading for learners. It has also been useful for the teachers to analyze the learners' performance and test their knowledge. This has deeply rooted in behaviorist psychology which has focused on, as the key element in second language acquisition, extensive drill and practice (Meng & Hong, 2007).

Paying attention to the individual learner capabilities, cognitive goals and needs, has been the second role of computer in language teaching (Philips, 1987). Computer (via the Internet) has provided the opportunities for learners to access radio, television broad cast, Internet Websites, blogs, and advertisements and Consequently represented a wide range of written, audio, and visual materials. These materials have been used to provide "insight into the real-world contexts in which words and collocations occur across genres, registers, and language varieties" (Simpson, 2011, p. 201). Computer as the medium has been the broadest use of computer in language learning. It has given opportunity to the learners to introduce themselves to others and making interactions with other people (Danet & Herring, 2007).

Researchers have done a lot of researches related to these prominent roles of computers in language learning and especially in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) contexts. Some articles by researchers such as Kulik and Kulik (1987), McNeil and Nelson (1991) showed the positive effect of CALL on instruction. Providing the teachers with some training courses regarding to CALL not only improve the efficiency of computer in the classroom but also decrease the teachers' stress.

It can be said that there are two different views on the role of the teacher and CALL. According to the traditional view, the presence of the teacher is considered as an indispensable element in the classroom. Levy (1997) believes that albeit helping students in teachers' absence outside the classroom, computers do not replace the teachers permanently or for a long time. With regards to the role of CALL in language learning, Alatis (1986) and Secan (1990) pointed out that computers would not replace the teachers in the classroom. They (1990) focused on the unchangeable role of the teacher.

According to Fatemi Jahromi and Salimi (2013), both teachers' and students' attitudes towards CALL and their computer competence have a relationship with the use of CALL in Iran. They (2013) found that teachers have moderate computer competence with regard to CALL and more positive attitudes in the comparison with their students' in Iran and maintained that positive attitudes toward CALL, easy access to the computers at school and adequate training will be developing CALL factors in language education in Iran.

Kang (1995) carried out a research on the effect of a context-embedded approach to second language vocabulary learning at an elementary school in Seoul, Korea. This research was taken for six sessions. The learners were instructed five sessions successively and the long-term treatment effect was checked in the last session. Selecting four groups, the researcher chose four instructional approaches as follow: 1. a human instructor thought the paper and pencil group traditionally; 2. computer-based word-for-word which was incorporated the same approach used in the first group. In this group, the researcher replaced the teacher with a computer; 3. a computer and pictures were used to instruct the participants in the third group; 4. a computer-based context was provided for the learners.

The researcher used three types of tests to measure the learners' recall and retention include definition recall, listening comprehension, and knowledge transfer. Although the computer-based context group represented a slight improvement in recall phase, it showed higher performance than other three groups.

The researcher concluded that the context-embedded approach was most effective than other three approaches used for vocabulary learning. It was also added that vocabularies that were processed in an enriched context through images, associations, or meaningful elaboration can be retained for a longer period.

#### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

According to the above literature review, the researchers aims to investigate two main questions in this study. They are mentioned below.

1. Do CALL based instructions develop Iranian EFL learners' recall and retention of lexical items?
2. Is there any difference between non CALL and CALL-based instruction in developing Iranian EFL learners' recall and retention of lexical items?

#### **METHODOLOGY**

##### ***Participants***

This research was administered to participants attending a non-profit school in Masjed Soleyman (MIS) city in Iran. The researcher administered a proficiency test adopted from Nelson proficiency test (Fowler & Coe, 1976) not only to assess the students' level of proficiency but also to feel sure about the homogeneity of the participants. In order to generalize the research findings to a wider population, all participants at this school took this proficiency test and 50 participants whose scores fell less than one standard deviation below the sample mean were selected in terms of their performances on this proficiency test. Then the selected participants were randomly divided into two groups: the experimental and the control groups. All participants were females with their age range of 12 to 14.

##### ***Instrumentation***

###### ***Nelson Proficiency Test***

To homogenize the participants, the researcher administered Nelson proficiency test (Fowler & Coe, 1976). Being one of the most proficiency tests available in Iran and covering different English language elements such as vocabulary, grammar (phrases, clauses) were the most important factors in selecting that test. It is available in. This test included 50 multiple-choice

items. It was taken an hour to answer the questions. Each true response to the items was scored 1. The students did not get negative points for false answers. 50 students were considered the elementary level. The reliability of the test based on KR-21 formula was 0.73.

*Three Tests Assessing Students' Progress*

The students faced three sets of multiple-choice questions included 30 test items. That was done in order to reduce test-retest effect. The content was kept consistent but the forms were different. The items were based on Picture Dictionary (Nakata, Frazier & Hoskins, 2011). Each set of items was piloted with a group of 20 homogeneous learners who did not take part in the research. The students did not get negative points for incorrect responses. The items standardization was considered in terms of item difficulty item, discrimination, and item distribution. Pre-test was done in order to show the students' initial proficiency and to help the researcher to make more precise conclusion at the end of the research. The reliability coefficient of pre-test based on KR-21 formula was 0.95.

In order to check students' progress, after ten sessions, the researcher tested students on vocabulary at the end of the course. It was done with the aim of measuring the students' recall of the vocabulary in two groups. The reliability coefficient of the immediate post-test was 0.90 through KR-21 formula.

The researcher administered a delayed post-test after two weeks. There was not any instruction in that period. It was done to measure the effectiveness of the use of CLL in students' retention. The reliability coefficient of the delayed post-test was 0.94 through KR-21 formula.

Also, there were a computer for the teacher and some computers for students, each for a couple of students, and some CDs. The CDs were prepared by the researcher. Students could play the CDs and see the pictures and spellings and listen to the pronunciation of the vocabularies successively. They did not need to click on every vocabulary. It was tried to design the CD which was utilized as easy as possible. There was a projector, too.

**Procedure**

In this study, the materials were similar and at the same level of difficulty for experimental and control groups. The participants attended class twice a week in both groups. There was a question-and-answer session for both groups separately. In order to assess how much students knew about CALL especially in the experimental group, the teacher asked some questions and answered students' questions. The students were asked to maintain their attitudes to the training sessions during or after the treatment.

The participants in experimental and control groups were exposed to 10 units out of 55 extracted randomly from Picture Dictionary (Nakata, Frazier & Hoskins, 2011). This book is specialized for elementary level. Moreover, it covers everyday topics, high-frequency words, question -and-answer patterns, giving the students the opportunity to listen to native voices, providing contexts, and beautiful pictures. The extracted units were about parts of the body, feelings, kitchen, toys, fruits, vegetables, birthday party, descriptions, clothes, and school supplies. The number of vocabularies ranged from 16-20 in each unit. The teacher taught one units in each session. Students attended the class twice a week. Each session lasted for an hour.

In the experimental group, the teacher used a computer, a projector, and a board. When the teacher played the CD, the students could listen to the pronunciation of the vocabularies that were pronounced by native speakers. At the same time they saw their pictures and spellings for three times. Vocabularies were pronounced in American. After doing that, the students were given a few minutes to take a look at the vocabularies while they had simultaneous access to the computers. Since then the teacher asked some questions. When students had some problem with pronunciation of vocabularies, the teacher stopped them and played the track for them again. When they had some difficulties remembering the meanings the teacher asked their classmates to help. Each student received a copy of CD, so they had the opportunity to practice over and over at home. In the control group, the students were given neither the opportunity to use CALL in the classroom nor the chance to play the CD at home.

The course was made up of ten one-hour sessions. One unit was taught every session. Carrying out an immediate post-test right after the end of the course, the teacher tested how well students could recall vocabularies in both groups. There were forty items in the post-test. Students did not have any instruction in a period of two weeks. Then she performed the delayed post-test to measure the students' retention in both groups. The items of the tests were covered the lessons that were taught during the treatment.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

*Descriptive Statistics*

Based on the Table 1 and 2, the significant value, .747 is greater than .050. The result does not show any significant difference between the two groups at the pre-test. That is, both groups are homogenous.

*Table 1: Results of the Pre-test*

Test	Groups	df	Std. Error Difference	t	Level of Significant (P)
Pre-test	Control Experimental	48	.738	-.325	.747

*Table 2: Results of Control Groups' Tests*

Control Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Per-test	25	8.00	18.00	11.84	2.687
Immediate Post-test	25	10.00	29.00	16.20	5.759
Delayed Post-test	25	9.00	28.00	15.72	5.784

According to Table 2, the mean of pre-test is 11.84 and the standard deviation is 2.68. The minimum score is 8 and the maximum one is 18. After the end of the training course, the participants were immediately tested on vocabulary recall. It was done to measure how well participants recall the meaning of the vocabulary items that they learnt during the treatment. The mean of the immediate post-test is 16.20

and the standard deviation is 5.75. The students' scores range from 10 to 29. After giving participants a two-week break, the teacher gave the participants a delayed post-test. The mean is 15.72 and the standard deviation is 5.78. The minimum and the maximum scores are 9 and 28.

Table 3: Results of Experimental Groups' Tests

Experimental Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Per-test	25	6.00	18.00	12.08	2.531
Immediate Post-test	25	8.00	30.00	17.24	5.746
Delayed Post-test	25	11.00	29.00	18.20	5.338

The experimental group's performances are presented in Table 3. The minimum score is 6 and maximum score is 30 in pre-test. The calculated mean is 12.08 and the standard deviation is 2.531. The students' scores range from 8 to 30 in immediate post-test and from 11 to 29. The mean and standard deviation are 17.24 and 5.746 in immediate post-test. The mean is 18.20 and the standard deviation is 5.33854 in delayed post-test. It should be mentioned that the mean values of two groups are also shown by Figure 1.

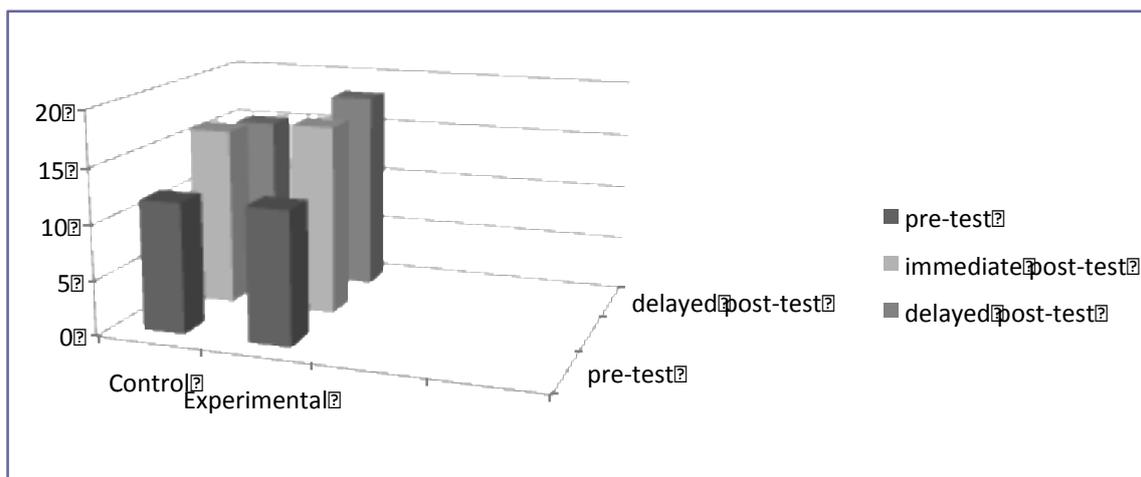


Figure 1: Sample Means for Three Tests of Two Groups

The Tables 2, 3 and Figure 1 show that two groups had an improved performance in mean scores from pre-test to immediate post-test, from 11.84 to 16.20 in the control group and from 12.08 to 17.24 in the experimental group. They also show an increase from immediate post-test to delay post-test in experimental group from 17.24 to 18.20, but this increase is not observed in control group. In this group, the mean score decreased to 15.72.

As the descriptive statistics does not provide the researcher with sufficient information to sustain or reject the null hypotheses, the researcher cannot interpret the results meticulously; she went further and used the inferential statistics too.

Table 4: Paired Samples t-test of Control Group (pre-test vs. immediate post-tests)

Paired differences		Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig (2- tailed)
Pre-test & Immediate post-test	Mean			Lower	Upper			
	-4.160	3.300	.660	-5.522	-2.797	-6.303	24	.000

Table 4 shows that the observed  $t$  (6.303) is greater than the critical  $t$  (2.64). The results of paired samples t-test shows that is a significant difference between pre-test and immediate post-test of control at the significant level ( $p < .05$ ).

Table 5: Paired Sample t-test of Control Group (immediate vs. delayed post-tests)

Paired differences		Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		<i>t</i>	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Immediate post-test & Delayed post-test	Mean			Lower	Upper			
	.480	1.294	.2589	-.054	1.014	1.853	24	.76

As the observed *t* (1.853) is less than the critical *t*, it can be conclude that there was no significant difference between the performance of learners in immediate post-test and delayed post-test of control group at the significant level ( $p < .05$ ). The mean is .480 and SD is 1.29.

Table 6: Paired Samples t-test of Experimental Group (pre-test vs. immediate post-tests)

Paired differences		Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		<i>t</i>	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Pre-test & Immediate post-test	Mean			Lower	Upper			
	-7.240	3.031	.606	-8.491	-5.988	-11.941	24	.000

Table 6 shows that the observed *t* (11.941) is greater than the critical *t* (2.64). The results of paired samples t-test show that there is a significant difference between pre-test and immediate post-test of the experimental group at the significant level ( $p < .05$ ). The mean is 7.24 and the SD is 3.031.

Table 7: Paired Samples t-test of Experimental Group (immediate vs. delayed post-tests)

Paired differences		Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		<i>t</i>	df	Sig (2-tailed)
Immediate post-test & Delayed post-test	Mean			Lower	Upper			
	-.960	1.540	.308	-1.595	-.3240	-3.11	24	.005

Table 7 shows that CALL instruction had an effect on learners' retention because the observed *t* (3.11) is greater than the critical *t* (2.06).

Table 8: Independent Samples t-test of the Groups (immediate vs. delayed post-tests)

Test	Groups	df	Std. Error Difference	<i>t</i>	Level of Significant (P)
Immediate post-test	Control	48	1.62714	-.639	.526
	Experimental				
Delayed post-test	Control	48	1.57429	-1.575	.122
	Experimental				

Based on the Table 8, with regards to the immediate post-test, the significant value, .52 was more than .05. The results did not show any significant difference between two groups at the immediate post-test. That is, both groups almost gave similar performance. In relation to the delayed post-test, the significant value, .12 was more than .05. That is, the difference between the two groups was not significant. Also, the observed *t* is less than the critical *t* in both immediate and delayed post-test, 0.63 and 1.57 less than 2.64, showed no significant difference between two groups at delayed post-test.

#### **Discussion**

Generally speaking, the instruction in both groups was effective. That is to say, there was an increase in recall of vocabulary items not only in control group who were instructed traditionally but also in the experimental group who were instructed based on CALL. It can be concluded that both, traditional instruction and instruction based on CALL, were good at recalling vocabulary items. The results also showed the mean of the experimental group increased more than that of the control group.

On the other hand, the experimental group performed well in delayed post-test contrasting with the poor performance of the control group. It can be concluded that CALL could help learners to develop the learners' retention of vocabulary items or their long-term memory, therefore the first null hypothesis is rejected. That is to say, although both groups carried out the same in immediate post-test, CALL helped learners to retain vocabulary items or develop the learners' long-term memory. This development was not observed in the delayed post-test of the control group.

The reason for the better performance of the experimental group in recall and retention of vocabularies might be due to the advantages of using CALL over the traditional instruction that help learners to improve not only the recall but also the retention of vocabularies. The students in the experimental group expressed that the combination of pictures, sounds, and spelling helped them to learn and remember the vocabularies easier and better. Some of them maintained that CALL-based instruction was more interesting than the traditional one and they were more willing to play the CDs and learn the vocabularies rather than open their books and memorized the vocabularies, what they did before. The better results in the experimental group may be due to the fact that paying attention to the learners' individualized characteristics, computer provides the learners the opportunity to play the CDs repeatedly when and where they liked repeatedly. The students also mentioned that if they did not take part in the classroom for some sessions, they would not have some serious problems with the pronunciation and the meaning of the vocabularies.

The results of the study were confirmed by Duquette and Painchaud (1996). They believe that CALL, providing both video and audio clues, facilitates vocabulary learning. Akbulut (2007) arrived at the same results concerned with the objectives of this research. They noted that vocabulary learning was enhanced through using CALL (definitions, pictures, and short video clips) rather than those students instructed by definition only.

Two independent-samples *t*-tests were run by the researcher to show whether there is any significant difference between two groups performance in immediate and delayed post-test. The results showed although the mean score of the experimental group improved slightly from immediate to delayed post-test, there was not significance difference between students' performance in delayed post-test in both groups. The results showed that students which received CALL-based instruction were not significantly different than the group which received traditional instruction in delayed post-test. Based on the results, the second null hypothesis is sustained.

Now, a question can be raised of two groups' performance: why the group instructed based on CALL performed similarly comparing to the group who were instructed traditionally. It may be due to the fact that the students did not know how to use computer facilities concerned with both hard ware and soft ware issues. In case of hard ware facilities, we may name using key board, mouse, monitor, printer, and speakers. Soft ware facilities could be referred to the use of spelling and grammar checkers, Word soft ware, using various Web-sites, etc. Some of the students expressed that they did not have access to the computer at home. Therefore, many of the students rely on their teachers, especially at the primary levels for learning any topic in a face to face mode of instruction. Conditions were got worse due to the syllabus designers and teachers' performances. Most of the teachers had a habit of teaching traditionally. They were not eager to change their teaching styles. Furthermore, teachers are afraid that they may lose their authority. Additionally, they did not were proficient at using computers and both teachers confirmed these facts. It is obvious that an ignorant teacher about computer will not provide the students with more inputs such as pictures, sounds, and spelling. The principle also maintains that she did not have preference to allocate the limited budget for the purchase and maintaining the computers.

The findings of the research were matched with Atai and Dashtestani (2013) and Nepomuceno (2011). They believe that the students have not much knowledge of computer and internet and assert that it is essential for the students to take some training courses in Internet. The results of the study are in the line with Zou (2013) who focus on the teachers' difficulty in using the computer that comes from the teachers' insufficient computer competence.

#### **CONCLUSION**

The results of the immediate and delayed post-test showed that both groups were good at the recall of vocabulary learning and the means of the two groups increased after the treatment. The results of the delayed post-test also showed that there was no significant difference between the performance of the group who received CALL-based instruction and the group who received traditional instruction in spite of the fact that the experimental group's mean had an increase. Considering these results of data analyses, the researchers may conclude that CALL-based instruction has positive effect on the EFL learners' vocabulary recall and retention while traditional instruction has only positive effect on the EFL learners' vocabulary recall.

This section deals with the implications that the present study may bring out for material designers, language teachers, and language learners. Language studies in the domain of language learning and the use of CALL specifically in vocabulary learning are well advised to take the implications presented in this study. This study could be a striking inception of extensive investigations to be launched into discovering the advantages of using CALL over traditional instructions. The vocabulary learning and the use of CALL in promoting the recall and retention of vocabularies should be investigated by teachers as researchers for launching them for effective teaching of language and vocabulary specifically.

One the other hand, the EFL teachers may overlook the fact that the language learners have some difficulties at remembering these discrete vocabularies in their minds. In fact, they should keep in their mind that providing additional inputs help the students to remember the

vocabularies better and for a longer time. In language classrooms, it is suggested that language teachers also familiarize their language learners with applying computers to improve their vocabularies learning and retention. For the case of this study, language teachers are suggested to supply their students with interesting visual images, native language voices, and spelling introducing the most frequent English vocabularies. The teachers should realize knowing another language is not sufficient. The teachers should know how they can teach effectively to the students. One of the tools that help teachers to achieve this aim is the use of computers in the classrooms.

It is suggested that EFL learners who are intending to promote their recall and retention of vocabularies, use computer in which the vocabularies are presented with multidimensionality. Students are recommended to use computers because computers can be adjusted to the learners' needs and speed. Additionally, it is fruitful in helping students who are more instruction or the students that do not access to the teachers regularly.

The following suggestions may be carried out in the future research. They are: (1) this study was focused only female learners. Their ages were ranging from 12-14. This study can be replicated to male and female or male only. (2) in this study only elementary students. This study can be replicated to language learners at different proficiency levels to check what the findings will be. (3) this study investigated only the effect computers on EFL learners' recall and retention of high frequency vocabularies and does not consider the other techniques and strategies on EFL learners' recall and retention. (e.g., mnemonic devices).

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#### ABSTRACT

Teachers are regarded as the basic tools in education and curriculum implementations. So, teachers play a key role in changing schools and classrooms. This paper seeks to examine the relationships between teachers' beliefs about teaching with their educational background and gender. It also seeks to examine the relationships between teachers' beliefs about learning with their educational background and gender. Teachers' beliefs about teaching and Teachers' beliefs about learning questionnaires were administered. The study involved one hundred and twenty five teachers made up of sixty males that 30 of them were Bachelor of Arts and 30 were Master of Arts Sixty five females, that 30 of them were Bachelor of arts(B.A.) and 35 were Master of arts (M.A.). Two questionnaires were used to collect data for the study. The first questionnaire is the "Teachers' Beliefs Questionnaire about Teaching", and the second questionnaire is the "Teachers' Beliefs Questionnaire about Learning". The result indicated that there exists a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning with their educational background. The result also indicated that there exists no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning with their gender.

**KEYWORD:** Teachers' beliefs, teaching, learning

#### INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a complex process which can be conceptualized in a number of different ways. Traditionally, language teaching has been described in terms of what teachers do: that is, in terms of the actions and behaviors which teachers carry out in the classroom and the effects of these on learners (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p.34).

Teachers' beliefs, a term usually used to refer to teachers' pedagogic beliefs, or those beliefs of relevance to an individual's teaching. The areas most commonly explored are teachers' beliefs about teaching, learning, and learners; subject matter (i.e. EFL or language); self as a teacher, or the role of a teacher (Calderhead, 1996, p.716). Teachers' theoretical beliefs are thought to make up an important part of the prior knowledge through which teachers perceive, process, and act upon information in the classroom (Clark & Peterson, 1986, p.68). Johnson (1994) predicted that "research on teachers' beliefs would ultimately become one of the most valuable psychological constructs for teaching and teacher education" (p. 439).

Teachers' beliefs have impacts on their development and if it changes, it influences their beliefs. So, we should know whether to change our teaching plans or stay the same. Some researchers think that it is difficult to change the pre-service teachers' well-formed beliefs as they tend to teach the way they have been taught and implementing innovative approaches is a risk-taking act to them (Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). Other researchers affirm that teacher beliefs tend to be static and resistant to change because they exist in one's personal understandings, premises or propositions about the world which are felt to be true (Richardson, 1996, p.116). ESL/EFL teachers' beliefs exert significant influence on how they teach, how they learn to teach, and how they perceive educational reforms (Borg, 2003, p.102). Beliefs are the best indicators of the decisions individuals make throughout their lives, or more specifically, teachers' beliefs affect their planning, decision-making, and subsequent classroom behavior (Pajares, 1993, p.48).

The different beliefs that teachers and students hold toward the process of language teaching can negatively influence the effectiveness of language program (Kern, 1995). According to Pajares (1999), beliefs of the teacher influence the way that they teach, the roles they assign to themselves and students, the way they perceive learning / teaching and their attitudes towards their students. The term here refers to teachers' pedagogic beliefs, which are related to convictions about language and the teaching and learning of it. These beliefs are manifested in teachers' teaching approaches, selection of materials, activities, judgments, and behaviours in the classroom (Zacharias, 2005, p.116).

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

One difficulty in exploring the literature on pre-service teachers' beliefs lies in the multitude of definitions of beliefs (Pajares, 1992). In order to understand, it is important to clearly define and understand what is meant by belief. Researchers have defined the term, beliefs, in different ways. For example, Pajares (1992), in his literature review, defined belief as an "individual's judgment of truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do" (p.316).

Unfortunately, there is a lot of confusion in the literature regarding both the labels and definitions used to describe teacher beliefs. Pajares, in his 1992 review, labeled teacher beliefs a "messy construct," noting that "the difficulty in studying teachers' beliefs has been caused by definitional problems, poor conceptualizations, and differing understandings of beliefs and belief structures" (p. 307). According to Calderhead (1996), teacher beliefs, as well as teacher knowledge and teacher thinking, comprise the broader concept of teacher cognition. Yet, Kagan (1990) noted that the term teacher cognition "is somewhat ambiguous, because researchers invoke the term to refer to different products, including teachers' interactive thoughts during instruction; thoughts during lesson planning; implicit beliefs about students, classrooms, and learning; and reflections about their own teaching performance" (p. 42). Upon entering teacher education, most pre-service teachers would have already possessed a well-developed set of beliefs (Joram & Gabriele, 1998). These beliefs and attitudes are constructed based on cultural and personal beliefs, some of which may be long standing (Reynolds, 1992), stable, deeply entrenched and resistant or difficult to change (Joram & Gabriele, 1998). Kagan (1992) confirmed that pre-service teachers enter teacher education programs with personal beliefs about images of good teachers, images of themselves as teachers, and memories of themselves as students.

Richards and Lockhart (1996, p.32-40) have mentioned different kinds of beliefs: 1) Beliefs about English 2) beliefs about learning 3) beliefs about teaching 4) beliefs about the program and the curriculum 5) beliefs about language teaching as a profession

Williams and Burden (1997) argued that teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs, which in turn are closely linked to their values, to their views of the world and to their conceptions of their place within it. They also suggest that teachers' beliefs may be divided roughly into three major groups: 1) beliefs about learners, 2) beliefs about learning, 3) beliefs about themselves. Research on teaching and teacher education and research on teacher change emphasize the importance of beliefs, thoughts, judgements, knowledge, attitudes and theories of teachers for teaching practice (Pajares, 1992). As researchers hope to find ways to adjust and refine learners' beliefs, studies about teachers' beliefs have become another interest of researchers in the field and are the focus of several studies. These studies are based on the assumptions that learners develop their beliefs about language learning from their learning experiences (Horwitz, 1987) and that teacher beliefs influence their classroom practices which, in turn, can affect their students' learning (Johnson, 1992, p.13). Teachers are viewed as important agents of change in the reform effort currently under way in education and thus are expected to play a key role in changing schools and classrooms. Paradoxically, however, teachers are also viewed as major obstacles to change because of their adherence to outmoded forms of instruction that emphasize factual and procedural knowledge at the expense of deeper levels of understanding. New constructivist approaches to teaching and learning, which many reformers advocate, are inconsistent with much of what teachers believe--a problem that may be overcome if teachers are willing to rethink their views on a number of issues. (Prawat, 1992, p.354). It has been long understood that some beliefs are more important than others to individuals, and the more important the belief is, the more difficult it is to change (Rokeach, 1968, p. 3). Bruner (1986) cited that the prior beliefs of teacher candidates can hinder learning about teaching. As found in Horwitz (1985), pre-service second language teachers enter teacher education programs with preexisting ideas about language and language learning, just like second language learners. Some ideas that the pre-service teachers possess may inhibit their learning of new approaches and techniques in the teacher education programs, which can limit their choices of instructional practices. Therefore, it is hoped that pre-service teachers, while they are in teacher education programs, refine their beliefs about language learning to enhance their own learning and development.

Goldhaber and Brewer (2000) reported that students taught by teachers with bachelor's degrees in science had significantly higher science achievement scores than teachers with a bachelor's degree in a non-science subject. Beliefs are often confused with other related concepts such as attitudes, values, judgments, concepts, and dispositions. Pajares (1992) explained that clusters of beliefs around a particular situation form attitudes, and attitudes become action agendas that guide decisions and behavior. In other words, people act upon what they believe. The connections among clusters of beliefs create an individual's values that guide one's life and ultimately determine behavior (Ajzen, 1996). Obviously, science teachers possess beliefs regarding professional practice. Since beliefs may affect actions, teachers' beliefs play a critical role in restructuring science education. (Tobin, Tippins, & Gallard, 1994, p.64). In general, stronger beliefs are those that are more central to an individual's identity (Rokeach, 1968), quite possibly because they were established during earlier experiences and thus, were used in the processing of subsequent experiences (Pajares, 1992). Teachers' belief systems are founded on the goals, values, and beliefs teachers hold in relation to the content and process of teaching, and their understanding of the systems in which they work and their roles within it. These beliefs and values serve as the background to much of the teachers' decision making and action, and hence constitute what has been termed the "culture of teaching." (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 30). Pre-existing beliefs are so influential that attempts to change teaching styles are ineffective, unless these beliefs are directly questioned (Johnson, 1988). The earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter (Pajares, 1992). Richardson (1996) highlighted three major sources of teacher beliefs: personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction, and experience with formal knowledge--both school subjects and pedagogical knowledge. Convincing research suggests that beliefs are the best predictors of individual behavior, and, in particular, that teachers' beliefs influence teachers' perceptions and judgments, which, in turn, affect classroom performance. Moreover, we know that beliefs are hardy and highly resistant to change, and we suspect that teacher education programs have a little impact on the entering perspectives of teacher candidates. If this is so, understanding the nature and role of the beliefs will bring to teacher education is essential to understanding not only the choices and decisions she will make as a pre-service teacher, but her future effectiveness as a professional in her own classroom (Pajares, 1993, p.45).

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

The present study focuses on the following research questions:

- 1) Is there any relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their educational background?
- 2) Is there any relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their gender?
- 3) Is there any relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their educational background?
- 4) Is there any relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender?

H01: There is no relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their educational background.

H02: There is no relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their gender.

H01: There is no relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their educational background.

H01: There is no relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender.

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

The participants of this study were 125 teachers teaching English at different institutes in Neishabour and Mashad (two north-eastern cities in Iran). Majority (N= 65) of the teachers were female, with teaching experience of 5 to 10 years. 65 of the subjects were female and 60 were male. All of the teachers taught English at different levels. The majority held either a BA (male=32, female=33) as their highest degree, or an MA degree (male=30, female=30). The age of the participants ranged from 25 to 40, but the age of the participants were not considered in this study. They are all experienced teachers, who were graduated from different universities with different majors, including: English translation, English teaching, and English literature. All of them taught in different institutes.

### *Instrument*

#### *Teachers' Beliefs Questionnaire about Teaching*

The teachers' beliefs questionnaire about teaching was used in order to find out if there is any relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their gender or their educational background. It is believed that these kinds of questionnaires can measure the teachers' beliefs about teaching. This questionnaire was made up 15 items. The Belief Questionnaire about Teaching (Leu & Kinzer, 1991), contained 15 statements, five of which represented each of the methodological approaches toward second-language teaching. Each statement on the Beliefs Inventory was validated by the same two expert raters. Thirteen out of the 15 statements received 100% agreement by both raters and were incorporated into the Beliefs Inventory. Two statements were reworded slightly, recoded, and later incorporated into the Beliefs Inventory (Johnson, 1992, p.89). Teachers were asked to read all 15 statements and select 5 out of the 15 statements which most closely

reflected their own beliefs about second-language teaching. Teachers were assigned a percentage score based on the number of skill-based, rule-based, and function-based statements they selected. Skill-based (4, 6, 10, 12, 14), Rule-based (1, 3, 5, 8,11), Function-based (2, 7, 9, 13, 15).

**Teachers' Beliefs Questionnaire about Learning**

The teachers' beliefs questionnaire about learning was used in order to find out if there is any relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender or their educational background. It is believed that these kinds of questionnaires can measure the teachers' beliefs about learning. This questionnaire was made up 23 items. They are beliefs that some people have about learning foreign languages. The old version of BALLI ( Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory) has 34 items, by Horwitz,1987.This is a new version of BALLI which was used by Richards and Lockhart, 1996. The BALLI, a 23-item inventory on beliefs about language learning was used to collect data from the teachers. It is a 5- point likert- type scale, which teachers should read each statement and then decide if they: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. Questions 22 & 23 are slightly different and they should mark them as indicated. There are no clear cut right and wrong answers to the BALLI questions (Horwitz, 1987, p.119). The items on the BALLI assessed teachers' beliefs in four areas: 1) the difficulty of language learning (6items), 2) foreign language aptitude (8 items), 3) the nature of language learning (5 items), 4) learning and communication strategies (4 items).

**Procedure and Data Analysis**

We administered two questionnaires to 125 teachers who are selected from different institutes. We want to know if teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning have any impacts on their gender or educational background. The two questionnaires were given to teachers to do with 10-15 minutes, respectively. After the collected data was categorized and codified, the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.5 and the Minitab-15 were utilized for data analysis. Data derived from the questionnaire were analyzed by using descriptive statistical methods. Frequencies and percentages for all items of the questionnaires were obtained. Moreover, the techniques of Chi-square-test were performed. Means and standard deviations of each question were provided along with the descriptive statistics of rule-based, function-based and skill-based statements determined by Johnson (1992).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Investigation of Research Question One**

To answer the first research question of this study which asked if teachers' beliefs about teaching have any relationship with their educational background, the responses of B.A. and M.A. participants were analyzed. The results are set forth in the following table and figure. The review of Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 reveal that BA teachers chose different statements about teaching in comparison with MA teachers.

*Table 1:  
Descriptive Statistics of BA Teachers about Teaching*

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Statement 5	65	1	0	1	31	.48	.503
Statement 4	65	1	0	1	30	.46	.502
Statement 10	65	1	0	1	28	.43	.499
Statement 7	65	1	0	1	28	.43	.499
Statement 14	65	1	0	1	26	.40	.494
Statement 11	65	1	0	1	25	.38	.490
Statement 9	65	1	0	1	23	.35	.482
Statement 8	65	1	0	1	22	.34	.477
Statement 3	65	1	0	1	21	.32	.471
Statement 2	65	1	0	1	21	.32	.471
Statement 12	65	1	0	1	18	.28	.451
Statement 15	65	1	0	1	17	.26	.443
Statement 13	65	1	0	1	14	.22	.414
Statement 6	65	1	0	1	13	.20	.403
Statement1	65	1	0	1	8	.12	.331

*Table 2:*

*Descriptive Statistics of BA Teachers about Teaching*

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Skill-based	65	4.00	.00	4.00	115.00	1.7692	.87979
Rule-based	65	3.00	.00	3.00	107.00	1.6462	.92586
Function-based	65	4.00	.00	4.00	103.00	1.5846	.93361

*Table 3:  
Descriptive Statistics of MA Teachers about Teaching*

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Statement 7	60	1	0	1	36	.60	.494
Statement 4	60	1	0	1	26	.43	.500
Statement 10	60	1	0	1	25	.42	.497
Statement 8	60	1	0	1	25	.42	.497
Statement 5	60	1	0	1	24	.40	.494
Statement 14	60	1	0	1	22	.37	.486
Statement 2	60	1	0	1	22	.37	.486
Statement 13	60	1	0	1	21	.35	.481
Statement 11	60	1	0	1	20	.33	.475
Statement 12	60	1	0	1	18	.30	.462
Statement 3	60	1	0	1	16	.27	.446
Statement 9	60	1	0	1	15	.25	.437
Statement 6	60	1	0	1	13	.22	.415
Statement 15	60	1	0	1	10	.17	.376
Statement 1	60	1	0	1	7	.12	.324

*Table 4:  
Descriptive Statistics of MA Teachers about Teaching*

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Function-based	60	4.00	.00	4.00	104.00	1.7333	1.05552
Skill-based	60	4.00	.00	4.00	104.00	1.7333	1.02290
Rule-based MA	60	4.00	.00	4.00	92.00	1.5333	1.15666

Since teachers holding MA and BA selected different statements and order of preferences (statements number 5, 4, 10, 7, and 14 by BA teachers, but 7, 4, 10, 8, and 5 by MA teachers in order of preferences) the first null hypothesis which predicted that there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their educational background was rejected. So, it can be asserted that there is a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their educational background.

**Investigation of Research Question Two**

To answer the second research question of this study which asked if teachers' beliefs about teaching have any relationship with their gender, the responses of males or females participants were analyzed. The results are set forth in the following table and figure. The review of Tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 reveal that male teachers chose the same statements about teaching in comparison with female teachers.

Table 5:  
Descriptive Statistics of Male Teachers about Teaching

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Statement 7	62	1	0	1	31	.50	.504
Statement 4	62	1	0	1	27	.44	.500
Statement 11	62	1	0	1	27	.44	.500
Statement 5	62	1	0	1	26	.42	.497
Statement 10	62	1	0	1	26	.42	.497
Statement 8	62	1	0	1	23	.37	.487
Statement 13	62	1	0	1	21	.34	.477
Statement 14	62	1	0	1	20	.32	.471
Statement 12	62	1	0	1	20	.32	.471
Statement 2	62	1	0	1	19	.31	.465
Statement 3	62	1	0	1	19	.31	.465
Statement 9	62	1	0	1	18	.29	.458
Statement 6	62	1	0	1	13	.21	.410
Statement 1	62	1	0	1	10	.16	.371
Statement 15	62	1	0	1	10	.16	.371

Table 6:  
Descriptive Statistics of Male Teachers about Teaching

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Skill-based	62	4.00	.00	4.00	106.00	1.7097	.89419
Rule-based	62	3.00	.00	3.00	105.00	1.6935	1.06492
Function-based	62	4.00	.00	4.00	99.00	1.5968	1.07825

Table 7:  
Descriptive Statistics of Female Teachers about Teaching

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Statement 7	63	1	0	1	33	.52	.503
Statement 5	63	1	0	1	29	.46	.502
Statement 4	63	1	0	1	29	.46	.502
Statement 14	63	1	0	1	28	.44	.501
Statement 10	63	1	0	1	27	.43	.499
Statement 2	63	1	0	1	24	.38	.490
Statement 8	63	1	0	1	24	.38	.490
Statement 9	63	1	0	1	20	.32	.469
Statement 11	63	1	0	1	18	.29	.455
Statement 3	63	1	0	1	18	.29	.455
Statement 15	63	1	0	1	17	.27	.447
Statement 12	63	1	0	1	16	.25	.439
Statement 13	63	1	0	1	14	.22	.419
Statement 6	63	1	0	1	13	.21	.408
Statement 1	63	1	0	1	5	.08	.272

Table 8:  
Descriptive Statistics of Female Teachers about Teaching

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Skill-based	63	4.00	.00	4.00	113.00	1.7937	1.00256
Function-based	63	4.00	.00	4.00	108.00	1.7143	.90569
Rule-based	63	4.00	.00	4.00	94.00	1.4921	1.01398

Since male and female teachers selected almost the same statements and in order of preferences, 4 out of 5 (statements number 7, 4, 11, 5, and 10 by male teachers, and 7, 5, 4, 14, and 10 in order of preference), the first null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their gender was not rejected. So, it can be asserted that there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and their gender.

#### Investigation of Research Question Three

To answer the third research question of this study which asked if teachers' beliefs about learning have any relationship with their educational background, the responses of BA and MA participants were analyzed. The results are set forth in the following table and figure. The review of Table 9 reveals that BA teachers chose different statements about learning in comparison with MA teachers.

Table 9:  
Group Cross Tabulation of BA and MA Teachers about Learning

			Group		
			0-2	2-2.5	2.5-3
Educational background	BA	Count	3	25	36
		% within Educational background	4.6%	38.5%	55.4%
	MA	Count	1	12	37
		% within Educational background	1.7%	20.0%	61.7%
Total	Count	4	37	73	
	% within Educational background	3.2%	29.6%	58.4%	

The results of Cross tabulation for testing the significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and educational background showed a statistically significant Sig. for Pearson Chi-Square based on items number 1, 5, 7, 9, 16, 19, and 20 ( $p < .05$ ), however did not find a statistically significant Sig. for Pearson Chi-Square based on items number 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 21, 22, and 23 ( $p > .05$ ). As a result, it can be stated that there is a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their educational background according to items number 1, 5, 7, 9, 16, 19, and 20, but there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their educational background based on other 16 items (see appendix C and D for more details).

Table 10:  
Chi-Square Tests of BA and MA Teachers about Learning

	Value	df	Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.765	3	.005
Likelihood Ratio	14.074	3	.003
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.018	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	125		

The results of chi-square for teachers' beliefs about learning showed that at 95 per cent confidence level, .05 alpha level, and the output above gave a Pearson Chi-Square value of 12.76, and  $p$ -value of .005, which is less than 0.05; accordingly, the third null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their educational background was rejected (See Table 10). So it can be stated that there is a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their educational background.

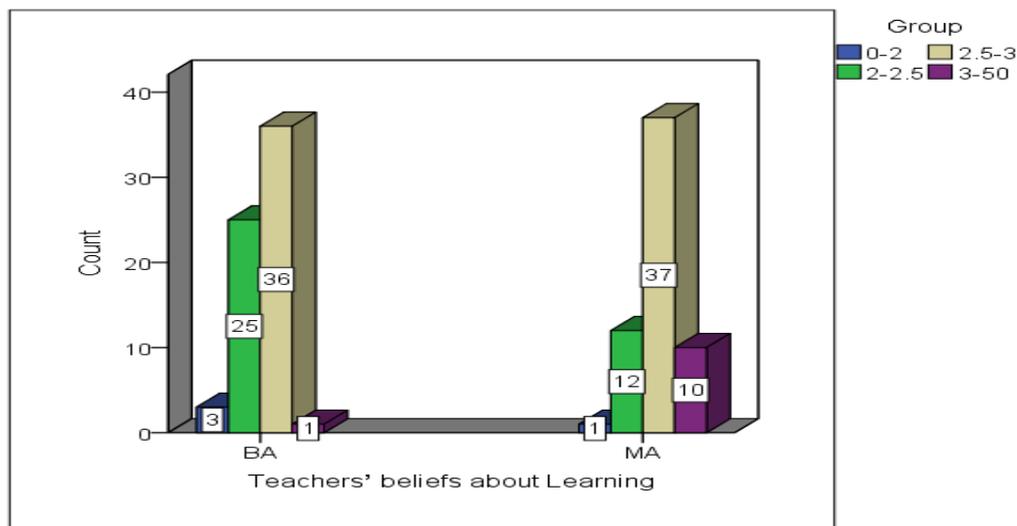


Figure 1:  
Descriptive Statistics of BA and MA Teachers about Learning

**Investigation of Research Question Four**

To answer the fourth research question of this study which asked if teachers' beliefs about learning have any relationship with their gender, the responses of males and females participants were analyzed. The results are set forth in the following table and figure. The review of Table 11 reveals that male teachers chose the same statements about learning in comparison with female teachers.

Table 11:  
Group Cross Tabulation of Male and Female Teachers about Learning

		Group				Total
		0-2	2-2.5	2.5-3	3-50	
Gender	Male	2	13	40	7	62
	% within Gender	3.2%	21.0%	64.5%	11.3%	100.0%
Gender	Female	2	24	33	4	63
	% within Gender	3.2%	38.1%	52.4%	6.3%	100.0%
Total	Count	4	37	73	11	125
	% within Gender	3.2%	29.6%	58.4%	8.8%	100.0%

The results of Cross tabulation for testing the significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and gender did not show a statistically significant *Sig.* for Pearson Chi-Square based on all items ( $p > .05$ ), except for item number 23 ( $p = .04$ ,  $p < .05$ ); accordingly it can be claimed that there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender according to the majority of items ( $N = 22$  items), and there is a significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender according to just item number 23 (see appendix C and D for more details).

Table 12:  
Chi-Square Tests Male and Female Teachers about Learning

	Value	df	Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.752	3	.191
Likelihood Ratio	4.813	3	.186
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.415	1	.065
N of Valid Cases	125		

The results of chi-square for teachers' beliefs about learning showed that at 95 per cent confidence level, .05 alpha level, and the output above gave a Pearson Chi-Square value of 4.75, and  $p$ -value of .19, which is greater than 0.05; accordingly, the fourth null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender, was not rejected (See Table 12). So it can be claimed that there is no significant relationship between teachers' beliefs about learning and their gender.

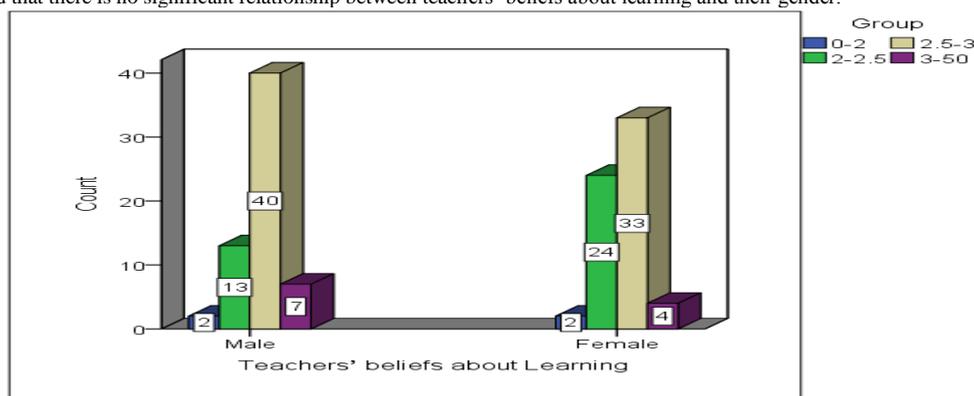


Figure 2:  
Descriptive Statistics of Male and Female Teachers about Learning

## CONCLUSION

Teachers are viewed as important agents of change in the reform effort currently under way in education and thus are expected to play a key role in changing schools and classrooms. Paradoxically, however, teachers are also viewed as major obstacles to change because of their adherence to outmoded forms of instruction that emphasize factual and procedural knowledge at the expense of deeper levels of understanding (Prawat, 1992, p.354). Novice teachers' prior learning experiences were influential in shaping their initial beliefs. However, the majority of the teachers' beliefs were re-structured and strengthened, suggesting that beliefs are dynamic (Pajares, 1993, p.46). Teachers' beliefs also strongly influence their teaching behavior, methods, and learners' development. Determination of learners' and teachers' beliefs in language teaching/learning process will be helpful in forming effective learning/teaching methods (Buyukyazi, 2010, p.183). Labeled a "messy construct" by Pajares (1992), beliefs are still considered the "best indicators of the decisions individuals make

throughout their lives" (p. 307). Kagan (1992, p.76) cited significant evidence supporting the relationship between teacher beliefs and their decisions about classroom practice. The main concern of this study was to investigate this assumption whether or not teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning have any significant relationship with their gender and educational background. To assure and determine any significant relationship, the results of performance of each MA and BA including male and female teacher was analyzed through applying two questionnaires. In addition, the null-hypothesis 2 and 4 proposed in this study is supported; So, there is no relationships between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning with their gender. But, the null hypothesis 1 and 3 proposed in this study is rejected. So, there is a relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning with their educational background. According to the result of chi-square which is used to determine the statistical significance of the difference between the means on two sets of answers, it could be concluded that there is no relationships between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning with their gender. But there is a relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning with their educational background in both questionnaires. This research studied the relationships between teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning with their gender and educational background. It proved that teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning have relationships with their educational background, although teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning don't have any relationships with their gender. It is hoped that the results of this research would be beneficial for syllabus designer who are trying to design a syllabus in which teachers' beliefs is emphasized. English language teachers, and language learners, and pave the way for their investigation.

#### **Limitation/ Delimitation of the Study**

The present study, like any other studies, suffers from some limitations and delimitation. Limitations are those conditions beyond the control of the researcher that may place restrictions on the conclusion of the study. In this study, the researcher faced with some limitations and delimitation. Here the most important one is brought to light.

1. This research is exclusively done on Iranian language teachers, and the participants are confined to English institute teachers.
2. Teachers experiences are not considered
3. Teachers are graduated from different universities
4. Teachers' beliefs have various types and all of these varieties can't be covered thoroughly in this study.
5. This study was conducted only in Neishabour and Mashad and no other cities.
6. Teachers just teach in different institutes, not any other places.
7. Teachers teach in different levels.
8. Teachers ages are not considered.
9. We considered just BA and MA teachers (not PHD).
10. They are graduated in different majors: English translation, English literature, and English teaching.

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#### ABSTRACT

One of the most important skills for language learners, especially in academic settings, is the oral presentation skill. The current study, which is unique in its own, tried to shed light on the interrelationship of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' self-regulation, willingness to communicate (WTC), and their oral presentation performance. To achieve such a purpose, 90 advanced-level EFL learners were selected on the basis of random sampling procedure and were given a questionnaire on WTC and one on self-regulation. They were also required to give an oral presentation about their favorite topic. Having gathered the data and analyzing them through correlation, independent t-test, and descriptive statistics, the study revealed that first; there is a significant relationship between the self-regulation degree of language learners and their oral performance. Second, there is a strong, positive relationship between the WTC degree of learners and their oral presentation performance. And finally, the study showed a significant difference in the oral performance of language learners showing that females are better oral presenters than males. The findings of the paper may significantly contribute to the better understanding of the conditions leading to learners' more telling oral performance in different higher education setting including conferences.

**KEYWORDS:** Willingness to communicate (WTC); Self-regulation; Oral presentation; EFL learners.

#### INTRODUCTION

People use language to communicate and also to get something done. For instance, they may intend to carry out some important functions in classroom such as having a good rapport with each other, or conveying their meaning by different ways like having a lecture, or having a small conversation or even having an oral presentation. Making a good oral presentation is an art that involves attention to the needs of your audience, careful planning, and attention to delivery. Clearly, the most obvious manifestation of learning a foreign or second language (L2) is the ability of learners to speak the language accurately and fluently in different contexts and also to be able to communicate their ideas clearly to other individuals who speak the same language. Therefore, in many situations knowing a language is equated with speaking that language impeccably. In addition, especially at advanced levels, oral presentation is one of the most fundamental prerequisites for many language courses or subject matters that are presented via the medium of L2. Consequently, many studies in the arena of teaching and learning L2 have focused on the oral performance of students in foreign or second language classrooms (Yu, 2003; Volle, 2005) and the factors affecting oral presentations (for example, Consolo, 2006).

Now a question that comes into mind is that what exactly an oral presentation is. A presentation can normally be identified by three main elements: (1) it is almost always prepared in outline form and spoken from aids or notes; (2) it normally involves visual aids or graphics; and (3) it usually is given to a participating audience, asking questions and engaging in dialog as in most classrooms. Oral presentations are a common requirement in many courses. They may be short or long, include slides or other visual aids, and be done individually or in a group which can be done by other people (Jing, 2009). Since in oral presentations, the aim is usually to convey information to audience, they can provide a real life context for communication in the second of foreign language and increase learners' interaction in the classroom.

Furthermore, it is axiomatic that English is an international language used by scads of people as a first, second, or foreign language for communication purposes (Strevens, 1992). The purpose of teaching English, as a result, has shifted from structure learning to the ability to use the language for communicative purposes. In other words, in the past, the aim of teaching English was the mastery of the structure of the language. However, in this age of communication, English seems to be playing a major role, and the purpose of teaching the language has shifted from the mastery of structure to the ability to use the language for communicative purposes. Thus, the communication aspect of teaching English has gained importance. Moreover, the ultimate goal of language learning is "authentic communication between persons of different languages and cultural backgrounds" (McIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 559). Consequently, the issues of whether learners would communicate in English when they had the chance and what would affect their willingness to communicate gain importance. Recently, a "Willingness to Communicate" (WTC) model was developed by McIntyre et al. (1998) to explain and predict second language communication.

The concept of "Willingness to Communicate" (WTC) was first coined by McCroskey and his colleagues in relation to communication in the native language (McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990; Zakahi & McCroskey, 1989). McCroskey and Richmond (1990) consider WTC as a personality feature and define it as "variability in talking behavior". WTC was originally introduced with reference to L1 communication, and it was considered to be a fixed personality trait that is fixed across situations, but when WTC was also stretched to L2 communication situations, it was propounded that it is not necessary to fetter WTC to a feature-like variable, since the use of an L2 suggests the potential for important situational differences based on wide variations in competence and inter-group relations (Macintyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). They claim that even though situational variables might have an impact on one's willingness to communicate, individuals exhibit similar WTC tendencies in different situations. Moreover, they identified introversion, self-esteem, communication competence, communication apprehension and cultural diversity as factors that lead to differences in WTC. Willingness to communicate (WTC) is also defined as "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using a L2" (McIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998, p. 547). WTC can also be understood as the probability of involving in communication when free to select to do so (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). As such, WTC shows a psychological readiness to speak a second or foreign language, and is based on much more than objective linguistic competence.

Besides, Self-Regulated Learning (SRL) has emerged as an important new construct in education. As the general picture of school to date is not a satisfactory one, the concept has been accepted by policy makers, teachers, educators and parents. With the emergence of this new construct, lots of debate about school reform appeared world-wide. Policy makers nowadays approve and support the basic principles of self-regulated learning and consider school reform as one of their main goals intending to change the status of the schools. In other words, educational psychologists and policy makers seek self-regulated learners. Self-regulated learning can also be described as an active process whereby learners construct goals for learning, monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior (Paris & Paris, 2001). They are guided and constrained by their own goals and the individual characteristics of a particular learning environment. Self-regulatory

activities affect individual students, their level of achievement, and the learning context. It is important for students to learn how to learn and take control of their efforts (Wolters, Pintrich, & Karabenick, 2005).

In addition, language learners learn a language because they want to acquire and use it to communicate with those who speak the language. They may also want to get to know the native speakers' culture and learn about the country where the language is spoken. However, what happens if a university requires students to learn a second or foreign language that the students do not wish to learn? It is obvious that students who do not want to learn the language will not be able to do well in class. Researchers believe motivation to learn is an effective factor in language learning.

Taking into account issues like the present one contribute significantly in the better and more telling teaching and promoting of a language. That is, by knowing whether there is any relationship among the above-cited variables, teachers can take the most suitable strategies to encourage learners to use the language for communicative purposes and to regulate their own learning process more effectively and without causing any negative feeling. Moreover, although several studies have been conducted in recent years on self-regulation, very few, if any, have specifically focused on exploring the relationship between Self-Regulation, WTC, and oral presentation. Besides, this study is significant in that it can provide valuable data to those who serve on the front line of education. The research results may serve as a guide for foreign language teachers in terms of helping them to increase their understanding of language learning from the learner's perspective and give them more insight into the advantage of self-Regulation in communication and thereby assist them in enhancing students' ability to communicate better English. Finally, no previous study has exclusively dealt with the interrelationship among these three issues; consequently, making the present study more important than before.

### BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Oral presentation is a practical device that if implemented carefully can provide many opportunities for language learners. Godev (2007), enumerating various benefits of oral presentations, believes that the oral presentation can give learners an awareness of new rhetorical devices that are specific to the rhetorical situation. It also provides the students with the opportunity to experience a creative process that is very similar to the writing process. In particular, Godev (2007) suggests that the oral presentation with an appropriate topic provides an enriched ground for students to use their oral skills and at the same time incorporating morpho-syntactic and discourse structures that are needed for intermediate and advanced proficiency levels. Furthermore, considering the increasing demands for a move from teacher-centered activities toward student-centered instruction (Wenden, 2002; Lee & VanPatten, 1995) It seems that oral presentation is extremely suitable for applying this principle since students have some freedom to choose a topic of their own interest, and they play the primary role during the oral performance while the teacher's role becomes secondary during the presentation.

However, to be more effective, oral presentations should follow an appropriate procedure. Godev (2007) suggests the procedure for delivering successful oral presentations should consist of: "(1) defining the topic, (2) providing information sources, (3) assisting the audience, (4) keeping track of the preparation process, (5) organizing the talk, (6) delivering the talk, and (7) obtaining the desired grade" (p. 2). In this line, the topic of presentation must be consistent with and covered in the syllabus. Teachers also should make accessible sources of information to the students in order to minimize research time. Furthermore, students must be instructed on how to interact with the audience and in order to monitor the process of preparation for oral presentations, students may be required to keep track of the preparation process in the form of various portfolios or self reports. In addition to the way students organize their talk and the way they deliver it to the audience, a grading criterion is needed to show the clarity, quality, organization of the ideas, etc. in oral presentations (Godev, 2007).

There have been many attempts to realize willingness to communicate (WTC) to expound a person's degree of readiness to take part in discourse in a second or foreign language (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei & Noels, 1998). Some researchers have discussed that a basic goal of second language education should be the construction of WTC in the language learning process (MacIntyre et al., 2002). It is proposed that higher WTC among learners translates into increased opportunity for practice in an L2 (Second Language) and authentic L2 usage (MacIntyre et al., 2001).

MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Donovan (2002) in their studies investigated the role of gender regarding affective variables. Their findings espouse those of preceding studies (e.g., Gardner, 1985) which uncovered more desirable attitudes and motivation among female language learners. In the Macintyre et al (2002) study, results revealed an increase in WTC and a decrease in anxiety among girls as they mature whereas boys remained constant throughout their middle school years (i.e., Grades 7-9; ages 11-13). Baker and MacIntyre (2000) reported that girls had greater levels of WTC inside the classroom whereas boys were more willing to use their L2 outside the school context. Another factor which may affect WTC is the channel of communication. In the past, research in computer-mediated communication (CMC) has implied that the computer might change a student's willingness to communicate. Freiermuth (1998, 2001), as an example, found out that when groups of language learners using CMC were presented with a task to solve, they seemed more willing to communicate than groups using spoken language. On the basis of Freiermuth, the discrepancies could be related to use of the computer rather than other variables. In other words, online chat gave students an opportunity to express themselves without being prevented by the teacher, other students or a surfeit of other elements that might reduce the effect of the experience.

Schunk and Zimmerman (1998) have pointed out that self-regulated learners are generally characterized as active participants who efficiently control their learning experiences in many different ways, including organizing and rehearsing information to be learned, and holding positive beliefs about their capabilities, the value of learning and factors that influence learning. SRL is also the ability to control and influence one's learning processes positively. The learners take personal initiative and apply powerful strategies to attain individually valued learning goals and monitor their understanding in order to detect and eliminate possible comprehension problems (Paris & Paris, 2001).

Self-regulated learning can also be described as an active process whereby learners construct goals for learning, monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behavior (Paris & Paris, 2001). They are guided and constrained by their own goals and the individual characteristics of a particular learning environment. Self-regulatory activities affect individual students, their level of achievement, and the learning context. It is important for students to learn how to learn and take control of their efforts (Wolters, Pintrich, & Karabenick, 2005).

Graham and Harris (1994) assert that self-regulated learning skills are indispensable at almost all levels of education. They then add that self-regulation assumes a prominent position in contemporary models of teaching and learning and is a major focus in the New Learning Environments (NLEs) approach. Working from a social cognitive perspective, Schunk and Zimmerman (1994) define self-regulation as a

process students use in order to activate and sustain cognitions, behaviors, and affects which are systematically oriented toward attainment of their goals" (p.309). Students who are self-regulated actively participate in their own learning, rather than relying solely on teachers, parents, or other external change agents to import knowledge (Alexander, 1997).

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

In line with the above statements, the present study is an attempt to provide answers to the following question:

- 1) Is there any interrelationship between the self-regulation of EFL learners and their oral presentation performance?
- 2) Is there any interrelationship between the WTC of EFL learners and their oral presentation performance?
- 3) Which of the independent variables of the study is a better predictor of learners' oral presentation?
- 4) Does the gender of learners affect significantly their oral performance?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

All in all, 90 Iranian language learners, based on random sampling procedure, attending an English language institute in Shahrekord, Iran took part in the study. The participants, who were taking advanced-level courses, were 45 male and 45 female and aged between 21 and 38 years old. The reason for selecting advanced-level language learners was that in this level of proficiency much more communication is needed in classes than what is in elementary and intermediate levels.

**Materials and Data Collection**

The first material employed in the present paper was a questionnaire on willingness to communicate. It was used to measure the participants' willingness to communicate. It comprised twelve items (Cronbach alpha = .83) from McCroskey (1992). The respondents chose the percentage of the time ranging from 0% to 100% that they would be willing to communicate in different contexts and with different addresses. As with the reliability of the questionnaire, the questionnaire was distributed among 25 learners, exclusive of the main participants. Calculating the Cronbach alpha formula, it turned out to be .81. Besides, the content and face validity of this instrument was examined by some professional experts of Shahrekord and Shiraz universities and was confirmed by them to be valid for the present paper purpose. Furthermore, to gain data regarding the self-regulation variable of learners, Language-Learners' Self-Regulating Questionnaire (LLSQ) were utilized. It consists of 12 subscales with a total of 36 items. Besides, for ensuring about the reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted on 25 advanced-level language learners who were not included in the study sample. The reported reliability was about .78. Finally, as to the validity of the questionnaire, it was looked into by the above-mentioned professors and was approved by them to be valid for the study purpose. Finally, the language learners were also supposed to give an oral presentation on a topic favorite to them. The main reason for allowing them to choose their own topics was to diminish the negative effects of stress and other affective factors as much as possible. For evaluating their performance, a scheme was developed by the author (with the consultation of some seasoned professors and also reviewing a set of related books). The scheme consisted of a set of subsections, each assessing different aspects of learners' oral performance including their stress, fluency, structure accuracy, appropriate vocabulary, etc.

**Data Analysis**

The gathered data was subjected to statistical analysis to explore the existence of any relationship between self-regulation of the language learners and their WTC and their oral performance. To be more exact, SPSS version 16 in general and two correlation analyses, along with a regression, and one independent t-test in particular were run to ascertain data regarding the above-mentioned questions.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

To present the results of the study, the research questions of the study mentioned in the initial sections of the study are individually brought in and then by considering the related obtained findings of the study are answered. The first research question was:

- 1) Is there any interrelationship between the self-regulation of EFL learners and their oral presentation performance?

Regarding the first question in this research, it wanted to see if there is any relationship between the self-regulation of learners and their oral presentation performance. To gain knowledge on this point, correlation statistical analysis was run. Table 1 represents the results of the test.

*Table 1: Self-Regulation and Oral Presentation Correlation*

		Self-regulation	Oral presentation
Self-regulation	Pearson Correlation	1	.947
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
	N	90	90
Oral presentation	Pearson Correlation	.947	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	
	N	90	90

A set of interpretations can be made by considering this table. First, the table shows that there is a high correlation between the two factors of the study that is, self-regulation and oral presentation (Pearson Correlation = .94). Second, because the Pearson value is a positive value, it may be inferred that there is a positive correlation between the two variables. Finally, the coefficient of determination can also be obtained from the table. It is resulted by squaring the r value and converting the obtained value into percentage of variance (by multiplying it by 100).

The r value showed in the table is almost .94. Therefore, coefficient of determination will be approximately 88 percent; meaning that the two variables share a considerable amount of variance. Finally, a significant difference is observed between the variables ( $p = .00 < .05$ ).

2) Is there any interrelationship between the WTC of EFL learners and their oral presentation performance?

Having ascertained that there is a high, positive relationship between the self-regulation of the language learners and their oral performance, now in the second research question the interrelationship of WTC and oral presentation is addressed. Table 2 represents the pertaining results.

Table 2: WTC and Oral Presentation Correlation

		WTC	Oral presentation
WTC	Pearson Correlation	1	.87
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
	N	90	90
Oral presentation	Pearson Correlation	.87	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	
	N	90	90

The table shows that, like the previous case, there is a high correlation between the two variables (Pearson Correlation = .87). Second, because the Pearson value is a positive value, it may be inferred that there is a positive correlation between the two variables. Finally, the coefficient of determination will be approximately 75 percent; meaning that the two variables share a considerable amount of variance. Finally, a significant difference is observed between the variables ( $p = .00 < .05$ ).

3) Which of the independent variables of the study is a better predictor of learners' oral presentation?

Having proved the existence of a strong positive correlation between each of the two independent variables of the study (self-regulation and WTC), now the results of regression analysis is brought in to see which of the independent variables is a better predictor of learners' oral presentation performance. Table 3 presents the model summary findings of regression.

Table 3: Model Summary of the Variables

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.915	.71	-.70	1.72

As the table reveals, 71 percent of the variance in the learners' oral performance is explained by the combination of the two independent variables namely self-regulation and WTC ( $R^2 = .71$ ). Besides, to see whether the coefficient of the regression demonstrated by  $R^2$  is significant or not, Table 4 is brought.

Table 4: ANOVA Results of Self-regulation and WTC Related to Oral performance

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	97.0	2	48.5	.513	.001
	Residual	7191.5	76	94.6		
	Total	7288.5	78			

The tables demonstrates that the coefficient reported by  $R^2$  is significant (Sig. = .001). Now to pinpoint which independent variable is a better predictor of writing performance, Table 5 needs to be examined.

Table 5: Coefficients of self-regulation and WTC

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	74.566	8.207		9.085	.000
	WTC	.053	.136	.47	.390	.02
	self-regulation	.103	.102	.21	-1.010	.04

The table indicates that of the two independent variables, it is WTC that is a better predictor of learners' oral presentation performance. In other words, by examining the Beta value reported in the same table it can be inferred that with regard to WTC, one standard deviation unit change in the score for motivation leads to .47 unit of change in the oral presentation performance. And as to the self-regulation variable, this unit of change would be .21. Therefore, WTC can better predict the writing performance of language learners.

4) Does the gender of learners affect significantly their oral performance?

Finally, to ascertain whether there is any significant difference in the performance of language learners in terms of their gender, the independent t-test findings in the form of Table 6 are revealed.

**Table 6: Independent T-Test of Gender and Oral Presentation**

	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Oral presentation	14.44	60	.00	.30	.46	1.36	.70

The table shows that the difference between the two variables is significant ( $t=14.44$ ,  $p=0.00$ ). Therefore, it can be inferred that the gender of language learners has a noticeable effect on the learners' oral performance. Now to see whether girls or boys outperform as far as oral presentation is concerned, Table 7, representing the descriptive statistics, is discussed.

**Table 7: Descriptive statistics of the Gender and oral performance**

	code	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Oral performance	Male	45	11.47	2.13	.36
	Female	45	25.23	3.44	.48

This table clearly indicates that the mean of females ( $M=22.23$ ) is remarkably higher than the mean of males ( $M=11.47$ ). It means that females are better oral presenters than males. Amid assorted studies about gender differences on different aspects of language, though no specific study has specifically dealt with the effect of gender on oral presentation, however, it has been several times asserted that educational research in the last several decades has proven that the gender differences manifestly influence students' academic interests, needs, and achievements (Halpern, 1986; Collins, Kenway & McLeod, 2000). A number of studies conducted in various contexts have confirmed the presence of gender-related differences in verbal ability and language use (Thorne *et al.*, 1983; Tannen, 1990). The consensus seems to be that females are superior to males in general verbal ability (Denno, 1982), but there is disagreement about which types of verbal ability shows gender differences. Moreover, MacIntyre, et al. (2002) in their studies investigated the role of gender regarding affective variables. They reported that girls had greater levels of WTC inside the classroom whereas boys were more willing to use their L2 outside the school context. From these findings it can be also concluded that females are more willing to have oral performance inside classrooms than males. One probable reason for this superiority can be, as Rua (2006) rightly states, girls' achievement in foreign language learning is enhanced by the interaction of neurological, cognitive, affective, social and educational factors.

**CONCLUSIONS**

The present study was, in fact, an attempt to shed light on the point that if there is any interrelationship between the two independent variables of self-regulation and WTC of language learners and their oral presentation performance. If yes, the study also tried to ascertain which of the above-mentioned variables could account for the oral performance of learners. In addition, the examination of the effect of the gender of learners on their performance was also another purpose of the current study.

As it was afore-mentioned, the analysis of the gathered data led to the following conclusions: First, there is a strong, positive relationship between the self-regulation of language learners and their oral presentation performance. Second, there is also a strong, positive relationship between the WTC degree of language learners and their oral performance. Third, of the two intended independent variables, WTC is a better predictor of the learners' oral performance. And finally, the gender of language learners doesn't significantly affect the learners' oral presentation.

The study also enjoys three major implications. First of all, self-regulation plays a salient role in the oral performance quality of language learners; therefore, language teachers continually need to reflect upon their teaching strategies and activities in order to help language learners manage, control, and enhance their self-regulation abilities. Second, teachers should also consider the point that the more self-regulated the learners, the more is the likelihood that the learners achieve higher acceptable functions they are assigned. Finally, as a general implication, individual differences of learners (like WTC) play a crucial role in the effectiveness of teaching and learning process. Therefore, those who are involved in these processes (especially teachers) should be alert to the learners' individual differences.

Lastly, the study may suffer from a set of limitations. First and foremost, the number of the participants is not large so that the findings need to be approached cautiously. Likewise, since the study is unique in its nature and purpose, more studies are encouraged to be done so that more accurate and reliable findings and conclusions might be drawn. Furthermore, other researchers are called for doing the same topic with regard to other variables including self-esteem, motivation, and also for other skills such as listening, reading, and even writing performances.

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#### ABSTRACT

Critical Pedagogy (CP) is an approach in teaching methodology that basically derives from critical theory. This approach of teaching aims at empowering the students with abilities to think critically about their educational situation and allows them to recognize connections between their individual problems and experiences and the social contexts in which they are embedded. In this paper, the main building blocks and the opposing crumbling blocks of CP including the basic concepts of schooling vs. education, control vs. democracy, authoritarianism vs. authority, individualism vs. individuality, deskilling vs. reskilling, and traditional literacy vs. critical literacy are discussed. The aim of this paper is providing an in-depth analysis of CP tenets and clarifying its rubrics as means of consciousness raising among English as a foreign language (EFL) practitioners and students.

**KEYWORDS:** Critical pedagogy; education; democracy; authority; individuality; reskilling; critical literacy.

#### INTRODUCTION

##### *What does CP endorse?*

Critical pedagogy's tenets aim at equipping the students with necessary critical awareness needed to question and challenge domination, and the beliefs and practices that dominate. In other words, it is a theory and practice of helping students achieve critical consciousness. The application of some building blocks of CP in various educational systems means establishing a closer relationship between teaching and learning (Giroux, 1983). It is a continuous and active process of consciousness raising, learning, reflection, evaluation and the impact that these actions have on all the students in general, and the students who have been disenfranchised by traditional schooling in particular.

Different critical pedagogues have defined CP in quite various ways, stressing different aspects of this approach (Shor, 1992; McLaren, 1997; Freire, 1970, 1974). The main endorsements of CP provided by some pioneers critical pedagogues are presented below.

Giroux (1994), being an influential figure and one of the main contributors in the field of CP maintains that "[Critical] pedagogy signals how questions of audience, voice, power, and evaluation actively work to construct particular relations between teachers and students, institutions and society, and classrooms and communities. Pedagogy in the critical sense illuminates the relationship among knowledge, authority, and power" (30). Popkewitz (1991) is of the opinion that the primary preoccupation of critical pedagogy is with social injustice and how to transform inequitable, undemocratic, or oppressive institutions and social relations.

Douglas (2000) contends that CP considers the way education can equip the individuals with the tools to better themselves and strengthen democracy, to create a more egalitarian and just society, and thus to deploy education in a process of progressive social change. According to Burbules (1995) "a fundamental assumption of a critical pedagogy is that it is a broad educational venture which self-consciously challenges and seeks to transform the dominant values of our culture."

Likewise, Shor (1992) believe that CP is basically concerned with the kinds of educational theories and practices that motivate both students and teachers to consciously recognize the interwoven relationship among ideology, power, and culture which challenges us to recognize, engage, critique and finally take transformative action against any existing undemocratic social practices and institutional structures that produce and contribute to inequalities and oppressive social identities and relations.

McLaren (2000) maintain that transformative pedagogy focuses on social realities which are critically analyzed by students through a process of collaborative dialogue. Using the cultural capital of the students, classrooms become a forum in which students are able to voice opinions which have been silenced in traditional pedagogy's practices. This process can be both validating and empowering as students come to learn that their actions can enable change either at the micro- and/or macro-level.

#### THE BUILDING BLOCKS VS. THE CRUMBLING BLOCKS

For any teacher to be able to act as a genuine critical pedagogue, it seems essential to know the distinctions between some basic keys and concepts in the field under discussion. These definitions provide an overview of how critical pedagogy is being compared and contrasted with the traditional schooling system. Detecting the points of departure between the two systems, creates awareness on the part of practitioners, and provides an insight on how to act in favor of a more democratic system of education for the aim of developing a more egalitarian educational system (Giroux, 1988). These include the differences between the categories of Schooling vs. Education, Control vs. Democracy, Authoritarianism vs. Authority, Individualism vs. Individuality, Deskilling vs. Reskilling, and Traditional Literacy vs. Critical Literacy (Freire, 1974). These concepts are discussed below.

##### *Schooling vs. Education*

Critical pedagogy roots itself in the belief that every citizen deserves an education. The distinction between schooling and education is important here. Schools structure is a socially efficient system of management and control in which a rigid rule structure, standardized curriculum, and the like are dominated. Schools often ignore the role of an educated person and rely more on what is called schooling methods to secure a future for students. Schooling has some inherent features. The basic logic for schooling relies on preparing students for a market economy (Giroux & McLaren, 1994). This logic is also intensified both in and out of schools - parents signifying to their children that what is needed for a better job is an education, tracking systems in school that in hidden ways prepare students for differentiated social class divisions, and excessive competition to prepare students for the economy (standardized high-stakes tests). This rubric of market logic bases the students need to learn (Giroux, 1988).

Education, on the other hand, presupposes that the student is intrinsically motivated to learn and the teacher intrinsically motivated to teach. While grades and the like are an important element to school structures, the reason for teaching and learning are not fuelled by numbers, but by a sheer desire to attain knowledge for its own sake. In other words, education involves passion for one's subject matter, the ability to get

student to think critically, being creative about subject matter content, creating a classroom of an active community revolved around the learning of material, and the strong desire to teach and to learn. Moreover, education involves the teacher understanding the schooling structure that wouldn't allow education to develop. Thus, the ability to create an education involves the understanding of schooling mechanisms. Challenging presuppositions of schooling concepts requires both teachers as well as students becoming transformative intellectuals (Giroux, 1988). On the one hand, creating transformative intellectuals means being critical of all forms of schooling. On the other hand, it puts the teacher into a moral confusion. What kind of education can I give my students so that they can be critical citizens, so I can generate democracy in my classrooms, so I can open up options for them, given the pervasiveness and need for schooling to survive in this society?

It seems that the reason teachers want to become teachers is because they desire to educate their students. But, as they enter into the system, they are led to "school" their students, much like they were schooled both in their public school history as well as their teacher education departments.

#### ***Control vs. Democracy***

Under the rubrics of schooling, schools become control mechanisms which challenge the message of democracy. Purpel (1989) contends that schools have been captured by the concept of accountability, which means that schools need to be responsive and responsible to community concerns to one in which numbers are used to demonstrate that schools have enhanced the requirements. This induces a reductionist viewpoint in which priority is given to the need to control than to understand educational considerations. The need to control produces control mechanisms, such as standardized high-stakes tests, which are quality control mechanism. The curriculum, teachers and staff are all somehow controlled by this control mechanism.

Purpel further suggests that the concern of control is demonstrated when schools control the way the students act, feel and think. Control of ideas, values and stereotypes including race, class and gender, are usually manifested and practiced in schools.

Democracy, on the other hand, is manifested in the guise of education. Control mechanisms are challenged, negotiated and confronted. CP holds that democratic principles must become a way of life in all subject areas and all extra-curricular contents. Examples would encompass teachers and students in all subject areas creating limits for behavior control by writing class rules co-operatively, and teachers and students negotiating forms of testing, rather than taking the regular standardized type only.

Burbules (1995) contends that democratic education also involves fostering a challenge to all forms of individualism and negative competition. He further asserts that more co-operative learning, less stress on the value of success as the major reason for coming to school, and more individual student participation in different educational projects will pave the way for the possibility of student voices to be heard.

#### ***Authoritarianism vs. Authority***

Freire (1985) believes that within a schooling outlook, control mechanisms, a standardized curriculum, a rigid rule structure, and top-down hierarchy direct the authoritarian nature of schools. Authoritarianism is rooted in bureaucratic system. In such an authoritarian structure, clearly defined structural leaders and their subordinates form a hierarchical ladder of control and division of labor (teacher tasks, various male or female related student tasks, division of principal and vice-principal tasks, etc.). Based on Freire's standpoint, this notion of authoritarianism is implanted in what schools know as authority. It is usually defined and practiced rigidly and solidly.

A critical pedagogue will hunt for education by recognizing that authority has multiple meanings and can be democratically negotiated. First, the teacher educator is an authority over his/her subject matter. Second, the teacher educator is not the only authority in the classroom. Teachers and students share each other's knowledge. Learning this way becomes reciprocal and dialogical. That is, teachers learn as well - in particular about student cultures. In other words, students become authorities over their own cultures.

Under the rubric of authority and education, teachers will explore multiple ways through which authority can be redefined by establishing social relationships that are democratic.

#### ***Individualism vs. Individuality***

The progressive "educator," just like the transformative intellectual, has the ability to "see" through various oppressive school structures. For instance, the critical pedagogue obviously visualizes how schools promote the value of individualism over individuality. Individualism demonstrates the hunt for human domination, excessive and sometimes negative forms of competition, self and instant fulfillment, and egotism. Here, the belief is that the individual is the center of life. Standardized tests and the division of social class, the set-up of a reward system that merely promotes negative competition between peers, stereotypes based on one's personal achievement, gender bias, basing one's worth on achievement, gifted programs, university entrance exams, school cheating systems and merit systems that promote individual antagonism, and many other examples, becomes a part of this school structure. Schooling is a part of individualism but can be challenged where necessary.

The educated and critical teacher recognizes individual accomplishments, bases one's value on who he or she is rather than what he or she achieves, and listens to and empathizes with a student voice by understanding the student. The educated teacher, the one inclined to oppose individualism, will search for multiple ways of authentic assessment, various types of discipline, alternate rule making, and different forms of classroom management. This critical teacher will try to develop an understanding of what is being done via school is often negative ethic of competition. This is not to say that critical pedagogues should challenge every policy, but that the right times and issues must be chosen to seek the ethical responses to forms of the alienation, subordination and oppression that individualism raises.

As critical educators, it is crucial that we develop an understanding of other individuals who do not share the same ideological standpoint. To refute voices of ideological opposition contradicts the very premise of individuality. Besides, the nature of democracy is the promotion of the individuality that is so often suppressed by school structures. If we want to work within the structures of oppression, we also have to work with those people who promote those structures! And that becomes the essence of a struggle that critical pedagogues find themselves both in and out of the classroom.

#### ***De-skilling vs. Re-skilling***

The "schooled" teachers lack control over their own work. For instance, a schooled teacher doesn't make curricular decisions. Deskillling deals with teachers executing someone else's goals and plans. Teachers are taught the skills to teach at schools, for example to execute tasks, manage the classroom, develop discipline procedures, create assignments, make tests, evaluate tests, disseminate curriculum, build unit

plans, and vary teaching methodologies. These works all aim at deskilling teachers. This happens when the skills teachers are taught in teacher education are unusable in practice.

Deskilling is manifested when teachers lack autonomy over teaching and decision making processes. By making teachers accountable for pre-specified curriculum and by promoting competency-based education, system management, and employing rigid and dehumanizing forms of evaluation along with numerical rating scales, teachers are controlled and deskilled.

An educated teacher and a critical pedagogue understand and feels this deskilling process. The notion of reskilling refers to teachers being aware and critical of the multiple forms of deskilling. Reskilling occurs when teachers challenge stereotyping, find ways to go through alternative teaching methodologies, build curriculum with open and critical viewpoints, and form common understandings over issues of value.

In short, reskilling happens when teachers are able to move around forms of schooling, and ultimately find ways to educate. Acts of reflection on subject matter, on goals of educational transformation as well as searching for those values that challenge forms of personal and institutional oppression will serve the educated and critical teacher. On the practical side, this means that if social studies teachers are to teach about the tenets of democracy, democratic practice must occur in the classroom. Practically, teachers would have to get students to get beyond stereotypes and begin to create exercises that promote empathy. In other words, educator and critical pedagogue becomes a reskilled practitioner who is committed to justice particularly within the boundaries of the schooling structure. This makes the critical educator more literate.

#### **Traditional Literacy vs. Critical Literacy**

Under the schooling rubric, traditional literacy holds schools morally accountable to provide a technical mastery of skills for students; to be functional in the basics of reading, math, and writing. More than that, schooling or traditional literacy also means teaching these functions on multiple levels, but with little creativity, no sense of purpose other than passing to the next grade, and little moral vision or insight as to a larger picture revolving around education (Freire & Macedo, 1987).

Critical literacy under the guise of education distinguishes itself from the traditional literacy in that it asks teachers to teach for analytical purposes, for multiple interpretations, and for moral reasoning. Under critical literacy, the educated teacher, as well as student, takes issues such as gender, class and race seriously both in classroom management as well as curriculum content. Critical literacy allows the teacher to connect curriculum to texts as well as to student experience, thus making knowledge more relevant and introspective for both teacher and student.

In short, the critical literate teacher with an educated attitude, while schooling her/his students in the technical sense (getting facts straight, partaking in standardized tests, etc.), adds a necessary skills to their teaching material, which is a committed and visionary understanding that critical pedagogy is a form of education that must be strived for as necessary acts of resistance to oppressive schooling structures.

#### **THE FINAL WORD: FROM DESPAIR TO HOPE (FREIRE, 1970)**

In Freire's (1970) words "to remain a teacher who relies on schooling is the despair that we all can fall into. School structures such as time, bureaucracy, hierarchy, curriculum, etc., have a way of deskilling the teacher and robbing her/him of the enthusiasm to proceed with their job creatively". Freire (1970) maintained that being critical means being reflective on how one is personally schooling themselves and their students, as well as theoretically and practically trying to move out of the schooling mentality.

Freire further asserted that the hope lies in educating our students by deciding when and where it is appropriate to resist schooling structures. In Freire's (1974) words "Hope lies in asking and answering this following question, and then, subsequently, taking action. To what end do I teach?" Providing answer to this question requires the critical pedagogue to understand that teaching is more than about transmitting the basics of schooling. It is about the importance and prominence of educating for democracy. Bringing about positive changes in the educational systems, and in the society at large, requires a lot of work to be done by teachers.

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**ERRORS OR MISTAKES?  
INCORRECTNESS IN STUDENTS' ANSWERS  
IN A SUBJECT-MATTER EXAMINATION**

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**ABSTRACT**

Second Language Acquisition has included only error analysis. To date practically in the classroom, it is difficult to distinguish between errors and mistakes. Because Ellis (1997) states that a clear cut of errors from mistakes may not be possible, this paper discusses any incorrectness, be it an error or a mistake, students made in one of subject-matter examinations and attempts to categorize and seek causes of the incorrectness. The answers in a subject matter examination of seven students were selected to determine types of errors and mistakes they made in the examination. From the analysis it can be concluded that the errors and mistakes include omission, overgeneralization, and L1 transfer. Global incorrectness in terms of literally translated sentences from Indonesian language into English has resulted in hardly comprehensible sentences.

**KEYWORDS:** error, global error, local error, mistake, subject-matter examination

**INTRODUCTION**

The study of Second Language Acquisition has placed the importance of learners' errors in developing proficiency in L2. Learners' errors have been perceived to enhance the developmental stages in language learning. A research conducted by Abbot (1981) has revealed that error analysis is equally unreliable as contrastive analysis. He concludes that error analysis complements contrastive analysis. Due to this view, I argue that it is therefore, important to carefully investigate any incorrectness learners make in the classroom regardless of the term used academically. A study on exploiting learners' errors in Malaysia by Haded (1998) has revealed that interlingual errors and intralingual errors were made due to reliance on mother tongue. Error awareness in advanced students of EFL of Malaysian students has proved to yield insignificant results after a four-month instruction (Tahririan, 1986). As for advanced university students at the academic level in genre-based writing, Henry and Roseberry (2008) have concluded that raising student's awareness of usage types and patterns is far more crucial than instruction in grammar.

**ERRORS AND MISTAKES**

It is general to distinguish between errors and mistakes. Mistakes are caused by the learners not putting into practice something they have learned while errors are caused by the learner trying out something completely new and getting it wrong (Bartram and Walton 1991, p. 25). Ellis (1997) says that errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes, on the other hand, reflect occasional lapses in performance because the learner is unable to perform what she knows. According to Ellis, to distinguish errors from mistakes is through consistency of learners' performance. In the classroom, however, the teacher cannot immediately identify if the learner makes an error or a mistake. In practice, what the teacher knows is that the learner make, in the end Ellis (1997) himself admits that "a clear distinction between an error and a mistake may not be possible".

Errors can have different sources, some of which can be universal which reflects learners' attempts to make learning L2 simpler. Universal errors include errors of omission and overgeneralization, irrespective of the learners' L1 (Ellis 1997, p. 19). Another error is called transfer, which denotes an attempt to make use of the learner's L1 knowledge.

Bartram and Walton (1991) state that mistake is wrong language which a native speaker would not usually produce, that is, something that only learners of the language produce (p. 21). This definition still raises a question from the teacher, "How does the teacher know that certain correctness is only produced by a learner and not a native speaker?" One basis to define a mistake may be based on our intuition of our mother tongue. In our mother tongue, it is unlikely that we misspell words; it is, therefore, a misspelled word is a mistake. But again, with reference to what Ellis has stated, in practice it is difficult to distinguish between an error and a mistake.

**CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS AND ERROR ANALYSIS**

Prior to error analysis as studied in Second Language Acquisition, contrastive analysis (CA) was emphasized to denote similarities and differences in L1 and L2 and through the approach, teachers could predict problems faced by learners. The aim was more on effective teaching and testing. Language acquisition was sequenced along the process of stimulus-response-reinforcement. One assumption in the approach is that there will be transfer in learning from L1 to L2. The transfer is called positive (or facilitating) when the same structure is appropriate in both languages. However, the transfer is called negative (or interference) when the structure of L1 is inappropriately used in L2 (Saville-Troike, 2006 p. 45).

Error analysis as the first influential work was an article by Corder in 1967, which states that errors are not bad habits to be eliminated by learners. Instead, he says that learners' errors can provide insights into the learning process. Errors, then, can be perceived as a way toward improvement in the learning process. A good saying says that practice makes perfect and experience in the best teacher. It is expected that through errors learners make, they can better themselves in achieving a native-like proficiency. Saville-Troike (2006) states that error analysis "focuses on learners' creative ability to construct language". Her definition includes the phrase creative ability, which means that learners are self-motivated to create a structure that (s)he has not mastered. She further explains that error analysis is based on the description and analysis of actual learners' errors in L2.

A study conducted by Ney (1986) has stated that error analysis has the characteristics of structuralism, in which:

1. Error analysis is taxonomic in nature.
2. Error analysis creates theories by induction.
3. Error analysis relies on the corpus for its data.

He further explains that both theory of structuralism by Saussure and transformational by Chomsky study writing as a form of language. Transformational theory rejects the significance of corpus as data in error analysis. Chomsky (in Ney, 1986) argues that a learner can produce an unlimited number of sentences and errors made in a corpus do not reflect learners' ability to produce language. This claim is affirmative as a study by Schacter in 1974. She worked on relative clauses written by learners from Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and Persian whose English was not the native language. She concludes that Chinese and Japanese learners made fewer errors in relative clauses than the Arabic and Persian ones. This is simply the Chinese and Japanese learners avoided writing relative clauses because this clause does not exist in their native language. What can be exploited from her study is that learners simply avoid structures that does not exist in their native language and teachers should know what their learners avoid doing in learning a language. Her conclusion is contentious since languages differ structurally and learners should learn (or acquire) as many structures as possible to achieve native-like proficiency.

### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The questions that are discussed in the study are:

1. What errors and mistakes were made by the students in the examination?
2. What are the causes of the errors and mistakes?

### METHODOLOGY

Qualitative method was employed in the study because the aim was to identify kinds of errors or mistakes students made during exam. The exam results of seven Indonesian students sitting on the course of Sociolinguistics academic year 2012/2013 were randomly selected based on the errors and mistakes identified in their answers. I adopted personal approach for the study to result in-depth analysis of errors or mistakes each student made and the analysis was conducted accordingly. Sub-classification of the data is based on modified types of errors put forward by Ellis (1997), in which he states local and global errors. Local errors affect only a single constituent in the sentence while global errors violate the overall structure of a sentence and it is difficult to process. In this article, I modified the sub-classifications from Ellis and the terms used are local incorrectness and global incorrectness.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### *Student 1*

##### *Local Incorrectness*

(1) For example: when we works in different community automatically we should understanding what people say.

Some incorrectness can be identified from this sentence: (1) the clause we works and (2) we should understanding. The first incorrectness contains the inappropriate verb works after the subject we. When we works is grammatically incorrect. The inappropriate use of the additional suffix -s may refer to the case of overgeneralization. She tended to add suffix -s after a verb, and the subject tended to be ignored.

Another incorrectness she made is the verb understanding after the modal verb should. This was made because she did not know that the modal verb should is followed by verb in the bare-infinitive form. Whether this is an error or a mistake remains vague as (in)consistency cannot be traced.

If we are to contrast the third clause (3) what people say with the other two clauses, we can see that the third clause was correctly written. She correctly aligned the subject-verb agreement; she used the verb say for the subject people.

From the analysis of the incorrectness she made, the conclusion is that she still lacked the competence of subject-verb agreement comprehension.

(2) Speech convergence is when people try to talks in differently and each community can understand what they say.

The data reveals that the writer made some incorrectness in the clause people try to talks in differently. According to English grammar, infinitive to is followed by verb-1 without any addition of suffix -s or -es. In this sentence, however, the student seemed to overgeneralize and add suffix -s after the verb try. This may happen due to her confusion of the subject being speech convergence.

Another incorrectness she made is the prepositional phrase in differently. One possible cause is that she realized that differently was used to modify the verb talk. However, she might have overlooked the preposition in, which can be omitted.

With regard to subject-verb agreement, data (1) shows that the student wrote correct subject-verb agreement when the subject is people as is the case in data (2). In another clause, each community can understand what they say, she correctly agreed the verbs with the subjects. For this reason, the incorrectness in subject-verb agreement in the sentences the student made is categorized as a mistake.

##### *Global Incorrectness*

(3) In Indonesian language if we wants to getting someone to sit down sometimes if doing for our parents.

Some complications occur in data (3). The first, and the fundamentally basic, is that it is a sentence fragment, which requires a main clause to attach to. Subordinator if is used twice and this apparently distracted her attention to finish her sentence. She literally translated her native language into English and this is called as L1 transfer. The second error is again the subject-verb agreement in the clause if we wants. As what has been identified in data (1), this particular student always added suffix-s after the verb although the subject is we. What can be drawn from the three data about subject-verb agreement, she overgeneralized that subject we is followed by verb plus suffix-s as is ruled for third person singular. However, it is not the case as data (4) shows.

(4) The context is we knowing who people talks and relationship is our family.

This data reveals the incorrect use of the verb knowing in we knowing and the verb talks in people talks. In the data, she put the verb into –ing form after the subject we, which is in contrast to the subject we in data (1) and (2). One possible reason why she wrote this is that there is the verb is and she might have thought that the verb is followed by –ing form. Thus, there is inconsistency in the subject-verb agreement. The verb talks in people talks exhibits subject-verb disagreement as she added suffix –s after the verb, which results in incorrect agreement. She tended to overgeneralize that verbs were added suffix-s regardless of the subject. As is shown in data (2), this learner did not add suffix-s for the verb; however suffix-s was added after the to-infinitive verb.

Data (3) and (4) signal that the incorrectness is inconsistent and, therefore, is categorized as mistakes.

Logic is apparently missing in the sentence she wrote. It can be identified from the whole sentence which does not reflect the proper semantic connection, particularly in the clause and relationship is our family. The illogical sentence is a result of L1 transfer because she literally translated Indonesian sentence into English. What she wanted to express is that the people we talk to is our family. Hence, an alternative of the sentence can be as follows:

The context is we know people whom we talk to and they are our family.

(5) The same way we use language to her is formal but relax not too serious.

Data (5) reveals literal translation from an Indonesian sentence into English. In this sentence, she correctly put the verb in the clause we use. An inappropriate word choice in relax attests that she did not know that relax is a verb. In Indonesian language, relax is translated into rileks, which is categorized as an adjective. It is emphasized through the phrase not too serious which is the English equivalent of rileks. Because she did a literal translation, she used the relax instead of relaxed. Besides that, this sentence is hardly comprehensible as what she wanted to express is unclear. The idea that rises a question is in we use language to her is formal but relax not too serious. The word phrase formal but relax not too serious does not clearly denote what her idea was. As this is L1 transfer and she literally translated this from Indonesian language, the revision that can be proposed is: In the same way we use language to her in a formal but relaxed situation.

From the five sentences this students wrote, two errors in sentences (1) and (2) are categorized as local incorrectness while sentences (3), (4), and (5) contain global incorrectness. These three sentences are hardly comprehensible and difficult to process.

#### **Student 2**

(6) Women use more standard forms than men points to the way society tends to expect better behavior from women than from men.

(6) In this sentence, the student put her focus on the verb points and might have forgotten about the initial verb she wrote. The initial verb is use, which exhibits subject-verb agreement, but she wrote another verb, points, which does not clearly show direct agreement with a subject. One likely possibility is she thought that the subject is the whole clause women use more standard forms than men and therefore the verb is added by the suffix –s. In this case, she should have a noun clause as the subject and come up with That women use more standard forms than men. It is unclear if this is an error or mistake since (in)consistency cannot be traced. Other sentences she wrote were grammatically correct. This student proved to possess good grammatical competence.

Omission is the type of incorrectness identified in the sentence. This student developed a local incorrectness due to the comprehensible sentence that does not impede communication.

#### **Student 3**

##### *Local Incorrectness*

(7) Speech convergence is one of the form of accommodation theory which occur when the speaker want to accommodate her/his listeners.

One of the form in this data is incorrect. She did not change the noun form into plural although noun is preceded by determiner one of. The determiner one of must be followed by a plural noun. Therefore, she should have put the noun form into forms.

Another error she made is the verb want in the clause when the speaker want to accommodate her/his listener. Due to the subject of the clause is the speaker, being a third singular person, the verb want requires suffix –s. She evidently lacked this subject-verb agreement understanding.

Consistency in subject-verb disagreement that the student made is demonstrated in the following sentence.

(8) When he talk to local tourist they promote Pangandaran using Indonesian, but when he face international tourist from everywhere, he used English.

In (8) she did not agree the verbs talk and face with the subject he. Thus, this is an error. The initial clause, when he talk to local tourist, lacked the determiner to quantify the noun tourist. As tourist requires a right determiner, the revision proposed can be either a local tourist or local tourists. In this sentence omission occurs. Yet, the context sets that there may be more than one tourist, and the best alternative is local tourists. Similar revision is applicable for international tourist in the clause when he face international tourist.

The final clause, however, signal a different tense. It is hardly comprehensible why she used a different tense in the final clause. It is a gap in her understanding of tenses with previous clauses she wrote. Because the first two clauses are in the present simple, there is no need to change the last clause into the past simple tense. The co-text of the question requires an example of any situation, which is most likely in the present simple tense.

The consistency in subject-verb disagreement is exhibited in the following sentence.

(9) He even greeting tourist with the tourist language that he know.

Sentence (9) indicates the student's error in subject-verb agreement. Contrasted to the final clause, that he know, the initial clause contains the verb in -ing form, which may due to the insertion of the adverb even before the verb greet.

Other inappropriate use of word can be identified in the noun tourist, which requires a determiner, and the tourist language, which needs a possessive adjective. Hence, an alternative to correct this is: He even greets a tourist in the tourist's language he knows.

From the four sentences the student wrote, all of them contain local incorrectness which still result in comprehensible sentences and are categorized as errors due to the consistency of the incorrectness. Omission is the type of incorrectness identified in the sentences.

#### Student 4

##### Local Incorrectness

(10) In this case, I try to match my language with people who allowed to talk to, so that it can called a situation that contain speech convergence.

In this sentence, the clause who allowed to talk to, signals that she formerly wished to make a passive voice, as is the case in the third clause, it can called. These two clauses require the verb be to create a passive voice. Thus, the revision is who are allowed to talk to and it can be called. Again, as what previous sentences have exhibited, subject-verb agreement is still a problem for this student. She did not put the verb into the correct form that might have been a result of ignorance of the subject being a situation and she made it in a relative clause.

(11) At this point, women usually speech with using words to express if they see something extraordinary.

The incorrectness in sentence (11) is the word speech. She did not adjust the verb to fill in the function of a verb in the sentence. The word speech seemed to be readily accessible to her so she used the word speech instead of speak.

Other incorrectness is the phrase with using words. With in Indonesian language is *dengan*, which can be followed by a verb, while in English, the preposition with can only be followed by an instrument or a circumstance. It can be concluded that the use of the preposition with is a matter of L1 transfer.

With regard to what have been analyzed, the two sentences this student wrote are categorized as local incorrectness and can be categorized as mistakes since consistency cannot be traced. However, they are comprehensible and messages are conveyed to the reader.

#### Student 5

##### Local Incorrectness

(12) Speech convergence is situation when the speakers converge they style of speak to the people they addressed.

The incorrectness in the sentence are (1) they style and (2) they addressed. In (1), the student used the pronoun they before a noun style. She could not recognize that the word style in (1) is a noun. In Indonesian language, there is no difference in subject pronoun or possessive pronoun, so she used the subject pronoun that was readily accessible to her. In (2), they addressed, contains the verb addressed, which is in the past simple tense. The use of past simple tense in this clause is incorrect since the introductory clause is in the present simple. To make the clauses parallel, the verb in the last clause has to be in the present simple as well.

She also missed a determiner before a noun situation. This may due to the absence of determiner in Indonesian language, so it is a matter of L1 transfer.

What needs revision is the incorrect use of the verb speak to follow the preposition of. She apparently had no idea that the preposition of is followed by a noun or a gerund. An alternative to correct this is either their style of speech or their speech style.

(13) "Sit down." It tend to use in general situation like when we ask to our friend to sit down.

The first clause in the second sentence begins with it tend to use to supposedly signal passive meaning. The verb tend should be followed by to be used to signal passive meaning. She could not denote passive meaning through passive construction, which requires verb be and verb past participle. Other incorrectness she made is the lack of indefinite article a, which has to precede the noun situation. The revised noun phrases are in a general situation. However, in the last clause, when we ask, she correctly agreed the verb with the subject. The word to follows the verb ask, which is considered incorrect. She literally translated the phrase from Indonesian language into English. For this reason, it is called L1 transfer.

(14) The participant of this utterance is possible come from a teacher to the students.

Some incorrectness can be identified from this data; the first is the participant of this utterance, and the second one is the verb phrase is possible come. At the beginning of the sentence, she used the word participant, which is incorrect since an utterance is not an event in which someone can take a part. The participant of this utterance is redundant; the phrase the participant of can be just deleted because what matters is the utterance. Other incorrectness is the verb is which precedes the main verb come and should be omitted. The last incorrectness is the incorrect use of the adjective possible that precedes the verb come. She might have focused on the phrase is possible and forgotten that the

following verb is a main verb that does require be (is). She may have overgeneralized the verb as the adjective possible is preceded by the verb is and it is correct if the verb come is omitted. From the analysis, the revision is This utterance possibly comes from a teacher to the students.

(15) For example, in the waiting room, the receptionist ask the guest who keep standing and walking that disturb or annoyed another guests.

In this sentence, the student did not pay attention to the tense of the sentence. If the sentence is to be written in the present simple, she should have added the suffix -s for the verb ask and keep. Another error she made is the clause that disturb or annoyed guests. This clause does not clearly refer to a specific antecedent, and the relative pronoun that should be omitted and replaced by a conjunction and followed by it as a pronoun reference to refer to keep standing and walking. The suffix -s, therefore, should follow the verb disturb. It seems that the student writing this sentence could access more immediately the word annoyed as an adjective compared to its verb, annoy. In Indonesian language, to state an annoying situation is *menjengkelkan*, and it is an adjective. Hence, it can be concluded that in that particular co-text, she translated the word *menjengkelkan* into annoyed.

The incorrectness in subject-verb agreement in the sentences signals inconsistency, and for this reason, they are categorized as mistakes. Local incorrectness is found in all four sentences the student wrote. Omission, overgeneralization, and L1 transfer are the types of incorrectness identified.

#### **Student 6**

##### *Local Incorrectness*

(16) Speech convergence included to a polite speech strategy because the speech speak to another person.

In this data, the verb included is in the past simple tense, which is inappropriate because there is no time signal to denote a finished action or a fact in the past. Therefore, the preposition to after the verb include in unnecessary. Another inappropriateness that can be identified is in the clause because the speech speak to another person. It is hardly comprehensible to write that the speech speak to since speech is a thing that cannot perform an action to speak. In this co-text if the word speech refers to speech convergence, the clause of reason is not logically related to the initial clause as the clause of effect. For this reason, the last clause is unnecessary.

(17) For example a relation between doctor and pasien.

This sentence contains the Indonesian word *pasien*, whose equivalent in English is patient. The student was unaware of the English word and used the Indonesian word instead. This is called a mistake because a native speaker of s English will be very unlikely to misspell the word patient. However, what she wrote is a sentence fragment that still requires a predicate. In Indonesian language, it is possible to write a fragment after for example. It indicates there is L1 transfer into what she wrote. Other incorrectness is the missing of articles before the nouns doctor and patient. She put an indefinite article a before the noun relation, but the article is missing in the other nouns. This indicates that this is inconsistent, and it can be categorized as a mistake.

(18) Women's speech use the form politeness than men, because women's is a group of subordinate until they can't offend men.

The words requiring revisions are the verb use, the noun phrase form politeness, and the conjunction until. The subject of the sentence is speech and, thus, requires suffix-s after the verb use. She mistakenly thought of the subject as women and not speech. The noun phrase, the form politeness, requires a correct head, which is form and not politeness. She focused her attention in Indonesian language in which the head precedes the modifier. Hence, she came up with the form politeness instead of the politeness form. It is L1 transfer.

She incorrectly used the conjunction until to actually signal a purpose. Instead of using the conjunction so (or so that) she chose to use until which semantically signals time. The second clause of the sentence, because women's is a group of subordinate, contains possessive form in apostrophe 's after the noun women, which is incorrect. From the analysis, one alternative to revise the sentence is Women use polite speech because women are a group of subordinate so that they cannot offend men.

##### *Global Incorrectness*

(19) As usual, doctor use the language of terminology it didn't known from the pasien.

Again, in this sentence, the student used the word *pasien*, which she also wrote in the previous sentence. The lack of determiner before the noun doctor signals that her competence in creating a noun phrase is low. The word it in the second clause, it didn't known from the pasien, does not clearly signal any reference. What she wrote in the literal translation of an Indonesian sentence into English. Hence, it is quite hard to revise the sentence because her mindset was in Indonesian language, and this is L1 transfer. One possibility is that the terminology is used by a doctor and the patient does not know it, and the revision may read like this: As usual, a doctor uses a terminology that is not known by a patient.

Four sentences this student wrote contain local and global incorrectness. The global incorrectness is identified in the fourth sentence, and it is difficult to comprehend due to the incorrect pronoun whose reference is not known. Omission and L1 transfer are types of incorrectness in these sentences. L1 transfer indicates that the student made errors and the misspelled word denotes a mistake.

#### **Student 7**

##### *Local Incorrectness*

(20) In some countries which has multilingual language with many varieties language people may accommodate to others by selecting the code that is most comfortable for their addresses.

The sentence in (20) lacks the subject-verb agreement at the initial clause. Has as the verb does not agree to the subject, some countries. The student did not focus on the subject when coming to the verb. Another incorrectness can be identified when she wrote the noun phrase many varieties language. In this noun phrase, the word varieties cannot modify the noun language, hence, the revision is varieties of languages. She also misspelled the word addresses, which should be substituted with addressees. By and large, we can comprehend the idea she tried to convey due to relatively logical word order in this sentence. In subject-verb agreement, she made a mistake because in other clauses she wrote the subjects and verbs agree correctly.

#### Global Incorrectness

(21) The different ways of getting someone to sit down in English and Indonesia occurs because of many factor tend to with who someone talk about, the social class factors, the social distance.

The initial clause contains the word Indonesia that is incorrectly used as she compared English as a language and Indonesia as a country. The word Indonesian language has to be used instead of Indonesia. In contrast with (20), sentence (21) is hard to understand because it is not clear what idea she wanted to communicate, particularly in the second clause, because of many factor tend to with who someone talk about. Besides the incorrect noun, factor, after the determiner many, the phrase of many factor tend to with who someone talk about is hardly comprehensible. She might want to say many factors that affect differences in getting someone to sit down in English and Indonesian language, and she literally translated her sentence in Indonesian language into English. For this reason, it is L1 transfer and the entire clause needs revising to clearly communicate the idea. One alternative is because of many factors such as who the addressee is, the social class, and the social distance.

Two sentences this student wrote contain a mistake in (20) and an error in (21). Student (7) wrote sentences containing both local and global incorrectness. Global incorrectness in the last sentence she wrote impede communication because the idea she wanted to convey is not expressed clearly in the sentence.

#### CONCLUSION

From the analysis and discussion of the data, the errors and mistakes in the exam papers include local and global incorrectness; however, most incorrectness is under local incorrectness as the sentences are comprehensible and the ideas are conveyed to the reader. The types of incorrectness include omission, overgeneralization, and L1 transfer. These three types of incorrectness are equally identified in the data. Regarding L1 transfer in the data, it denotes literally translated sentences from Indonesian language into English. L1 transfer, being categorized as global incorrectness results in hardly comprehensible sentences. It is, therefore, important to always check learners' competence in acquiring English all the way through many subjects, particularly in when dealing with subject matter. One assumption on the errors and mistakes students made may be due to the time constraint during the examination, thus, resulting in the students' focusing more on the content than structure.

The limited number of students involved as well as the sentences produced certainly do not generate a general conclusion on the competence of other students excluded from the research. A longitudinal research should be carried out to better map learners' competence in acquiring a second language, particularly in grammatical competence.

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EXPLORING EFFECTS OF EXPLICIT VS. IMPLICIT TEACHING OF COLLOCATIONS ON THE WRITING PERFORMANCE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The methods and the strategies employed in classrooms by English as foreign language teachers (EFL) to enhance EFL learners' skills in L2 process is a disputable and controversial issue all over the world. In fact, it seems vital to employ a method which is simultaneously functional and effective in teaching and learning process. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of two different methods of teaching collocations, namely explicit and implicit, on the Iranian EFL learners' performance in using these collocations in paragraph writing. In order to conduct this study, 36 pre-university students were randomly selected, divided into two separate groups (namely explicit and implicit). In this study, the class following explicit method was called experimental group and the other group following implicit method was called control one. Both groups took a pre-test to evaluate their writing ability at the beginning of the term and after the class room treatment, the entire participants were given the same topics as post-test to write about them. This post-test was assumed as a summative evaluation. The participants' performance in pre-test had almost the equal mean score, while the performances of the both groups in post-test were significantly different. The result of the study indicated that the group receiving explicit method of teaching collocations (experimental group) outperformed in using collocations in paragraph writing.

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**KEYWORDS:** Explicit, implicit, collocations, writing skill.

INTRODUCTION

An important aspect in EFL learning is the collocational competence which involves knowing which words usually come together to convey a meaning structurally and lexically. Before 1960s, the writing classes were following traditional product view of writing in which only the final product of writing was taken into account and the cognitive processes through which the writers construct their ideas and their texts were totally neglected. In the late 1960s and the early 1970s, however, L1 writing researchers came to this understanding that composing is a non-linear process of meaning. According to Zamel (as cited in Fahandezh Sadi & Othman, 2012) writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to get meaning. To discover meaning, the writers employ different processes of planning, drafting and reviewing each other. The writers were found to use planning, for instance, from the beginning to end of writing. Natural languages are full of collocations; common forms of combinations of words that co-occur in individuals' utterances make the basic frame of collocations in a language. Recent work in lexicography indicates that collocations are pervasive in English. They are very general issue in various mode of writing involving the technical genres along with the nontechnical ones. Accordingly, a couple of new approaches have been suggested for retrieving different kinds of collocations by benefiting from the analysis of relatively high amount samples of data in textual mode. These techniques automatically produce large numbers of collocations intended to reflect the relevance of the associations. In fact association, combination and co-occurrence are the most significant features in collocations. However, most of the EFL learners fail to follow this association or co-occurrence correctly.

*What is collocation?*

As Martynska,(2004) mentions the term "collocation" was first introduced by Firth (1986) to define a combination of words associated with each other, for example, to take a photo. The term 'collocation' has its origin in the Latin verb "collocare" which means to set in order/to arrange'. Moreover, Skorupka (as cited in Martynska, 2004) defines collocation as a combination of words which does not convey the meaning individually. He points out that co-occurrence of some words can be determined and in some cases restricted by their meaning. In other words, replacing one or two elements of collocation with a limited number of words is possible while combining these elements with some others is not grammatically or lexically appropriate. In another definition, based on Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009) collocation is the way words combine in a language in order to make a natural-sounding speech and writing. For instance, in English we say "strong wind", but "heavy rain". It is somehow strange to say heavy wind instead of strong rain. And as a result all aforementioned words can be noticed in the speaking of learner from pre-intermediate to even elementary level. As a matter of fact, it necessitates a far higher level of language competence to use these collocations correctly. For Yarmohammadi (2002, P.43) collocation is "habitual co-occurrence of individual vocabulary items." Woolard (2005) defines collocation as the grammar of words –how words go together with other words. In other words, collocation tells us which words can come before or after words." Tajalli (2007, P.30) has defined collocations as "fixed, nonidiomatic constructions which reflect the meanings of their components." Therefore, collocations are different from idioms whose meanings are not the combination of the meanings of the individual words in them."

*Why collocation is important?*

According to Oxford Collocations Dictionary (2009), collocation exists in nearly all domains of English. Relatively no one can speak or write naturally without benefiting from collocation. With regard to students selecting the appropriate collocation can enormously aid them to speech and writing way more naturally, and sound more native-like speaker and writer, even without considering their intelligibility degree. An EFL learner talking about strong rain may make him/herself understood, but it requires more effort on the part of the listener and ultimately creates a barrier to communication. Poor collocation in exams is also likely to lead to lower marks (But what is more significant than former issue is that, language which is replete with collocation can also be more precise. This is due to the fact that mostly using single words in the appropriate context in English - particularly those very usual ones- can have drastic influence in communication .The pinpoint meaning of a word can be identified by the words that surrounded and combined with the core word-by collocation. A student choosing the best collocations will express him/herself much more clearly and be able to convey not just a general meaning, but something more precise point in detail (Oxford Collocations Dictionary, 2009).

*Explicit vs. Implicit Method*

Nearly in every language of the world teacher would agree upon the different influence of explicit and implicit teaching has been an issue to be settled for decades. A group of researchers are in favor of explicit teaching method and advocate its benefits for learners, whereas some others ascertain that implicit teaching method is more fruitful for learners, some others claim that some aspects of both method should be used for optimal learning. To consider these issues more clearly, it incumbent upon researcher to denote and cast some lights upon these two methods in details; Explicit learning is defined as "conscious awareness and intention to learn" (Brown, 2000, p.217). Moreover, explicit learning includes "input processing to find out whether the input information contains regularities, and if so, to work out the concepts and rules with which these regularities can be captured" (Brown, 2007, p.291). In other words, explicit learning is an active process where EFL learners seek out the structure of information that is presented to them. By the same token, explicit learning is "a conscious awareness and

intention" (Brown, 2007, p.291). Stern et al (1992) make a distinction between explicit learning and implicit one. Also, he distinguishes different dimensions in language teaching which can be an additional aid for learner to clearly find out the division of implicit versus explicit learning, so here is his encapsulation:

Explicit; rational/formal/intellectual, conscious, monitoring, problem-solving, analysis, abstract, metacognitive, inferencing, and systemic study. (Stern et al as cited in Dash, 2003, p.5)

Implicit; intuitive, automatic, subconscious acquisition, unreflective, behaviorism, mimicry and memory, exposure to language in use. (Stern et al as cited in Dash, 2003, p.5).

#### **The Significance of the study**

The history of L2 teaching and learning has alternated between two single-minded approaches. Those that focused on analyzing the language, i.e., language usage (focus on forms) and those that focused on using the use (focus on meaning). Though the second stance was considered to be more fruitful, and the researchers (Afshari & Oroujlou, 2012) noted that as a result of an exclusive concern with meaning-based activities, teaching method makes available to L2 learners input that lacks in quality. They proposed that learners need to do more than simply to engage in communicative language use; they also need to attend to form and focus on form would work better in which these forms follow a naturally combined forms and have a restricted framework. In other words they try to emphasize on integrated rather than segregated approaches. Based on the researcher's observations and experience in the field of English language teaching and learning, it seems that the little attention attached to writing a paragraph containing collocations in EFL composition classes in Iranian schools. Moreover, the researcher analyzed a random sample of pre-university students' composition papers and the results showed that most students were not able to come up with using correct, coherent and meaningful forms of collocations. In addition, the studies which were conducted in TEFL field called for creating a situation and using suitable technique to develop learners' language skills including collocational writing, are really few and it shows a sort of paucity in this subject. It can be claimed that this research and its result can cover some facets of this paucity and its results will be fruitful pedagogical implications in L2 teaching and learning process. This study was in attempt to apply two different methods of teaching vocabulary (in this case, collocation) in EFL namely implicit and explicit method. So in this survey the instructor aimed to teach collocational features of the words used in the texts through these two methods. So, to both methods of teaching in the classrooms, observe the participants' performance and improvement in writing and collect sufficient data.

#### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

Teachers should experience various aspects of teaching by effectively influencing the learning process. As cited in Rahimi (2011, 11) Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell, claim that "...the learning of student teachers is only meaningful and powerful when it is embedded in the experience of learning to teach". Teacher training process should provide enough room for teacher to boost knowledge by engaging in teaching experiences and actively leading the learning process rather than remaining passive recipients. A group of researchers in the experimental studies in classroom settings have investigated how the learning of collocations may benefit EFL students if they follow a suitable and functional method. As cited in Myers and Chang (2009), Hsu studied the direct emphasis on lexical collocations and discovered that explicit collocation teaching helped the Taiwanese college EFL students to learn new collocations and in learning them there was a positive connection between the students' use of lexical collocations and their proficiency. He concluded that direct collocation instruction helps EFL learners acquire new collocations in written and spoken discourses that in turn enhance their proficiency of language learners in all four skills. As it can be seen this study magnifies the role of the employed method in teaching collocations directly and comes to the EFL learners' background knowledge (proficiency). In another experimental study in Australia by Xudong, Cheng, Varaprasad, and Leng (2009) investigate that how time of teaching /learning and duration of practicing in the class or even out of the classroom significantly affect the EFL learning process. In other words, this study investigated what aspects of academic writing improved at the completion of one semester of studying an EAP course that was specifically designed for postgraduate students in Melbourne University. In their study, they examined texts written by 69 students at two separate times: in week 1 and in week 10 (as pre-tests and post-tests). The texts were subjected to analysis for language use and text structure. This study found that while no improvements were shown in terms of fluency for students' writing, the use of academic vocabulary showed great improvements over time. Moreover, the grammatical accuracy of students also boosted over time.

This study concluded that duration of practicing has improved the learners' proficiency and their performance in writing and grammatical collocations. Furthermore, from Deveci's perspective (2004) the context in which a collocation is used is important. Certain collocations or expressions are appropriate for certain contexts. Factors such as a difference in status or a social distance between the speaker and the hearer can affect the choice of collocational phrases. For example, we would not greet our boss by saying "How's it going?" however, it is all right to greet a friend that way. This example suggests that knowledge of connotation and formality is important in deciding which collocation to use. Collocations are of grave importance for language learners. Whenever learners benefit from collocations, the possibility of being understood would be enhanced. Mostly, Native speakers unconsciously reckon what is going to be said based upon the use of phrases. If a non-native speaker uses frequently-used patterns (collocations), it would be way easier for most native speakers to predict what the non-native speaker is saying and may help compensate for other language issues, such as pronunciation. When learners write and speak, if they use collocations central to their topic, their readers are more likely to understand their message. Fahandezh Sadi and Othman (2012) believed that one of the fundamental factors affecting Iranian EFL the learners' performance is the method employed by instructors in the class rooms and the drills and the evaluation that follow in teaching process while nobody can ignore the system of education. They conclude in their study that due to teacher-centered policy and educational system in Iran, the writers of this study were found to heavily rely on their teachers as their only reference. This is especially true for the poor writers who appeared to use certain rules and chunks in their writing which they had previously memorized in their classes. Their conception of writing was narrowed to the producing a set of error-free sentences arranged one after another on a piece of paper. This limited knowledge about composition besides lack of practice affects students' writing improvement since they would not learn the main purpose of writing which is its communicative purpose. These researchers add another point to the result and believe that due to employing a traditional method in the class lacking any creativity, productivities there is no interaction between teacher and learners.

The other problem is the use of L1 while writing in English. Native language is an effective element of writing in another language and can help writers in decision making and idea generations. However, as the study mentions, L1 use would be helpful only when the writer concentrates on the meaning and not the single word. Theoretical Perspectives on instructors are then suggested to teach the writers how to use this helpful way of using L1 strategy. We can say that in which the researchers mention the entire meaning not the single word in fact attempt to highlight the value of communicative method of teaching and learning. The study by Xu, Mao, and Liu (2012) makes clear

another point about collocations and the way of teaching and learning them as chunk forms. Their findings present that how awareness and psychological factors have an influential role on the EFL learners' vocabulary achievement and their performance at the productive level (writing). After employing lexical approach in the class, they have discovered that there is a positive effect of lexical chunks in their English learning. This study states that few learners were aware of learning collocations and expressions and there was no possibility for them to apply systematic lexis as learning strategies. Nonetheless, by the rehearsing of chunk identification and usage, students become more confident in English learning. The observation during the teaching practice was really considerable. The researchers in this study claim that how a method which can increase the learners' awareness and their confidence is able to improve the learners' competence and collocational knowledge meaningfully.

#### ***Collocational Competence***

Mounya (2010) expounds that it is far better to teach vocabulary separately in order that learners can find enough opportunity to be exposed to as many words as possible. In this way, they can develop their lexical competence namely, both individual words as well as Multi-Word Units. Accordingly, foreign language learners would become more able to decode the meaning of word-combinations like collocations, idioms, phrasal verbs...etc. which still cause a major problem for them. Teaching collocations would help learners of Second/Foreign languages face the problem of mixing. They could at least reduce miscollocations in writing. This would direct learners towards proficiency in the Second/Foreign Language generally and Writing or speaking specially. According to various studies, in learning and teaching collocations gaining or having acceptable level of competence plays a crucial role. Among these competence elements using correct propositions before or after the stems are really disputable for EFL/ESL learners. Hill states (As cited in Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006) that lack of collocational competence can be a cause of EFL students' problems in learning English collocations. It may also be suggested that one reason for the EFL students' problems in learning English prepositions is that they usually try to learn the meaning and use of prepositions individually without paying sufficient attention to their collocational properties. Overtly teaching collocations and their use seems imperative, as research suggests it cannot be taken for granted that foreign language learners, after years of English learning, will naturally develop an awareness of collocations. Some Similar investigations have been conducted by Lapkin and Biskup ( as cited in Oskuee, Pustchi, & Salehpour, 2012) adds that raising learners' awareness of collocations by leading them through the whole pre-writing, in-writing and post-writing process helps them "learn to write" and "write to learn". In other words, there is a dichotomous feature in this process. They "learn to write" better when they understand that writing is a recursive process and they can make use of the collocation resources to prepare for writing, achieve better writing sophistication and to edit and revise their mistakes in collocation use. More importantly, they "write to learn" when the writing process drives them to actively search for suitable collocations. For instance, in the primary phase, pre-writing, learners frequently are participated in brainstorming, looking for information, and finding the outline (planning content). The use of the collocation awareness process encouraged learners to explore in language, looking for useful phrases for the particular genre and theme of the writing at hand. The collocations students noticed and recorded offered them more language learning input as well as adequate resources to aid in expressing their ideas.

As cited in Oskuee, Pustchi, and Salehpour (2012) Swain and Lapkin's output hypothesis, learners can promote their productive skill when forced to use what does not exist in their current repertoire. The results suggest that the process raises learners' collocation awareness throughout and after the writing process and the quality of student work increases with the use of collocation. Further, the process helped the learners "learn to write" and "write to learn," nurturing them reflectively, independently, and autonomously prepared for future learning. While the main aim of the course is to enhance students' academic writing skills, students seem to have also gained some "added values" from the course. The most frequently mentioned 'by-product' is the improvement of their proficiency or their general English skills namely, speaking, listening, writing and reading. In addition to the benefits of improving students' general English language competence, students have also mentioned some other 'by-products' of the course, especially the social interactional function of the course.

To make clear the EFL/ESL learners' performance in writing ability, in an experimental study by Fahandezh Sadi, & Othman (2012) they attempted to divide the participants in two categories; good writers and poor writers. This categorization has been occurred based on the participants' performance in writing activity. The differences were found to be in using certain strategies including L1 use, rehearsing, rereading and repetition. As the result shows, poor writers restored to their mother language 150 times and good writers employed their first language for 180 times. Nevertheless there were several noticeable differences between these two groups of writers in the way they used their first languages. Given the fact almost all the ideas they produced were firstly rehearsed in Farsi, they had to translate them into English while composing. The first difference between the groups in the way they use L1 was found to be in the fact that, due to concentrating on only single words, low-leveled writers had numerous problems for translating their Farsi notions into English written discourse while good writers were found constantly juggle between English and Farsi. Good writers were found to focus on the idea they intended to get across while the poor writers limited their attention to the abstract Farsi words and by the time they intended to covert these Farsi words into English ones. They performed a direct translation which resulted in producing some unacceptable English. Moreover there were some sizable differences between the writers' performances in using rehearsal, rereading and repetition strategy.

#### ***The importance of authentic materials***

As Chastain (1988) asserts, unlike most of their ESL peers, many EFL language learners do not have any access to native speakers for communicating authentically, speaking or writing. As soon as they leave the classroom, they delve into a world which is full of native speaker of their first language, leaving them with little opportunity to use what they've learned. Different approaches have done their best to deal with this problem, EFL practitioners have designed and implemented pedagogic strategies and internet based communicative activities. One aspect of a text which can present it as a native-like or authentic one is the discourse markers or the passage pattern used in a passage. If an EFL writer attempts to write an authentic text it is essential to observe the discourse markers fact. A study by Rahimi (2011) talks about frequency and the type of the discourse markers used in argumentative and expository writings of Iranian EFL learners and the differences that these two text types writing have among the learners. The results of the study displayed that a new hierarchy for the use of discourse and its markers are constructed in essay types along with elaborative markers (mainly "and") the most prevalent connectors benefited from in aforementioned essay types. Then contrastive along with inferential markers such as exemplifier, reason, and conclusive markers, which orderly were the least prevalent used connectors. The results, also, uncovered that, generally, the discourse marker benefited from in argumentative essays was far higher than discourse markers in expository essays in terms of mean. In terms of discourse marker and its categories, both contrastive and conclusive markers were benefited from more prevalently in argumentative essays than in expository ones. The results indicated that the use of discourse markers cannot be a significant predictor of the writing quality in argumentative and expository compositions of Iranian undergraduate EFL students. Moreover, the extensive use of elaborative markers may also be due to the fact that both expository and argumentative writing in general require explanation of ideas, which relies on a wide range of using those elaborative markers in order to establish a kind of parallel relationships between different sections of the written discourse. The results might also imply that Iranian students tend to include a large number of ideas while writing about a topic rather than elaborating on and discussing certain ideas. Werlich (as cited in Rahimi, 2011) states that different text genre require different relationships between the ideas and

elaborates that a description text in an authentic way entails cognitive properties of interrelation and differentiation of perceptions in space, whereas a narrative text requires relationship in time; or, exposition involves comprehension of general concepts through differentiation by analysis or synthesis, while argument needs evaluation of the concepts through extraction of similarities, contrasts, or transformations. If a writer is not able to consider these points in their his/her performance or does not regard these linguistic features, he/she normally goes astray and the text will lose its authenticity. This means that different text types do not necessarily cohere in the same way and require different textual links given the type of macrostructure they have (i.e. whether they are expository or argumentative in nature). So, we can expect to find different proportions of use of such markers in different texts as we found in this study.

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Does explicit teaching of English collocations improve the writing ability of Iranian EFL learners?
2. Does implicit teaching of English collocations improve the writing ability of Iranian EFL learners?
3. Is there any statistically significant difference between implicit and explicit collocation teaching?

#### METHODOLOGY

##### *Participants*

The participants of this research were a population of 36 high school Iranian EFL learners divided into two groups. One of them was explicit group and the other one was the implicit group. There were eighteen students in each group. The participants were randomly selected and divided into two groups in this research: All members of the groups were pre-university students that were almost at the same educational background (pre-intermediate level), and at the same age group 18 to 19. Eighteen of them, in one class, were considered as experimental group and the second half were considered as the controlled group. It was assumed at the beginning that all of the participants were at the same level abilities on writing. It was the point that the pre-test was at the very beginning of the semester, after (classroom treatment) it and at the end of the term, they were given equal topics as post-test to investigate and make clear the effect of explicit and implicit teachings of collocations on the experimental group and the controlled group's performance in using collocations (lexical and grammatical ones) in their writing ability.

##### *Instruments*

The main instruments used in this study included piloting test, the pre-test and post-test. The piloting test was given to a sample group which was similar to these two groups (experimental and controlled). The participants took the pre-test at the very beginning of the study, while the post-test was given at the end of the semester.

##### *Materials*

The basic material for this study was the "English for Pre-University students" (By: Birjandi, Enanisarab, & Samimi, 2011) – which contained eight units and each unit contained a long text talking about an everyday life subject (authentic text). The texts of this book as the main pedagogical syllabus included some common lexical and grammatical collocations and the researcher expected the EFL learners to learn and somehow memorize them contextually and integratedly and use them in writing some communicative paragraphs. So the units of the book were covered during an educational semester separately in two different classrooms. Through teaching these texts two methods (explicit and implicit) were employed to decipher the effect of these two methods on the EFL learners' learning and using these lexical and structural collocations in paragraph writing. It was the point that this book which has been designed as the main pedagogical syllabus for Iranian EFL learners at pre-university level included different types of collocations (lexical & grammatical), different text types (descriptive, narrative, expository, ...) and different discourse markers (passage patterns).

##### *Data Collection Procedures*

The process of data collection in this research included the following procedures and administration; In the pre-test step, the participants were asked to fill in the gaps of some paragraphs by writing some particular phrases or words that were namely lexical or grammatical collocations. It was a sort of controlled-productivity model of writing (as a cloze-passage) while in the post-test the participants were asked to write about three major topics which directly related to the syllabus contents. To evaluate the participants' performance and give a quantitative mark, the numbers of the collocations that have been used correctly and relevantly were counted. The final scores of both groups were compared and analyzed to investigate any effect of implicit and explicit teaching of collocations during a semester on the EFL learners' performance in writing skill so as to confirm or disconfirm the research hypotheses. (implicit and explicit teaching) and scoring procedures which included pre-test and post-test. Pre-test was as a test taken at the beginning of the semester, whereas the post-test was taken as summative evaluation to attain almost a complete data to get the precise effect of these two methods on Iranian EFL learners performance on using collocations in paragraph writing ability. To elaborate this procedure in detail we can state that the process of data collection was comprised of three steps, however it is essential to mention that at the very beginning as piloting process before selecting and categorizing the participants into two groups there were some sample participants asked to answer the tests that had been designed based on the appropriate methods. These participants had almost the same background knowledge in comparing with the participants in pre-tests process. More over some sample participants were asked to write some paragraphs about the topics that were related to the main source (the source mentioned previously). These three steps were as:

##### *Pre-tests process*

At the beginning of the semester when the participants were selected and they were located in two groups namely controlled and experimental groups at this stage all the participants took an equal test (pre-tests) to evaluate their ability in writing collocational paragraph or using collocations in their writing. Of course we did not expect the participants to perform entirely or the researcher's expectation was not a perfect performance, but the result and collected data was exactly useful and meaningful.

##### *Classroom treatment*

Employing and applying two educational methods (explicit & implicit) of teaching vocabulary in texts was the major target. In this study implicit method of teaching collocations was employed in the classroom called controlled group while the explicit method was employed in the classroom called experimental group.

##### *Post-tests process*

These two different classroom treatments were employed in two classes separately during a semester. Based on the school time-table all the participants attended the class twice a week and after the last session, all the participants at the same time were given the same topics related to the texts which

had been covered during the term. The collected data through this step was as summative evaluation and the major data to evaluate and measure the participants' performance in using lexical and grammatical collocations in writing paragraphs. This collected data not only presented level of the participants' performance in writing paragraphs in both groups, but also it presented the effect of the methods of teaching collocations (explicit and implicit) on the participants' performance and advantages or disadvantages of these two methods in teaching and learning in EFL or ESL.

**Data Analysis**

So as to analyze the data collected, SPSS software (T-Test) was employed to gain the statistical result and the research conclusion. The result and performance of each group was collected and analyzed separately, and of course there were correlations between the both groups (explicit and implicit) to figure out the various relationships and effects of these two methods of teaching collocations in this research.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Descriptive Statistics on the Pre-test**

Thirty six students (implicit and explicit groups) who participated in the study were given a pre-test in the first week of the semester. The primary purpose of giving the pre-test was to measure these EFL learners' writing ability. After correcting and scoring the students' answer sheets in pre-tests step, the obtained data was subjected to T-Test. As it can be seen, Table 1 presents the obtained scores of the implicit group in pre-test step. This table contains N= number of students, Mean= mean score of the EFL learners in implicit group, Std. Deviation= Standard Deviation of implicit group and Std. Error = Standard Error of this group's performance in pre-test.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics on Pre-test of implicit group

Pretest:	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Implicit group	18	6.0556	2.23534	.52687

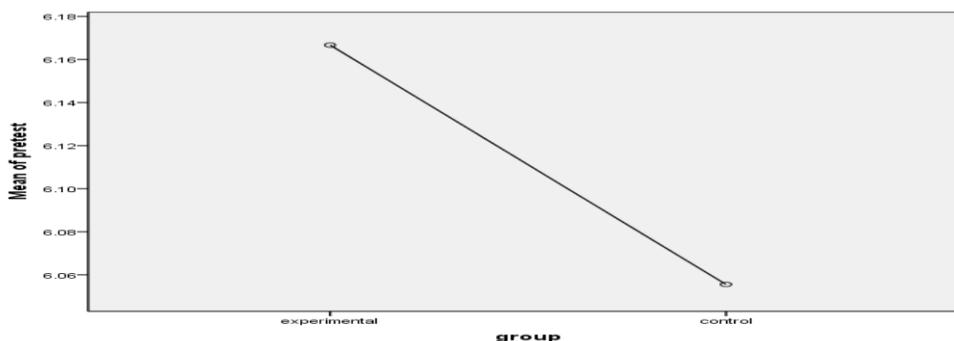


Figure 1. Graph of mean score of implicit group in pre-test

As it can be seen, Figure 1 presents the mean score of implicit group in pre-test. Mean= 6.0556.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Pre-test of explicit group

Pre-test:	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Explicit group	18	6.1667	2.50294	.58995

Table 2 presents the basic descriptive statistics scores of the explicit group on paragraph writing in pre-test. As we can see, Table 2 presents the number of the participants in this group (N=18), mean score of their performance in pre-test (Mean=6.1667), the Std. Deviation and Std. Error of the explicit group in pre-test step. Moreover, the following Figure (2) displays the explicit group's performance in pre-test.

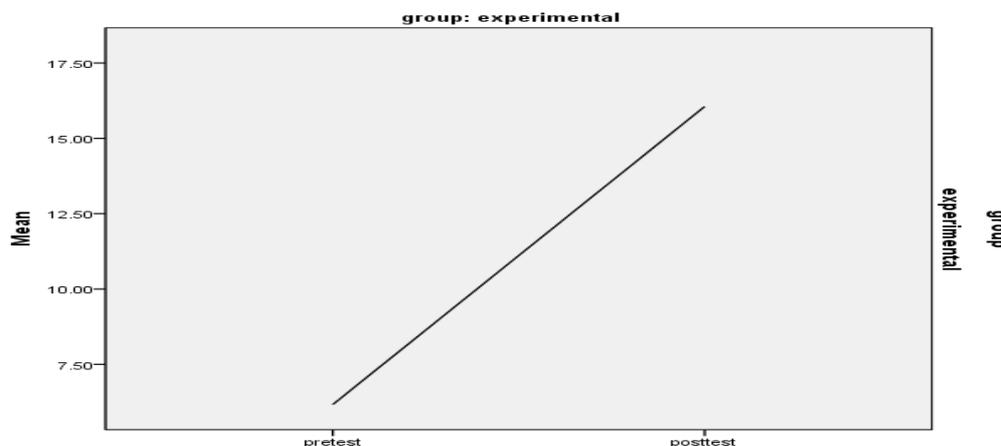


Figure 2. Graph of mean score of explicit group in pre-test

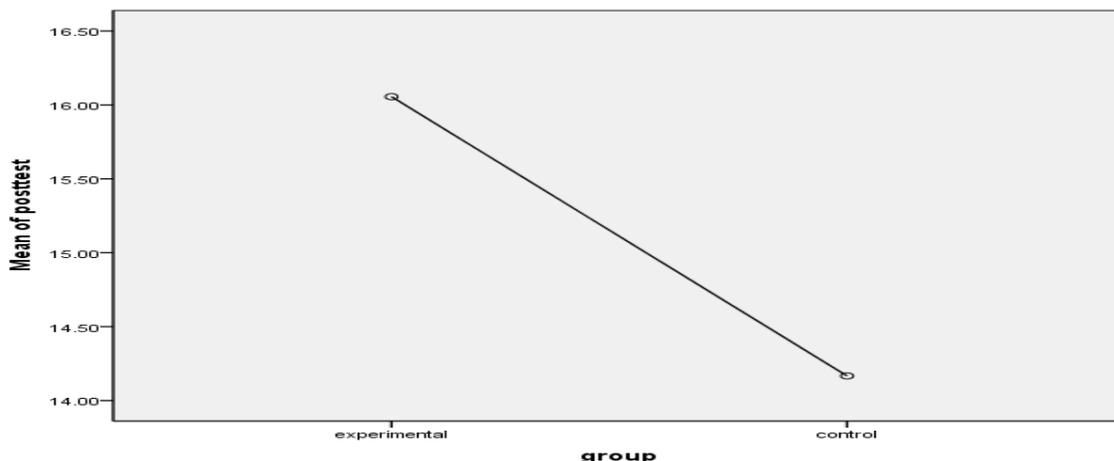
**Descriptive Statistics on the post-test**

This part of the study has attempted to present and describe the participants' performance in post-tests. The results that have been inserted into SPSS software have been divided in two separate groups, namely implicit and explicit groups. The participants of implicit group were

the students who attended the English class through a semester (twice a week) while they were following an implicit method in learning collocations. Consequently, they were given some relevant topics to write about them in a paragraph (available in appendix part). The following Table (3) and Figure 3 present their performance statistically:

*Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for the implicit group on post-test*

Post-test	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Implicit group	14.1667	18	6.20484	1.46249



*Figure 3: Mean of implicit group on post-tests*

The second group given the post-test was called the explicit group. This group as the previous group (implicit group) twice a week attended

*Table 4: Paired Sample t-test for implicit group*

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair1 pretest-posttest	-8.11111	5.57187	1.31330	-10.88194	-5.34028	-6.176	17	.000

*Table 5: Paired St-test for the explicit group*

Post-test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error mean
Explicit group	18	16.0556	4.30420	1.01451

the English class, while the participants of this group were the students learning lexical and grammatical collocations explicitly. In other words, they got aware about the forms and features of English collocations. End of the semester, as the implicit group, the participants of the explicit group were given the same test (post-test) that the statistical results of their performance have been in the following Table (4).

*Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for the explicit group on post-test*

Post-test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error mean
Explicit group	18	16.0556	4.30420	1.01451

With comparing the Tables 4 and 5 , we can see that both groups' performance have been promoted, but the effect of explicit method as the classroom treatment on the EFL learners' performance in using collocations (lexical and grammatical) in writing ability is remarkable. In other words, these two tables show that the participants in explicit group have outperformed in the post-test, because their mean score in post-test is M=16.0556, while the mean score of the implicit group is M=14.1667.

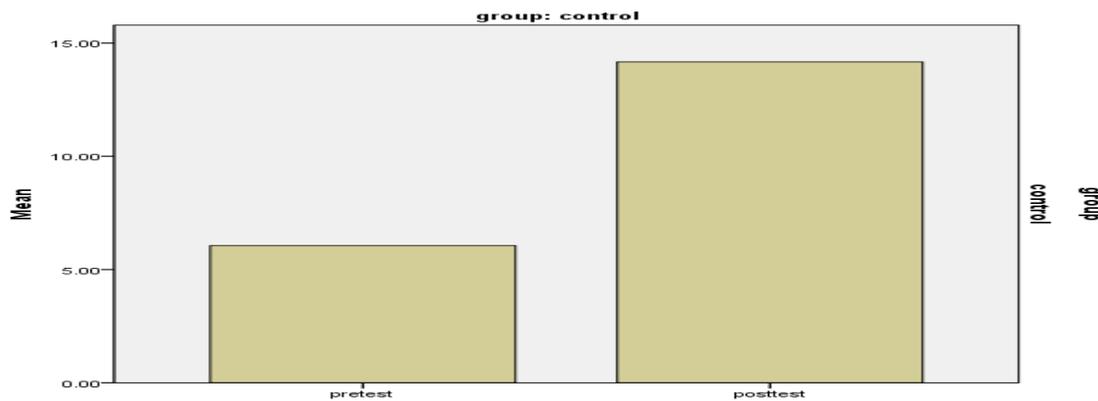


Figure 4: Bar graph of the implicit group's performance in pre-tests and post-tests.

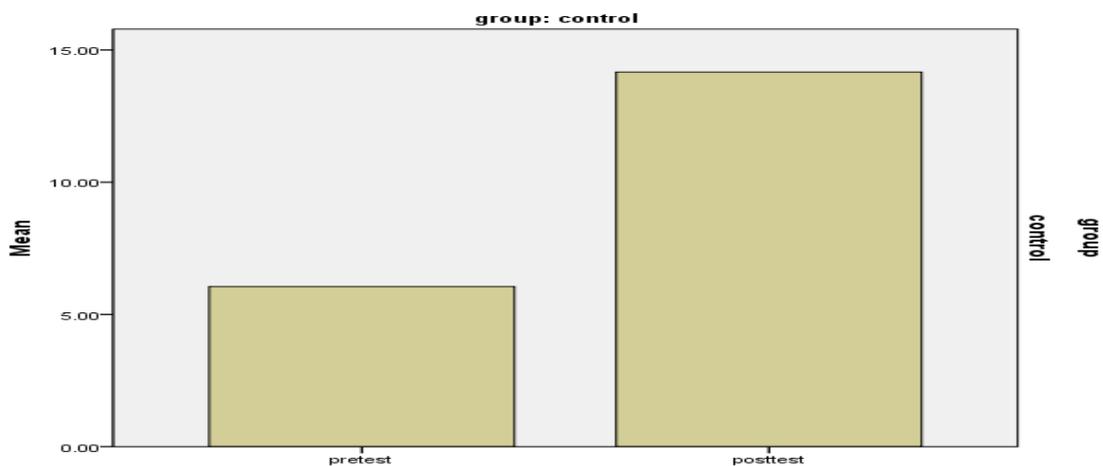


Figure 5: Bar graph of the experimental group's performance in pre-tests and post-tests

The first Table (4) shows the fact that the differences between pretest and posttest in experimental group are significant due to the fact that the 2-tailed significance value is less than .05, and the second Table (5) displays that the difference between pretest and posttest in control group is significant due to the fact that the 2-tailed significance value is less than .05.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest	Explicit	18	6.1667	2.50294	.58995
	Implicit	18	6.0556	2.23534	.52687
posttest	Explicit	18	16.0556	4.30420	1.01451
	Implicit	18	14.1667	6.20484	1.46249

According to the above tables we can conclude that although there is a differences in the value of mean in both pre-test and post-test but this value and the differences between the mean score pretests and posttest are not significant. Because the significance of Levene's Test for Equality of Variances in the above table in both pretest and posttest is more than .05 we resort to equal variance assumed. In other words, as the Table 7 shows, the differences between two groups (controlled & experimental) performance is trivial, but, so as to get the level of significance of the participants' performance.

Table 8: Independent Sample 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
pretest	Equal variances assumed	.841	.366	.140	34	.889	.11111	.79097	-1.49634	1.71856
	Equal variances not assumed			.140	33.574	.889	.11111	.79097	-1.49709	1.71931
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	1.907	.176	1.061	34	.296	1.88889	1.77992	-1.72835	5.50612
	Equal variances not assumed			1.061	30.285	.297	1.88889	1.77992	-1.74476	5.52254

Test for Equality of Variances in the above table in both pretest and posttest is more than .05 we resort to equal variance assumed . As it is clear the t-tailed significance of Levene's Test for Equality of Variances in the above table in both pretest and posttest is more than .05 which shows that the differences between mean of pretest and more importantly posttest is not that significant.

### Discussion

As the results of the study reveal, the participants in the both groups (implicit and explicit) performed similarly in pre-tests. In other words, no significant difference was found between the performance of the first group and second group at the beginning of the study. But after classroom treatment and employing two different methods (explicit and implicit) during a semester, the results show that the participants' performances in two groups were significantly different and the subjects of the explicit group outperformed in writing paragraph, because the mean score of the implicit group in post-test was 14.1667, while the mean score of the explicit group was 16.0556. So, according to the participants' performance in the both groups, the first and the second null hypotheses of the study: "Ho.1 Explicit instruction of English collocations does not affect Iranian EFL learner's writing ability and Ho.2 Implicit instruction of English collocations does not affect Iranian EFL learner's writing ability" were disconfirmed, whereas the third hypothesis was retained. As mentioned previously, the third hypothesis of this study: "Ho.3 Is there any statistically significant difference between implicit and explicit collocation teaching?" was confirmed. So we can claim that this study and its results coming from the participants' performance confirm the third hypothesis. This findings present that teaching collocations explicitly improves and promotes the Iranian EFL learners in using collocations in paragraph writing effectively versus the implicit method of teaching collocations.

The descriptive statistics presented earlier revealed that the mean and the maximum score of the explicit group that received explicit method of teaching collocations were a little bit higher than the other group (implicit group). This result was the matter that the following studies emphasized, too: The study by Myers and Chang, (2009) and Xu ,Mao, and Liu. (2012) had made clear this point about collocations and the way of teaching and learning them as chunk forms. In another words, these studies emphasized that the explicit method of teaching, direct emphasis on the lexical facets of the collocations in teaching and learning and awareness of the EFL learners in learning collocational types of English vocabularies are facilitative and play an effective role in teaching and learning process. In fact, their findings presented that how awareness has an influential role on the EFL learners' vocabulary learning and their performance at the productive level (In this case writing ability).

### CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The results show that most of Iranian EFL learners have lack of collocational knowledge and they have many problems in productive level of language (in this case using collocations in paragraph witting), due to insufficient language competence. Furthermore, these EFL learners have different

achievement and reaction based on the employed methods in teaching collocations. So according to the findings, The EFL learners' problems can be concluded under the following headings:

- a- Lack of collocational knowledge
- b- Insufficient language competence
- c- Inability in productive level of language

The present study refers to the needs of collocations for the students of Iran and finds out that students are weak in using collocation in their writing ability. Their productive level of language in written form is very poor. At the same time the study has also proved that the teachers and teaching methods are mostly responsible for the students' poor proficiency in collocations. The problems of the students regarding the study are multifaceted and the study has tried to identify these problems and examine the nature of them in some detail. The study helps us develop insights in the modern approaches to teaching vocabulary (collocations). It is important for language teachers to enhance the learners' consciousness and awareness about the importance of collocations in EFL/ESL teaching process. A direct and simple way to do so is to teach them explicitly, as suggested by Nesselhauf (2005) the conscious-raising activities about the word combinations as chunks, collocations, or idioms is crucial in EFL process. In teaching collocations, language teachers may need to determine which elements of collocations deserve particular attention. Moreover, collocations are best taught to learners when they learn new words as learners need to know how to use the new vocabulary with other words in context, not in isolations. Teachers may introduce some common collocations associated with the new vocabulary to the learners. We can claim that collocations should be taught systematically and according to the degree of difficulty, from the most to the least difficult. Learners should be trained to use their existing lexicon to generate more collocations as learners who are "collocationally competent ... will also be far more communicatively competent" (Hill, 2000: 62).

The findings imply that pedagogical approaches to teaching collocations in Iran need special attention. Since this area of teaching English is very important in EFL/ESL process. Any change in writing activity in the class requires the EFL learners' engagement. Instead of teaching

vocabulary separately and out of texts, it is better to employ and follow a contextualized and explicit method in teaching collocations. Teachers can increase the students' awareness about the collocations and their structures through explicit method. It must be kept in mind that writing skill is a productive ability and requires a great level of language competence. Through this language competence and the employed method in the classroom, the EFL learners are able to get autonomous and come to the productive level.

To sum up the following points can be mentioned as the final result of this experimental study;

- 1- Teaching collocations is the major endeavor to reach proficiency in writing.
- 2- Teaching individual words come in the second position, and it is useful only if these words are taught in context.
- 3- Compared to vocabulary, grammar has a minor role in raising writing proficiency. As a result, it is ranked in a second position because too much grammatical rules could hinder communication.
- 4- Since communication is the main aim behind writing, the underlying meaning is more important than the surface structure. Consequently, lexical structures are not much emphasized except word combinations especially collocations that have an influence on the meaning. Thus, learners are encouraged to use collocations even if they write them incorrectly provided that this does not change its meaning.
- 5- In vocabulary, lexical collocations represent the most important part. Then, we have grammatical collocations.
- 6- Collocations should be taught explicitly through highlighting, noticing, consciousness-raising.
- 7- Collocation is included in the criteria of evaluating compositions.
- 8- Activities that enhance students' knowledge and use of collocations are required.
- 9- Textbooks and other materials (adapted, adopted or designed) of collocations must be used by both the teacher and the learner whenever needed.
- 10- A Lexical Notebook is very useful to store collocations that are recalled later.
- 11- Testing Collocations in composition implies testing language generally and writing specially.

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#### ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of Task repetition on accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. In order to achieve this purpose, a null hypothesis was developed: There is no statistically significant difference between accuracy speaking ability in Iranian EFL learners by use of task repetition. It also seeks to examine the effect of task type on the accuracy gain through task repetition. The subjects consisted of 60 male and female students who were selected from among 88 intermediate EFL learners by applying the proficiency test, and 60 participants that received 73-84 out of 100 were selected. To examine the effect of task repetition and task type on accuracy, the researcher assigned 60 students to 3 groups; the narrative task performers, personal task performers and decision-making task performers. The first production of the subjects was measured for accuracy. Then after a week all the subjects did the same task again, and their second production was also measured for accuracy. The t-test results and the analysis of variance indicated that task repetition, and task type, as well as the interaction between these variables resulted in significant differences in subjects' speaking ability in term of accuracy. The findings of this research supported Bygate's (1996, 2001) claim that task repetition may help develop the process of integration of speech capacities. It is argued that integrating processing capacities must be important for language development, and that this can be promoted through the use of task repetition. ANOVA found statistically significant effect for task repetition.

**KEYWORDS:** Task; repetition; task repetition; speaking; accuracy

#### INTRODUCTION

In recent years a number of researchers, syllabus designers and educational innovators have called for a move in language teaching toward task-based approaches to instruction (Prabhu, 1987; Nunan, 1989; Long & Crooks, 1991; Ellis, 2003). The rise of task-based language teaching has led to a variety of different interpretations of what exactly constitutes a task.

A number of studies have been made as to how some attention may be focused on form. It can be done through task design (Fotos & Ellis, 1991), pre-task and post-task activities (Doughty, 1991) and consciousness-raising activities (Willis, 1996).

In this research, it is approached the issue of attention from a different but related perspective. This study focuses on the ability learners have to utilize their L2 knowledge in production. It is investigated if there is evidence of target like production when the need to focus on meaning has been minimized through task repetition, thereby freeing learners to attend to form, not from input, but from their own internal system. For example, "we might expect performance to be more fluent in terms of pausing and speed of words per minute. This is because all things being equal we would expect that doing the task a second time would involve less planning work. Also it is likely to have a different form: because the task has already been formulated previously, we can expect fewer false starts and self corrections (Bygate, 1996, p. 138).

#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Task-based language teaching refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. It is a logical development of communicative language teaching, since it draws on several principles that formed part of the communicative language teaching movement from 1980 for example;

- Activities that involve real communication are essential for language learning.
- Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful task promote learning.
- Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process (Richard & Rodgers, 2002, p. 223).

Task-based language teaching is the use of task that serve to facilitate meaningful communication and interaction lies at the heart of various proposals for "task-based instruction" which is an attempt to apply principles from second language acquisition research to language teaching (Richard. & Renandye, 2002, P. 93).

Task repetition involves asking language learners to repeat the same or slightly altered tasks at intervals of for example, one or two weeks (Bygate and Samuda, 2005:43). In task repetition, the first performance of the task is regarded as preparation for (or a pre-task activity before), further performances (Eliss, 2005).

At first glance, this might seem reminiscent of behaviorist drills that are based on the assumption that language learning occurs via a process of habit information through repetition (for instance Paulston and Bruder, 1976:12) identified different types of repetition drills and defined them as "plain repetition of the cue". It involves repetition of familiar form and content (Bygate, 2006).

By repeating the same or similar tasks, therefore, learners might be able to build upon what they have already done in order to "buy time" not only to do mental work on what they are about to communicate but also to access and reformulate words and grammatical structures more efficiently, and accurately.

It has recently been proposed that task repetition is easier than task alternation because the appropriate task settings are already present in working memory, whereas during task alternation task settings must be retrieved from long-term memory (Mayr & Kliegl, 2000). This study tested whether the phonological loop is involved in keeping the relevant task settings active in working memory. It may then be expected that concurrent articulatory suppression would diminish the facilitation associated with task

repetition because the phonological loop could no longer maintain the appropriate task settings active in working memory. Both during task repetition and task alternation the relevant task settings should then be retrieved from long-term memory. Content repetition refers to carrying out several tasks that require different procedures to accomplish the communicative goal, but require the same content knowledge. Task repetition refers to carrying out the same task repeatedly, using the same procedure to accomplish the communicative goal and requiring the same content knowledge. Global accuracy is the ability to avoid error in performance, possibly reflecting higher levels of control in the language, as well as conservative orientation, that is, avoidance of challenging structures that might provoke errors (Skehan, 1996).

### RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

Question 1: what extent does task repetition lead to more accurate speaking ability?

Question 2: what extent task type have impact on the accuracy gain through task repetition?

In order to cope with the answers of the preceding questions, the following null hypothesis was proposed.

HO1. There is no statistically significant difference between accuracy speaking ability in Iranian EFL learners by use of task repetition.

Ho 2. Task type does not have any impact on the accuracy gain through task repetition.

### METHODOLOGY

#### *Participants*

This study was conducted with 60 EFL students (boys and girls) selected among 88 students, who are majoring in English language teaching at Arad institute. They were 18-20 years old and at intermediate level. For homogeneity of the subjects, prior to research a proficiency test (PET) was given to 88 students and among them 60 participants who had received 73-84 were selected. These 60 students were divided into three groups randomly. Each group worked on a special task type and their performances on the first attempt and second attempt of the same task were recorded and scored. These learners were not aware of the research purpose. Their performances were recorded in language lab and later on the recordings were transcribed and scored according to some established criteria.

#### *Instruments*

##### *Tasks*

This research included a range of tasks to explore whether different task types would have an impact on performance. Three task types were used in this study following Skehan and Foster (1999):

*Personal tasks:* (based on information that was well known to participants and that was therefore assumed to reduce the cognitive load of the task involved). *Narratives:* (which were supported by visual material, but which required some degree of organization of material to tell a story effectively). *And decision-making tasks:* (Which required the capacity to relate a set of reasons to a set of decisions that had to be made). These three types of tasks were chosen for a number of reasons.

First similar tasks have been used in other studies of task types (e.g. Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Skehan & Foster, 1999; Foster, 2000 cited in Foster, 2001) and thus comparison with the results of these studies would be easier.

Second, all of these tasks are monologue rather than dialogic, they afford a basis for deriving measures of learner performance that are not influenced by interactional variables.

Finally, we wished to insure that the task was reasonably demanding on the participants and previous researches indicate that this can be achieved by these types of tasks.

As a personal task the following topic was used:

Sending somebody back to turn off the oven (Foster & Skehan 1996). It is the afternoon, you are at the university, and you have an important examination in fifteen minutes. You suddenly think that you haven't turned off the oven after cooking your lunch. There is no time for you to go home. Explain to a friend who wants to help

#### *Procedure and Data analysis*

The subjects involved in this study were randomly divided into three groups. Each group was assigned to perform a specific task. The implementation procedures were carefully designed, so that conditions for each task type were as close as possible to being identical for all of the participants, and on each occasion. The recordings took place in the language lab by the researcher and another language teacher.

Before performing the task, the participants in all three groups were instructed about the specific task and were told what they were supposed to do. Students were asked to think about the task they had to do. The material was not part of class work, and subjects had no exposure to the task types before. Each subject, after introducing himself or herself, started to perform the task and it was recorded on a cassette. When all of the participants finished their first performance, the second phase of the study began. Students hadn't been informed in advance about the repetition of the task in order to diminish the practice effect. After one week students were required to do the same task again. Their second performances were also recorded on separate cassettes. After collecting the data the most difficult phase of the study began. We had to transcribe the speeches in order to measure them. The transcripts were coded and evaluated by three raters individually.

### Results and discussion

To ensure the homogeneity of the two groups, the PET was administered among 88 EFL learners. Those students (N = 60) whose scores fell within the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean (score between 73 and 84) were chosen as homogeneous participants for this study.

Task repetition was considered as within-subject variable and task type (narration, personal, decision-making) was regarded between-subject variable. To obtain the goal, the researcher tested the null hypotheses stated on the basis of the research questions.

ANOVA found statistically significant effect for task repetition, which is the within-subject factor, ( $F(1, 57) = 158.72; p = .000, p < \alpha$ ) in which F ratio of 158.72 was greater than the F critical of 4/02, and p value was less than .05 level of significance. Consequently, the first null hypothesis of this study which predicted that task repetition does not lead to more accurate language use was rejected (Table 1).

Table 1: Repeated-Measure ANOVA for the Effect of Task Repetition for Accuracy (Appendix B)

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Squared	Eta
Task repetition	.264	158.772	1.000	57.000	.000	.736	
Task repetition * Task type	.508	27.614	2.000	57.000	.000	.492	

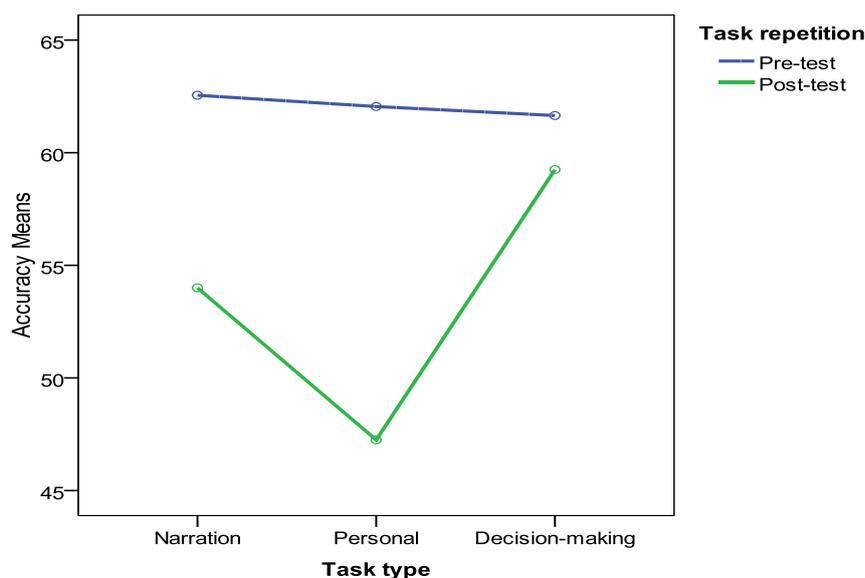


Figure 1: Below displays the graphical presentation of the results

We also need to evaluate the effect size of this result. The value we are interested in is Partial Eta squared. Based on result in Table 2, the value obtained in this study is .73, which is relatively high. Additionally, the interaction effect within-subject and between-subject factors, i.e. task repetition \* task type was also significant ( $F(2, 57) = 27.61; p = .000, p < .05$ , Effect size = .49).

Table 2: Repeated-Measure ANOVA: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	400785.208	1	400785.208	13110.522	.000	.996
Task type	686.817	2	343.408	11.234	.000	.283
Error	1742.475	57	30.570			

ANOVA detected a statistically significant effect for task type as the between-subject variable ( $F = 11.23$ ;  $p = .000$ ,  $p < .05$ ) in which F ratio of 11.23 was more than the F critical of 4.02, and p value was less than .05 level of significance; therefore, the second null hypothesis of this study which stated that task type does not have any impact on the accuracy gain through task repetition was rejected.

Because we have gained a statistically significant result from the preceding analysis, this implies that there is a difference somewhere among the three task types. It does not tell us which type of tasks or set of scores differ from each other. As a result, Post-hoc Pair wise Comparisons was applied.

Post-hoc Pair wise Comparisons showed that the difference between personal task was statistically different from narration ( $p = .01$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and also was statistically different from decision-making ( $p = .01$ ,  $p < .000$ ). Narration was not statistically different from decision-making ( $p = .25$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

This study is part of a research project designed to help our understanding of the instructional choices when language learning tasks are used. The present study has focused on the impact of task repetition and then on three task types.

Using a range of measures, in this research, it was found some evidence that task repetition resulted in improvement in learners' speaking ability. The findings were supported by information processing theory that human beings possess limited capacity (Anderson, 2000) which did not allow the speaker to attend to all aspects of the language at the time of task performance. Second language learners with low level of proficiency do not have ready-made plans in their possession to facilitate language production under real time pressure (Farch & Kasper, 1986).

When first carrying out the task, the learners would be initially more concerned with planning the content of the message; on the other hand, having done the substantial conceptual work, the learners would be more concerned with paying attention to the formulation aspect of the task. It can be concluded that this can be an effect of highly contextualized cognitive rehearsal, releasing spare capacity on the part of the speaker to increase accuracy. The results of the present study are in line with findings of the previous studies (e.g., Bygate, 2001). So generally speaking, the results suggest that previous experience of a task is available for speakers to build on in the subsequent performance.

## CONCLUSION

The findings of this research supported Bygate's (1996, 2001) claim that task repetition may help develop the process of integration of speech capacities. It is argued that integrating processing capacities must be important for language development, and that this can be promoted through the use of task repetition. It is suggested that learners can help through repeated experience of the same tasks, and teachers may be able to use task familiarity to help learners' language to develop.

The account emerging from the results of this research, also suggests that repeated encounter with a task may make it possible for various processes to occur: information can be improved, reorganized, and consolidated; attention can be paid to different aspects of the language. Repeated encounters do not involve the learners in doing the 'same' thing, but rather in working differently on the same material. Repetition provides the students with inbuilt planning; it also provides a context for students and teachers to plan their subsequent language work.

### *The limitations of the study*

This study has following limitations:

- 1-The age of subjects is between 18-20 years and at intermediate level.
- 2- For homogeneity of the subjects, prior to research a proficiency test (PET) was given.

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**THE ROLE OF POST-TASK CALL APPROACH IN TEACHING WRITING ACCURACY AMONG ADVANCED EFL LEARNERS**

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**ABSTRACT**

This study investigated the effect of post-task Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) approach on advanced Iranian learners' writing accuracy. Fifty-five MA students in Khouzestan Islamic Azad University, Ahvaz, Iran were randomly selected and divided into experimental and control groups. Before instruction, both groups were given a pre-test of writing an essay. Then, the control group was taught through using a traditional method of in-class writing instruction, while the experimental group was taught through using CALL approach. The experimental group also received some writing post-tasks via email correspondences. Four different types of tasks including description, explanation, cause, and effect, and opinion paragraph tasks were used. The experiment lasted for eight weeks comprising of ten sessions. At the end of the experiment, both groups took a post-test of writing an essay. An Independent Sample *t*-test was run to find if there was any significant difference between the two groups in the post-tests. Results showed that there was not a significant difference between the two groups' pre-tests. However, there was a significant difference between the two groups' post-tests in terms of gaining scores on writing accuracy. Results revealed that post-task CALL techniques did enhance English as foreign language (EFL) learners' writing accuracy. The CALL group achieved a higher degree of writing accuracy compared to the Non-CALL group ( $p < .05$ ). This significant difference between the two groups favoring CALL users was as an indication of the positive effect of post-task CALL approach on improving students' writing accuracy. Teachers may use the CALL approach to facilitate teaching writing accuracy in composing the essays. This study may provide useful hints for further research on using the CALL approaches in developing other language skills.

**KEYWORDS:** CALL, Task, Post-task phase, writing accuracy

**INTRODUCTION**

Writing in a foreign language is one of the most challenging and complex tasks for language learners. It is a difficult skill that requires considerable effort and practice on the learners' part to reach an acceptable level of writing. Due to the complexity of this skill, many students find it very difficult to master all the mechanics of writing and to produce an adequate piece of writing; therefore they do not produce acceptable compositions. What makes writing a very troublesome task for EFL learners is the fact that it requires some criteria of acceptability relative to different aspects of writing which include content, organization, vocabulary, language use, spelling, punctuation and accurate capitalization and paragraphing (Hamadouche, 2010, p. 2). In writing, grammatical accuracy is essential to ensure the writer's intended meaning and to avoid communicative misunderstanding (Lush, 2002; Larsen-Freeman, 2003). According to Starkey (2004), an effective piece of writing is the one that is organized, clear, and coherent, with accurate language and effective word choice. In terms of skills, producing a coherent, fluent, extended piece of writing is probably the most difficult thing there is to do in language.

For many learners studying English as a foreign language, writing is considered boring. Learners find it hard to engage in writing activities. In order to eradicate the problem, CALL systems often use computer to engage learners more in the learning process. CALL as a multidimensional computer tool has been practiced by language teachers to facilitate learning and teaching processes (Cummins, 2008). Given the breadth of what may go on in CALL, a definition of CALL that accommodates its changing nature is any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language (Beatty, 2003, p. 7).

In recent years, the rapid evolution of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has made great changes in societies and education. The Internet, particularly, has become a useful tool for communication, a venue for experiencing different cultures and a mediator in diverse political, social, and economical situations. Along with the impact of the Internet worldwide, the extensive use of computers at schools has had a critical influence on educational environments (Park & Son, 2009, pp. 80-101). According to Garcia and Arias (2000), using CALL in a classroom has the following advantages: Increased motivation of the students, individualization of learning process, immediate feedback, non-linear access to the information, and the introduction of new exercise types in the classroom.

Lee (2000) further mentioned numerous reasons why computer technology should be used in second language instruction. CALL can (a) provide students with experiential learning practice, (b) motivate students to learn, (c) potentially increase student academic achievement, (d) increase available authentic materials, (e) encourage interaction between instructors and students and students and peers, (f) place emphasis on individual goals, (g) allow students to use multiple sources for information, and (h) create a sense of global understanding (Lee, 2000).

Teaching EFL writing accuracy is a headache for many teachers; they spend considerable time correcting their students' compositions only to find their corrections and comments ignored. Despite teachers' hard work, many students' written English remains non-idiomatic, poorly organized, insufficiently developed, grammatically awkward, devoid of sentence structure variety, and weak in vocabulary usage. One important reason for all this is that learners have not been helped to become motivated, involved in their own learning, or self-sufficient. The fact is that the students will not devote their efforts to learning a foreign language if they do not have a need or desire to learn it. However, when students are duly motivated, they will become involved in learning a foreign language and will learn it autonomously (Wang, 2004, p. 24).

One way to motivate learners, according to Ellis (1994, p. 516), is to design challenging tasks that present students with opportunities for communication and self-direction. Richards and Rodgers (2001) assert that "task-based language teaching refers to an approach based on the

use of tasks as the core units of planning and instruction in language teaching" (p. 223). Although the designs of task-based lesson have been proposed variously, they all include three common phases (Willis, 1996):

1) Pre-task: it concerns the various activities that teacher and students can undertake before they start the task; 2) Task: it centers on the task itself and various instructional options; 3) Post-task: it involves procedures for following up on the task performance.

The post-task phase has three major pedagogic goals: (1) to provide an opportunity for a repeat performance of the task; (2) to encourage reflection on how the task was performed; and (3) to encourage attention to form, in particular to those forms that proved problematic to the learners when they performed the task (Ellis, 2002, pp. 93-95). A number of efforts have been made to develop the students' writing skill, among others is by applying different approaches to the teaching of writing. In English classes we usually use pen and paper based procedures for teaching writing. In recent years, the advance in technology has made it easy to take advantage of modern facilities and it made great changes in societies and education. But in our classes we do not pay much attention to using this technology. Also, the role of post-task which provides an opportunity for repeating and following up on the task performance is neglected in writing instruction most of the time. Thus, shedding more light on the effectiveness of post-task CALL approach on EFL learners' writing development in Iranian EFL classrooms context at the advanced level seems to be necessary in developing MA students' writing accuracy.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Many studies have attempted to assess the impact of CALL on learning. These studies focus either on the achievement of linguistic skills such as speaking, listening, writing and reading (Garrett, 1998) or on motivation (Skinner & Austin, 1999; Garcia & Arias, 2000). Concerning grammar teaching, while some studies find a significant advantage of these techniques, others find no significant difference between CALL and other teaching methods.

For instance, a positive impact of CALL has been found by Nutta (1998) investigating the effect of computer-based versus teacher-directed instruction on the acquisition of English as a second language. Nutta's study consisted of 53 students enrolled in an intensive academic ESL institute at a major university in Florida. It compared the method of grammar instruction, teacher-directed or computer-based. In this study, computer-based students reached better scores than teacher-directed students, leading the author to conclude that computer-based instruction can be an effective method of teaching L2 grammar. The results showed that computer-based students scored significantly higher on open-ended tests than the teacher-directed students. No significant differences were found between the computer-based and teacher-directed students' scores on multiple choice or fill-in-the-blank tests.

Other studies are less optimistic. Chen (2005) observed the impact of traditional class instruction with or without computer aid on the acquisition of parts of speech (nouns, articles, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, coordination, and subordination) by two groups of Taiwanese EFL learners. After a 16-hour instruction, both groups were asked to produce a written narrative. The dependent variable under consideration was the number of errors produced in each group and for each category of errors. Overall, there was no statistical difference between the control and the experimental groups. However, the experimental group performed better in the error categories of nouns and prepositions whereas the control group outperformed the experimental group for the error categories of lexicon and subject omission. The author fails to provide literature supporting those findings.

Finkbeiner (2001) administered a questionnaire to 100 undergraduate EFL learners and collected data from 82 learners to learn about learners' attitude and interest in CALL and cooperative learning. He showed that ESL undergraduate learners had positive attitudes towards CALL and suggested that a successful implementation of CALL required it to be put into everyday study life. Almekhlafi (2006) investigated the effect of CALL on elementary school students' achievement and their attitudes towards learning English in the United Arab Emirates. 83 elementary students in Al-Tamayoz Elementary school were selected and divided into experimental and control groups (43 and 40 participants respectively). The findings revealed that the students in the experimental group had a positive attitude towards CALL. The findings also showed that CALL affected students' achievement positively.

CALL approach through word processor offers grammar and spelling checker, both of which provide suggestions which can be accepted or rejected. This feedback may facilitate not only the correction process but also the potential to promote cultural awareness concerned with British and American spelling. It should be noted, however, as using computers to provide feedback in correcting written essays and assignments may not be as reliable as the feedback which comes from teachers, meaning that teacher supervision is both necessary and beneficial in providing grammatical and cultural feedback correction (Gorjian, 2008). According to the meta-analysis of 176 studies from 1990 to 1995 studied by Coley (1997), indicated that writing with the application of technology, especially word processor, makes editing easier and faster than writing with pen-paper and it also improve the quality of writing. Using technology for writing provides the opportunity for the students to share their accomplishments with other students through network.

Frizzler (1995) explored the potential impact of one application of computer-mediated communication on university level English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) composition students and instructors. The participants were non-native speakers of English from non-English-speaking countries (Japan, Croatia, Finland, Republic of Korea, Brazil, Egypt, Russia, and Indonesia). They studied an online course at Frizzy University. This was a free, non-credit university-level course over an eight-week period during the summer of 1995. It was conducted online, via the Internet, through email. The students interacted with each other via email discussing essays and exchanging essays for peer review. The findings showed that the interactivity among students was the key to the successful online writing class. Using the Internet to teach ESOL requires changes in teachers' roles, approaches, and attitudes toward teaching. The Internet functions can be used not only as a means of classroom facilities but also as language learning tools. Frizzler concluded that the Internet technology should be integrated into the ESL classroom.

Braine (1997) investigated the effects of networked computers on ESL student writing at Brock University in Ontario, Canada. The researcher compared ESL students in first-year English classes writing in two contexts: a networked computer class and a traditional lecture-style class. The purpose was to determine which setting promoted writing, had more improvement in writing, and had more peer and teacher feedback. The first and final drafts of students' papers were scored, and the number of interactions during peer-review sessions was analyzed. The networked setting was shown to promote better writing and more peer and teacher feedback. The traditional setting was shown to promote more improvement in writing.

Yasin (2002) investigated the effects of computer-assisted instruction on the second graders learning English in the District of Bani

Kinanah. The participants in the study were fifty female second grade pupils randomly chosen from Hatem Basic School for Girls. The sample was divided into two groups, experimental and control. The experimental group was taught via computer, whereas the control group was taught with the traditional method. The software used was Action Pack 1. The findings of the study indicated that using CALL is very efficient in helping second graders learn English.

Abu-Seileek (2004) designed a CALL program and tested its effect on Jordanian students' writing ability in English. The study attempted to find any statistical differences between the mean scores on the writing task of the experimental and control groups. The participants of the study were first grade secondary students. The instrument of this study was a computer-based program Win Word 2002, whose main function was to check and correct spelling, style, and grammar errors. The study revealed that students who used the computer to learn writing skills achieved higher scores than those who studied by the traditional method.

In one study conducted by Gorjian (2009), the role of computer in instructing writing skills in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) was investigated. To discover the significant difference between learners' acquiring writing proficiency with or without using personal computers, he collected one experimental and one control group of 40 intermediate L2 learners and asked them to write 480 one-paragraph essays in 12 sessions. After analyzing the results, he found out that experimental group which received teacher feedback via e-mailing outperformed control group which was given instruction through pen and paper procedures.

Bani-Hani (2009) investigated the effectiveness of a computerized instructional program for teaching English as a foreign language in Jordanian basic stage schools. The study also investigated the teachers' and students' opinions about CALL. The sample of the study consisted of 73 sixth grade students in two sections and 100 basic school teachers. The researcher used an achievement test for both the experimental and control groups. He also used a questionnaire for both teachers and students in the experimental group to investigate their opinions towards using computers in teaching and learning English. The results of the study revealed statistically significant differences in the students' achievement in favor of the experimental group. The results also revealed that teachers and students had the inclination to use computers in teaching and learning English as a foreign language.

Most of these studies show that computer-assisted writing programs can positively affect language learning. In short, these studies stress the positive effects of using the computers on EFL students' writing achievements. It can be concluded that the use of the computer may produce higher achievement in writing accuracy of students than the current technique. It may result in positive students' attitudes towards technology and school.

#### ***Studies on Task-Based Instruction (TBI)***

The concept of TBI was developed in the 1980s by Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers and teachers who were discontented with teacher-centered, form-oriented language teaching practice. The rationale behind TBI is that key language learning processes take place in holistic rather than analytic language activities, and tasks are invaluable in achieving this (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). The primary unit for both designing a language programme and individual lessons should be a task because it creates opportunities for communication and noticing form/meaning/function relationships, which are the conditions essential for the development of communicative competence in an L2 (Willis & Willis, 2007).

Doughty and Pica (1986) reported the findings of the latest series of studies to determine the effects of task type and participation pattern on language classroom interaction. The results of this study were compared to those of an earlier investigation in regard to optional and required information exchange tasks across teacher-directed, small-group, and dyad interactional patterns. The participants in both the earlier and the present studies were adult students and teachers from six intermediate EFL classes (three classes in each of the two studies). The classes were selected according to the proficiency level. The students who participated in group- and dyadic-activities were chosen randomly with a variety of L1 backgrounds. The teachers were native speakers of English with several years of teaching experience. The findings showed that group and dyad interaction patterns produced more modification than did the teacher-fronted situation, which suggested that the participation pattern as well as the task type have an effect on the conversational modification of interaction (Doughty & Pica, 1986, pp. 305-325).

Post-task activities have also proved interesting. Examples of such activities are informing learners before they do a task that some of them will be required to re-do the task subsequently on front of the entire class. The rationale here is that the threat of a future public performance will induce learners, while doing the task, to concentrate on error avoidance, since they will more clearly see the connection between the task and how well they will later do, when more pedagogic norms will prevail. In addition, the future task will not compromise the naturalness and communicativeness of the actual task, since the teacher will not be present at that stage. An alternative post-task condition would be to record learner performance during a task (which is done anyway during research studies), and then give the tape to learners so that they have to transcribe some of their own performance. Once again, the intention is to focus learners' attention on form, since they will be drawn in working in detail with what they themselves have said. Skehan and Foster (1997) made the prediction that accuracy, selectively, would be advantaged in a post-task condition. In two studies, Skehan and Foster (1997) predicted that a post-task effect upon writing accuracy was confirmed, but only for interactive tasks. There was a higher level of accuracy with personal information exchange and narrative tasks, but this did not reach statistical significance. In addition, there was a significant practice effect: as time went on in the study, over 2 to 3 weeks, the effect on accuracy grew in strength.

#### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

RQ1) Do post-task CALL techniques affect EFL learners' writing accuracy?

RQ2) Do post-task CALL techniques make a difference among CALL and Non-CALL groups learning writing accuracy?

#### **METHODOLOGY**

##### ***Participants***

Fifty-five MA students ranging in age from 22 to 40 years-old among EFL learners in Khuzestan Islamic Azad University were randomly distributed across a control and an experimental group. Then they were divided randomly into two groups, one group was considered as the experimental group with 25 participants which received feedback via computer and another group as the control group with 30 students which received feedback face-to-face. The control group was exposed to the traditional in-class writing instruction that depended on the paper-based procedures only, whereas the experimental group was exposed to the computer-based writing instruction. In the pre-test and

post-test, the participants were required to write about four topics chosen for them by the researcher. Their essays were scored according to their writing accuracy.

#### Instrumentation

In the present survey two tests were used: (1) a pre-test to determine the learners' level of writing knowledge at the beginning of research period, (2) a post-test to determine the effect of treatment of post-task CALL approach on writing accuracy of EFL learners.

The instruments for this study are the writing topics and post-tasks which were chosen for students by the teacher. These topics and tasks were sent to the experimental group via email. Four writing topics were selected for the pre-test and four for the post-test besides four tasks for treatment sessions. Needless to say, the types of the topics and the time allocated for each one were the same for two groups. The time allocated for the pre-test and post-test was forty minutes, ten minutes for each writing topic. In order to assess the writings of the pre-test and post-test, the researcher and a rater were employed. The correction focus was the accuracy of the written products based on the checklist. The components of the writing program and the evaluation criteria were the following categories:

- A. Layout/Organization: (between 4 and 12 points)
- B. Development/Support: (between 3 and 9 points)
- C. Style: (between 2 and 6 points)
- D. Grammar/Mechanics: (between 3 and 9 points)

Scores for both the pre and post-tests were collected through estimating of the rates in the checklist. A correct answer was rated 1 for poor, 2 for good, and 3 for excellent. During the treatment in each session, a writing topic was presented to the students and they were required to write a one-paragraph essay about it in ten minutes, then their essays were corrected by the researcher. Later, the texts produced by the participants were scored by another rater and the inter-rater reliability was computed through the correlation coefficient between the set of scores the two raters marked for the writings. The recordings were evaluated through inter-rater correlation to arrive at the reliability value. The tests reliability coefficients are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Inter-rater Reliability

Tests	N	Reliability Indexes
Pre-test (control group)	30	.903
Pre-test (experimental group)	25	.961
Post-test (control group)	30	.825
Post-test (experimental group)	25	.909

#### Materials

In the present study, the course book *College Writing* (Zemach & Rumisek, 2003) was used. The aim of the book was to develop the students' ability to write a cohesive paragraph that has a topic sentence and supporting details with minimal grammatical, spelling, punctuation, and indentation errors. Every time, we checked students' work, in addition to scoring, we wrote some points of this book in their essays and asked them to follow those writing rules in their next compositions. The first and the last composition written by the participants regarded as pre-test and post-test. That is, the learners of both control and experimental group first were required to write one-paragraph essays during the first session considered as a pre-test. The last essay, the topic of which again assigned by the instructors, was treated as a post-test.

#### Procedure

Before instruction, the experimental and control groups were pre-tested face to face in the classroom. They took the same pre-test that consisted of four essays. We asked them to write one-paragraph essays about topics given to them. The minimum and maximum essay lengths were specified (6 to 8 lines, about 100 words). We asked the control group to write their names, but we asked the experimental group to write their e-mails instead of their names. The first and the last composition written by the participants regarded as pre-test and post-test. The test consisted of four essays.

The procedure for the control group was followed a pre-test which is writing four one-paragraph essays, scoring their essays and marking their errors and turning them back to the students considered as feedback, and post-test administration which was writing essays with the same topics as written in pre-test. They were not provided with the correct forms, but a general content comment based on course book used was presented to them in the point of their errors at the end of their essays, and they were asked to look at content comments at home. So, the control group did not receive any special instruction. They just wrote four one-paragraph essays both for pre-test and post-test based on the topics given to them. The procedure for the experimental group was as follows. First they were given a pre-test in the classroom. After the pre-test, there was no face to face contact between instructor and learners in the experimental group. They were just connected via email. The experimental group wrote four one-paragraph essays during instruction. They received feedback via email. In addition, they did post-task activities after each writing task. Tasks were in the form of question and answer. Four different types of tasks were used which were description, explanation, cause and effect, and opinion paragraph tasks. The duration of treatment in the experimental group was 10 sessions. So, each session was allocated to one topic or task and the first and the last session for pre-test and post-test. In a separate session at the end of the course, the same post-test was administered for experimental group to measure the effect of post-task instruction via CALL in their writing accuracy. The post-test for the experimental group consisted of four essays that the students practiced in the online course. So, the essay topic was familiar and the students had enough background knowledge.

Grammar feedback was provided on the presence and location of errors, but no correct forms were provided to encourage self-editing. We marked their errors by using different colors. Red color used for omission, blue color for addition, and green color for correction. Other errors represented to them in the form of some points based on course book used as material. We wrote these points at the end of their essays. For assessment, students in both groups were tested every session. Essays were always graded, returned to the students with comments on strengths and weaknesses. The components of the writing program and the evaluation criteria were the following issues:

The pre-test and post-test essays of both groups were holistically graded based on a general impression of layout/organization, development/support, style, and grammar/mechanics. All essays were read once and a quality rating of excellent, good, poor was given to each paper. Essays were then read by the second rater and each was assigned a grade. The pre-test and post-test essays were double-scored by a colleague of ours who holds a master degree in English. He followed the same scoring checklist. Finally, inter-rater reliability index was calculated to be sure about the reliability of scoring. Data were analyzed through Independent Samples *t*-test to show the difference between the groups' means.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Data Analysis

The data collected were analyzed through Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17. In order to determine whether using post-task CALL approach has any impact on Iranian advanced EFL learners' writing accuracy, once the scores of the pre-test and post-test were obtained, the mean and standard deviation of the scores of 55 participants were calculated. In this study, the data were analyzed by *t*-test to see if there was any significant difference between the control and experimental groups regarding their writing accuracy.

### Results of Descriptive Statistics of the Groups

As shown in Table 2, the mean score for the control group was (16.4667) in pre-test and (17.6333) in post-test. Their scores ranged from 13 to 25 out of 36. The mean score for experimental group was (17.8000) in pre-test and (22.9200) in post-test. Their scores ranged from 15 to 29 out of 36. There were close means between the two tests in the control group, so you can see the difference between the two means is not significant. But in the experimental group, the mean of post-test was about 5 points greater than pre-test. So there were considerable individual differences in writing accuracy before and after the post-task CALL approach used in the experimental group.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Groups

Groups	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control (pre-test)	30	13.00	23.00	16.4667	2.48
Control (post-test)	30	13.00	25.00	17.6333	2.98
Experimental (Pre-test)	25	15.00	28.00	17.8000	3.20
Experimental (Post-test)	25	18.00	29.00	22.9200	3.10

The results indicated partially equal performance on the two tests among control group but different performance on the two tests among experimental group, as they are presented in Table 2. Since descriptive statistics could not offer the researcher valid information to reject or sustain the null hypothesis, an Independent Samples *t*-test was run to see whether the observed difference between the groups was significant or not.

### Results of Groups' Pre-tests

This section includes mean statistics followed by *t*-test analysis to compare the pre-test of two groups of control and experimental. At the beginning of the study both control and experimental groups were given the pre-test of writing. Group statistics in the pre-test is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Groups' Mean Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control (pre-test)	1.00	30	16.46	2.487	.454
Experimental (Pre-test)	2.00	25	17.80	3.201	.640

As can be seen in Table 3, the number of the students in the control group is 30, and in the experimental group 25. The standard deviation in the control group is (2.487) while in the experimental group is (3.201). The standard error of means in the control group is (.454) while in the experimental group is (.640). Finally, the means of the control group is (16.46) while the mean of the experimental group is (17.80). Thus, there were close means between two groups in the pre-test. The difference between the two means is not significant. Table 4.3 shows the results of the independent *t*-test comparing the control and experimental groups at the outset of the research. The level of significance was set at .05 ( $p < .05$  was significant). The results are as follows:

Table 4: Independent Samples *t*-test (Pre-test)

Groups	Variables	N	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control (pre-test) vs. Experimental (Pre-test)	1.00	30	-1.73	53	.088
	2.00	25			

As Table 4 shows the degree of freedom, the level of significance and the *t*-value of these tests are 53, .05 and -1.73 respectively. More importantly, the *t*-value did not exceed the *t*-critical. In other words, the observed *t* (-1.73) is less than the critical *t* (2.066). Consequently, the *p* is .088 which is more than the .05 level of significance. Therefore, it came to be known that the two groups were homogeneous. In other words, *t*-test analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between the scores of the writing skill of the two groups at the outset of the research.

**Results of Groups' Post-tests**

This section includes mean statistics followed by *t*-test analysis to compare the post-test of two groups of control and experimental. The following statistical procedure was carried out at the end of the course in order to figure out and compare the means, the standard deviation, and the standard error of means of the two groups. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Groups' Mean Statistics (Post-test)

Groups	Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control (post-test)	1.00	30	17.63	2.98	.545
Experimental (Post-test)	2.00	25	22.92	3.10	.621

As can be seen, the number of the students in the control group is 30 and in the experimental group 25. The standard deviation and standard error of means in the control and experimental group were respectively 2.98, 3.10; .545, .621. Unlike the pre-test, there was a significant difference between the means of the two groups in post-test. In other words, in the control group the mean was (17.63) whereas in the experimental group the mean was (22.92). So you can see the difference between the two means is significant. Table 6 shows the result of the independent *t*-test comparing the post-test of the two groups, which was carried out at the end of the research. Again the level of significance was set at .05.

Table 6: Independent Samples *t*-test (Post-test)

Groups	Variables	N	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control (post-test) vs.	1.00	30	-6.415	53	.000
Experimental (post -test)	2.00	25			

As Table 6 shows the degree of freedom, the level of significance and the *t*-value of these tests are 53, .05, and -6.415 respectively. As can be seen, unlike the *t*-value of the pre-tests in which the *t*-observed did not exceed the *t*-critical, in the post-test the *t*-value exceeded the *t*-critical. In other words, the observed *t* (-6.415) is more than the critical *t* (2.066). Accordingly, the *p* is .000 which is less than the .05 level of significance. Therefore, *t*-test analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the scores of the writing skill of the two groups at the end of the research.

**Results of Comparison of Writing Components**

Four different types of writing components used in this study: layout/organization, development/support, style, and grammar/mechanics. Figure 1 shows the results of comparison of these categories in the control and experimental group.

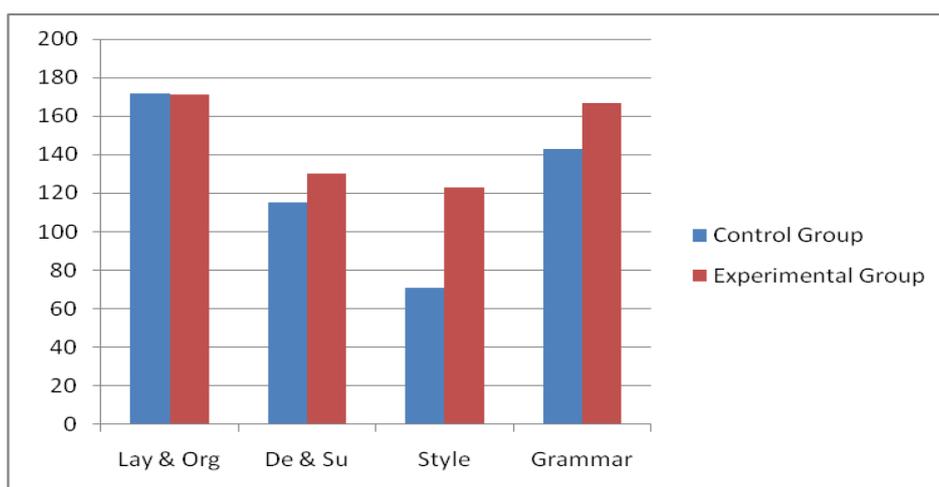


Figure 1: Writing Accuracy Components

Note: Lay & Org= Lay out & Organization; De & Su= Development & Support

As can be seen in Figure 1, the experimental group had a better performance than the control group in all categories except in the first one which is layout and organization. Although in this category they almost had the same performance and their differences were not significant. So it can be concluded that the experimental group outperformed the control group in writing accuracy components.

### *Discussion*

To answer research questions, on which the present study has concentrated, the tests results of each group will be statistically and separately discussed in the following sections.

RQ1) Do post-task CALL techniques affect EFL learners' writing accuracy?

In general, the writing of CALL group improved. It indicated that the above mentioned strategy is effective in improving EFL writing of MA students at the advanced level of English. After analyzing our data, we observed significance difference between CALL groups' performance in two tests. This result can be more approved by this evidence that there was significance difference between the means of pre-test and post-test among CALL group. The mean of the post-test was higher than pre-test. The results showed that using post-task CALL techniques have more significant effect on students' writing accuracy. One reason for the better performance of experimental group in using post-task CALL techniques might be due to the fact that it is motivating for teachers and learners.

A task-based approach provides learners with interesting challenges and is clearly related to their language needs. Post-task phase provides a chance for students to repeat performance of the task. Post-task activities have also proved interesting. By using it students' writing accuracy will improve in a number of ways specially by focusing their attention to the main task again. Skehan and Foster (1997a) support the research results that accuracy, selectively, would be advantaged in a post-task condition. In their studies, they predicted that a post-task effect upon writing accuracy was confirmed.

Computers are helpful to motivate students. Garcia and Arias (2000) support our idea that using CALL in a classroom has the following advantages: Increased motivation of the students, individualization of learning process, immediate feedback, non-linear access to the information, and the introduction of new exercise types in the classroom. One of the main advantages of CALL programs is that they create the opportunity for autonomous learning. Students are able to learn when and how they want, as well as control the speed at which they are learning (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2003). Findings of this study also supported the ideas of Lasagabaster and Sierra (2003). CALL programs could offer second language learners more independence from classrooms. Students can study more independently. Language learners do not need to go to a class at a fixed time and in a fixed classroom. They can even study at home. Computer technology can provide a lot of funny activities and reduce the learning stresses and anxieties. Thus, students do not get bored easily and they may become more active. Those abilities will promote second language learners' learning motivation (Skehan & Foster, 1999). Another reason for the better performance of the experimental group in using post-task CALL techniques might be due to the fact that computer provides immediate feedback in some of students' writing mistakes. Learners receive maximum benefit from feedback only when it is supplied immediately. Classroom feedback is often delayed and at times denied. But computer has the advantage to provide immediate feedback in certain types of students' errors. A computer can thus analyze the specific mistakes the student has made. This leads to increasing students' interest and receptivity and understanding.

A word-processor in the computer can be very effective in teaching writing activities. Because word-processing program allows a wide range of formatting possibilities and make editing and revising much easier, they are of obvious use in teaching writing. Word-processors give writers the freedom to experiment with a text without making a mess. It means that one can make either major or minor changes in the text without retyping or rewriting the entire text (Brookes & Grundy, 2000). As one writes a word-processor will automatically format text; may enable one to check spelling, syntax, and grammar; may provide advice on the choice of words and on the use of words.

RQ2) Do post-task CALL techniques make a difference among CALL and Non-CALL groups learning writing accuracy?

The results of t-tests indicated a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups on writing achievement post-tests. The results of the present study revealed that though two groups had progress in writing, the students in the CALL group yielded a better performance. Results showed that there was not any significance difference among students' performance in pre-test, but in contrast there was a significant difference among the performance of the two groups in post-test. The results showed that CALL group who received feedback via computer and did some activities considered as post-task got better marks and their performance was better than Non-CALL group who did not receive such an approach. This result might be due to the fact that in Non-CALL group students might not have any motivation, while in CALL group they are more motivated as they have more time to think without any pressure or stress and they also can profit from some CALL programs such as Grammar Checker and Spelling Checker.

Computers can help writers in editing and setting layout and checking word such as spell checking and thesaurus. They can provide specialist tools such as grammar and reliability checkers (Seely, 1998). Typing a text word by word may help students to remember words or syntactic structures, spelling may improve and, it is probably more fun than copying a text using pen and paper (Sergeant, 2001). Coley (1997) supports our idea that writing with the application of technology, especially word processor, makes editing easier and faster than writing with pen-paper and it also improves the quality of writing.

The results of this study do not agree with Chen (2005). He observed the impact of traditional class instruction with or without computer aid on the acquisition of parts of speech by the two groups of Taiwanese EFL learners. After a 16-hour instruction, both groups were asked to produce a written narrative. Overall, there was no statistical difference between the control and the experimental groups (Foster & Skehan, 1996). Also, the findings of this study are against with those of Braine (1997) indicating that the traditional setting promotes more improvement in writing than using the networked computers. So, both Braine (1997) and Chen (2005) disagreed with our research results.

Many studies have attempted to assess the impact of computer on learning. Concerning writing, while some studies find a significant advantage of these techniques, others find no significant difference between CALL and other teaching methods. In spite of some disagreement mentioned above, all of the following studies support our research results.

The results of this study are in line with Gorjian (2009) who found that the experimental group taught via computer had a better performance than the control group taught in the traditional method. He investigated the role of computer in instructing writing skills in L2 acquisition. After analyzing the result he found out that the experimental group which received teacher feedback via e-mailing outperformed control group which was given instruction through pen and paper procedures.

This study indicates that the use of the computer may support the process of teaching and learning the writing skill. Moreover, it may enhance the students' writing level. The results of the study confirmed that writing accuracy could be improved through using post-task

CALL approach. It indicates that instruction of applying post-task CALL approach for advanced EFL learners was pedagogically effective as CALL group in this study performed almost better than the Non-CALL group on the post-test, regarding writing accuracy.

## CONCLUSION

Writing is an aspect that needs special attention and instruction. In order to provide effective instruction, it is necessary for teachers of EFL to carefully examine the factors, conditions, and components that underlie writing effectiveness. One of these factors is using specific strategies and using different kinds of tasks to increase students' motivation. By using computer and tasks students' interest and motivation will increase. It was pointed out that in spite of some limitations on using computers and tasks such as financial barriers which are the main outstanding problems, CALL-based writing lead to improvements, even in Iranian classrooms which were mostly rely on paper-based writing. Also, post-task provides a chance for students to repeat performance of the task. By using it students' writing accuracy will improve in a number of ways by focusing their attention to the main task again.

A task-based approach is motivating for teachers and learners. It provides learners with interesting challenges and is clearly related to their language needs. It is obvious to the learners that their classroom work will help them to operate effectively in English. The primary unit for both designing a language program and individual lessons should be a task because it creates opportunities for communication and noticing form/meaning/function relationships, which are the conditions essential for the development of communicative competence in an L2 (Willis & Willis, 2007).

It became clear that foreign language learners are different in language learning, their learning style, motivation, attitude, etc. Teachers should provide opportunities for students to raise their level of motivation and effort to do their best in writing skill. To help instructors in this field, this study used post-task CALL as an approach which will motivate learners. We observed that teacher feedback had an effect on students' ability in writing, but the effect of this feedback via CALL and by using post-tasks was most influential as CALL group outperformed and improved more than Non-CALL group in writing skill.

It is worth mentioning that applying this approach is fruitful for both teachers and learners. With this program students' learning history is recorded and their development is easily checked. Also, even less proficient students can find something interesting in it. Computer could help shy students to participate through sending messages via email to teachers. The computer could be a useful tool in EFL in teaching the writing skill. This also saves instructors' time and energy, because the only thing which remains for the instructors to do is to guide individuals from time to time and provide feedback for them without getting bored. Gruba (2004) refers to the teacher as a "mediator" between the computer and students throughout the learning process, serving the role of "keeping things running smoothly" (p. 637). One of the main reasons why EFL teachers use CALL is that computers can do some of the work of the teacher and provide great assistance to the learner even without the presence of the teacher (Pennington, 1989).

The results of this study can lead the future researchers to investigate other related areas. In this study only one skill investigated (writing accuracy) and other language skills (reading, speaking, and listening) did not consider, so we can compare two different skills and the effect of post-task CALL on them. By considering the subjects that take part in this study, we can conclude that most of them were girls and participants' gender was not the focus of the researchers, but we can compare the effect of post-task CALL approach between two different sexes, boys, and girls. Research on various proficiency levels is also strongly encouraged.

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#### ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to identify the lexical and syntactic interferences which students make in translating newspaper headlines. Thirty male and female MA students who were studying teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) at the Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch in Iran took part in the present research. They were given a test which included thirty Persian and thirty English headlines and were asked to translate them into Persian language. They were not allowed to use any dictionaries because their vocabulary knowledge was one of the exam criteria. All the students' translations were analyzed in order to investigate possible cross linguistic problems in translating headlines. Keshavarz' (1993) checklist was used to analyze data. Results showed that the participants faced grammatical and lexical interferences coming from their first language (L1). Then the interferences of L1 were classified in terms of morphological and syntactic taxonomy to give some implications for translation trainers and the students of translation in rendering English headlines into Persian language.

**KEYWORDS:** Interferences, error analysis, headline, translation, syntax, morphology

#### INTRODUCTION

Many students of English find that newspaper headlines are especially difficult to understand. Obviously, it is not just a matter of vocabulary; even the style of writing is different from any other text they have met in their studies. The language of headlines is special and has its own characteristics on the lexical, syntactic, and rhetorical levels for its brevity, attractiveness, and clarity (Reah, 1998). These language features pose a great challenge to foreign learners of English when they begin to read English newspapers. This is hardly surprising for, as Waterhouse (as cited in Sanderson, 1999, p. 29) points out, "this genre is not one that people actually use in normal, everyday speech."

Conventionally, the headline serves several purposes: summarizing the whole story, attracting the reader in reading the story and beautifying the newspaper page. The headline is the single most important element of every print advertisement. It is more than a title or label for the message. It is the salesperson's opening line, the foot in the door and the first and most lasting impression. A headline wields the power to attract, repel or slip by readers unnoticed (Khodabandeh, 2004, p.45). Taking these notions in mind, this study attempts to identify the interferences which students make in translating newspaper headlines at syntactic and lexical level.

#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Faghih's (1997) study is noticeable in terms of language transfer interferences. Focusing on Iranian students' difficulty in learning the English definite article 'the', Contrastive Analysis (CA) shows that in Persian, there is no single word corresponding exactly to the English definite article. The other study investigating interferences in writing is that of Olsen (1999), who used error analysis as a research tool to detect the number and nature of language problems encountered by Norwegian students in writing English.

In the field of syntax, recent studies are those of Noor (1996) and Kim (1998). While Kim presents a rationale for analyzing interferences and syntactic maturity to better understand strategies employed by students when writing in a second language, Noor's study is a review of the most common syntactic interferences made by native speakers of Arabic learning English as a second language. Reima's (2000) study is very much related to the present research as it tries to understand learners' transfer competence, the difficulties they face in first or second language (L1/L2) translation. Reima's study focuses on interferences in the system of grammatical agreement. The results of her study show that 62% of the interferences of grammatical agreement are interlingual and 38% intralingual.

Khodabandeh (2004) did a research on students' interferences in headlines. The participants' chief difficulties in translating English headlines into Persian sentences were grammatical followed by discursal and lexical types. As a whole, the finding from the participants' translations analysis is in line with the idea that native language interference is surely the most immediately noticeable source of error (Brown, 1994) from the translation of native language to the target one. Montazeri (2007, p.62) mention her goal, method of data collection and then results showed differences between English, Persian, and Persian-English advertisements were in the frequency of some rhetorical figures. These differences revealed that each language prefers specific devices; in other words, some rhetorical figures had a higher frequency in one corpus but not in the other. This preference might be due to various causes such as cultural/ personal differences/ so the averter should be aware of these differences on order to avoid possible problems.

#### Error Analysis

Error Analysis, tries to account for learner performance in terms of the cognitive processes learners make use of in reorganizing the input they receive from the target language. A primary focus of error analysis is on the evidence that learners' interferences provide to an understanding of the underlying processes of second-language acquisition. It is now widely believed that language learning, like acquiring virtually any other human learning involves the making of interferences. The learner profits from his interferences by using them to obtain feedback from the environment and in turn use that feedback to test and modify his hypotheses about the target language. Error Analysis thus provides a check on the predictions of bilingual comparisons, and inasmuch as it does this, it is an important additional source of information for the selection of items to be incorporated into the syllabus.

**Sources of Interferences**

Corder (in Allen & Corder, 1974, p. 130) identified three sources of interferences: Language Transfer, Overgeneralization or analogy, and Methods or Materials used in the Teaching (teaching-induced error). Interlingual interferences: result from the transfer of phonological, morphological, grammatical, lexico-semantic, and stylistic elements of the learner’s mother tongue to the learning of the target language.

Intralingual and developmental interferences: are caused by the mutual interference of items in the target language, i.e. the influence of one target language item upon another. For instance, a learner may produce \***He is comes**, based on a blend of the English structures: **He is coming**, and **He comes**. Such interferences reflect the learner’s competence at a particular stage of second language development and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language learning, i.e. they result from the learner’s attempt to build up concepts and hypotheses about the target language from his limited experience with it.

Transfer of Training: Transfer of training or teacher-induced interferences are those which result from pedagogical procedures contained in a text or employed by the teacher. In other words, these interferences come about as a result of course design or teaching techniques.

**Significance of Second Language Learners’ Interferences**

Many scholars in the field of error analysis have stressed the significance of second language learners’ interferences. Richards (1971), for example, remarks that interferences are significant and of interest to:

- 1) Linguists, because as Chomsky suggests the study of human language is the most fruitful way of discovering what constitutes human intelligence.
- 2) Psycholinguists, because by looking at children’s speech and comparing it with adult speech, they have been able to examine the nature of the mental processes that seem to be involved in language.
- 3) Teachers, because by analyzing learner’s interferences, they would be able to discover their difficulties and devise a method for comparing them.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

Thirty male and female MA students, who were studying English as a foreign language (TEFL) at the Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch in Iran, took part in the present research. The reason for selecting MA students is the assumption that they have already acquired general knowledge about media language. Also they were chosen on the basis of availability. Their age was ranging from 25 to 35.

**Materials**

To carry out the comparison between the headlines, a sample of thirty English and thirty Persian headlines were randomly selected from among a larger corpus from two leading newspapers- for the sake of practicality-one English (NY daily news) and one Persian newspaper (Hamshahri).The headlines were about different topics such as politic, sport, education, health, crime, and music. They were hard copies and by referring to their front page we came to know that they enjoy a great circulation. The rationale for the selection of these materials was the availability and easy access to them. In order to avoid the variable of time affecting data collection, those English and Persian headlines that issued during a two-week period from November 30 to December 12, 2009 were selected.

**Procedure**

For the analysis of the interferences extracted from the translated Persian headlines, the linguistic taxonomy of interferences provided by Keshavarz (1993) was taken into consideration and for the analysis of students’ interferences drawn from the translated English and Persian headlines, the lexical and syntactic features of headlines were applied (Reah,1998, Mardh,1980, Khodabande, 2004).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Analysis of the Translated Persian Headlines**

Different kinds of syntactic and morphological interferences extracted from the participants’ translations of the Persian headlines into the English are presented in Table1.

*Table 1: Observed Frequency of the Interferences (Frequency and Percentage of Wrong and Correct Answers)*

Items	Variables	Freq. WA	Freq. CA	% WA	% CA
1	Omission of preposition	79	195	7.48	5.91
2	Redundant use of preposition	28	122	2.65	3.7
3	Wrong use of preposition	22	105	2.08	3.18
4	Redundant use of articles	103	212	9.76	6.42
5	Lack of concord within a verb group	20	98	1.89	2.97
6	Wrong use of the plural morpheme	10	20	0.94	0.60
7	Wrong use of quantifiers and intensifiers	12	48	1.13	1.45
8	Wrong use of part of speech	40	138	3.79	4.19
9	Use of typical Persian constructions in English	37	156	3.58	4.73
10	Omission of verbs	16	56	1.52	1.69

11 Redundant use of noun possessive's	58	187	5.49	5.70
12 Cross-Association	22	48	2.08	1.45
13 Language switch	8	52	0.75	1.60
14 Wrong translation of vocabulary	360	870	34.12	26.38
15 Skipping vocabulary	240	990	22.74	30.02
Total	1055	3297	100	100

Different types of syntactic and morphological interferences are given in the following section along with examples for each error type. It should be noted that the majority of the sentences may include types of interferences other than those in question.

### Types of Interferences

#### A) Prepositions

- a) Omission of preposition
  - \*importing illegal fuel  $\theta$  1388
  - \*Youtos-bayren, 90 minutes  $\theta$  stay
- b) Redundant use of preposition
  - \*Ordughan rejected *to* Obama
  - \*Coin reached *to* 2800000 Riallz
- c) Wrong use of preposition
  - \*Iranian vollybalists lose *to* Japanese *by* dignity
  - \*Uventus-Bayern; 90' *to* survival

#### B) Redundant use of articles

- \*The America: we stay in Afghanistan
- \* Yuventus-Bayern: A/ 90 minutes for survival

#### C) Interferences due to lack of concord

- \*disabled people is citizens not seen
- \* The historical places of Isfahan needs credit.

#### D) Wrong use of the plural morpheme

- \*Iranians volleyball team lost to Japan
- \*Iranians people experience backache, sore knee sooner

#### E) Wrong use of quantifiers and intensifiers

- \*Hen and egg the largest high in costs
- \*Old people should not exercise more than lot

#### F) Wrong use of part of speech

- \*Ahmadinezhad's four travel to Karakes
- \*Isfahan's history places want credit

#### G) Use of typical Persian constructions in English

- \*Rejection of Ordughan to Obama
- \*USA: Our decision on remaining in Afghanistan

#### H) Omission of verbs

- \* The nuclear issue,  $\theta$  selling of stocks
- \* The capital of Hakhamaneshiyan  $\theta$ , forget the army

#### I) Redundant use of noun possessive's

- \*Countries' schools trembles
- \*Isfahan's historical places want credit

#### J) Lexico-semantic interferences

The participants' translations were analyzed based on the interferences of the lexico-semantic subcategories.

#### K) Cross-association interferences

It includes the cases of error in which the choice of the lexical item is an equivalent for the Persian word.

- \*Iranians experience backache and *knee pain* early
- \* Chicken and egg received *biggest rises in price*

#### L) Language switch interferences

- \* *Irania* experience backache and sore knee soon
- \*Iranian *vollyballers* defeated by Japanese

#### M) Wrong translation of vocabulary

- \**Upper* under snow
- \**Authority* dialogue in Obama's foreign policy

#### N) Skipping vocabulary

- \*Fatemeh Bodaghi became Ahmadinejad's  $\theta$
- \*  $\theta$  under snow

In the third phase of the study, the chi-square test was utilized in order to find whether substantial differences existed between the ratio of the wrong English and Persian translations. Accordingly, the observed chi-square was higher than the critical value at the significance level of  $p < 0.05$ , indicating significant differences between the wrong English and Persian translations.

Table 2: Chi-square of Wrong Translation of Persian and English headlines

	X <sup>2</sup>	df	sig
Pearson Chi-square	6.671	1	.010
p<.05			Critical value=3.84

Chi-square test determined the adequate p-value to Pearson Chi-square equals .01. As a result, the test is meaningful at .05 level and the ratio of wrong answer in the two languages is not the same. So, it can be claimed that the ratio of wrong answers in Persian translated headlines is more than the wrong answers in English translated headlines.

#### Discussion

Analyzing the participants' translations, lead to following results:

1. Generally, participants committed more errors in the translation of the English headline comparing to Persian ones.
2. The most errors which participants committed in English translation headline were related to grammatical and lexical interferences respectively. The research result shows that their grammatical interferences resulted from the translation of tense forms, i.e. wrong translation of the tense forms was the major problem which participants committed in their translations.
3. The analysis of the translated Persian headlines shows that the participants' chief difficulties were due to inadequate knowledge of the English vocabulary. The study also reveals that the participants translated the Persian headline into simple sentences by using the articles, noun possessive's and preposition, instead of omitting them.

The analysis of students' interferences either coming from their first language (i.e., L1 interferences) or second language (i.e., L2 interferences) known as intra and inter-lingual interferences can affect the learners' translation tasks. The results of this study show that the main problem is related to the translation from Farsi to English rather than English to Farsi. This may be due to two issues. First, Iranian learners are competent in Farsi rather than English since they have problems in full acquisition of English grammar and lexicon. Second, they have do not have enough exposure and exercises on translating from Farsi to English because the bulk of knowledge in their domain is coming from English sources rather than Farsi data. Thus they may master the translation of English to Farsi more easily than Farsi to English. In this case, teachers should pay more attention to translation activities from Farsi to English media headlines.

#### CONCLUSION

Students' interferences have always been of interest and significance to teachers and syllabus designers. Teachers can benefit from the findings of error analysis in different ways. Interferences provide feedback and they tell the teacher something about the effectiveness of his teaching materials and his teaching techniques and show him what parts of the syllabus he has been following have been inadequately learned or taught and need further attention. They enable him to decide whether he can move on to the next item in the syllabus or whether he must devote more time to the item he has been working on. An error-based analysis can give reliable results upon which remedial materials can be constructed. In other words, analysis of second-language learners' interferences can help identify learners' linguistic difficulties and needs at a particular stage of language learning. This can serve as a basis for remedial courses and programs in translation training and writing courses in English language.

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#### ABSTRACT

This study investigated the role of pedagogical films in developing Iranian pre-intermediate students' speaking skill among English as foreign language (EFL) learners. It also dealt with the role of pedagogical films on learners' motivation to participate in speaking activities interactively. Speaking skill is one of the challenges in Iranian classroom since teachers in EFL classes focused mostly on written cues rather than spoken tasks. Thus this research hypothesized that using interesting and short films may affect their speaking skill and also motivation. This issue has been somehow rarely explored in Iranian universities. The reason for this may have been the poor performance of pre-intermediate students in speaking EFL. To achieve this purpose, a proficiency test was administered to 120 university students. Then 54 pre-intermediate language learners who were homogeneous in terms of their rank scores were selected and randomly divided in two equal groups in size. i.e., as experimental and control groups. To assess their speaking proficiency at the beginning of the treatment period, both groups participated in a pre-test interview and scored based on a speaking checklist (Hughes, 2003) and filled in a motivation questionnaire (Dornyei, 2003; Dornyei, Csize & Nemeth, 2006; among others). Experimental group watched the pedagogical films and the participants in control group listened to the audio CDs of those films. After 10 sessions of treatment, both groups were interviewed on the similar topics covered in the pre-test and filled in the same questionnaire. The effect of pedagogical films on the groups' speaking achievement was evaluated through Independent Samples *t*-test analysis. Moreover, the learners' motivation on the post- questionnaire was assessed through Mann-Whitney U test. Results showed that experimental group outperformed control group since pedagogical films had a positive effect on developing speaking skill among pre-intermediate EFL learners ( $p < 0.05$ ) in the experimental group. EFL teachers may use pedagogical films to raise the learners' motivation which reciprocally affects their participation in classroom speaking activities.

**KEYWORDS:** Pedagogical films, EFL Learners, speaking skill, motivation

#### INTRODUCTION

Speaking is an important skill in learning English as a foreign language (EFL). Since learners need it for communication (Nunan, 2001). According to Nakagawa (2011), there are different opinions about what successful speaking is. Bailey and Savage (1994, pp. 6-7) believed that "Speaking in a second/foreign language has often viewed as the most demanding of the four skills." Perhaps the most difficult aspect of spoken English is that it is almost always performed via interaction with at least one other speaker. This means that a variety of demands are in place simultaneously: monitoring and understanding the other speakers, thinking about one's own role, producing that contribution, monitoring its effects, and so on. This is one reason why many of second/foreign speakers are shocked and disappointed when they use second/foreign language for the first time in real interaction. In other words, they are not prepared for spontaneous communication and cannot cope with all of its simultaneous demands (Celce-Murcia, 2001, p.103). Most foreign language learners in Iran face difficulty in speaking in English (Dolati & Mikaili, 2011).

English is a foreign language in Iran. Iranian students, after studying English even at advanced levels face problems to express themselves. One reason may be that English is taught formally as a foreign language and only grammar and translation have been focused upon at schools. Therefore, many people have been complaining that Iranian students cannot speak English in spite of studying English for six years or more (Ohato, 2005). Since, "speaking in a second or foreign language has been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills" (Bailey & Savage 1994, P. 7). It is important for most of the instructors to equip themselves with up-to-date techniques and methods of teaching this skill. Most teachers are constantly looking for new ways to encourage students to practice their oral English and speak spontaneously (Essberger, 1998). When students attend English classes they seek for something more interesting, they want fun, a way for showing themselves and talk. They may be motivated through watching films to fill this gap. One of these ways is using pedagogical films related to the curriculum.

Nowadays, using pedagogical films, as audio-visual (A/V) aids, has taken into consideration in teaching EFL. This research seeks to do a comparative study to see the effects of pedagogical films on speaking. This goal can be achieved through the usage of pedagogical films in classrooms. Study in this area is essential for both teachers and students because it will indicate the values of films in EFL classrooms (Writers, 2012). The results of this study will give teachers good insights about using pedagogical films in classrooms. The results will be further significant for language learners to use the strategy. Furthermore, students' feelings towards this strategy will be discovered.

#### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Ellis (1994) states that a strategy contains a mental or behavioral activity associated with some specific stage in the overall process of language acquisition or language use. Also, leaning strategies are particular actions that performed by the learner to make learning faster, easier, more effective, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations (Oxford, 1990). On the whole, learning strategies consist of learning instruments for self-regulated learning (Oxford, 2002; Dornyei, 2005). Cohen (1990) believes that the learner is aware of the strategies, even if his full attention is not being given to them. Moreover, in second language learning, strategies are conscious moves made by second-language speakers intended to be useful in either learning or using the second language. According to Cohen, the learning strategies are different from one task to another, from one instance to another instance within the same task or even by different learners dealing with the same task. Effectiveness of strategy depends on the characteristics of the given learner, the given language structures, the given context, or the interaction of these (Cohen, 1998).

### ***Language Learning with Multimedia***

Educational researchers always attempt to find the ways to facilitate learning for the students. Recently they have attended to employ the multimedia materials as a source of activating the oral skill. Video technology plays a role as a major motivator for language development and help students in acquiring language skills. Accessing to friendly learning environment and espousing to a large amount of comprehensible speech are the other two major advantages of technology especially for EFL learners (Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003 p. 84). Dikilitas and Duvençi (2009) state using computers in classrooms helps teachers to add multisensory elements like picture, text, sound, video, and animation. Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003) described video or picture as the three dimensional text. Stempleski (1990) believes that videos should be linguistically sound, ordered and clean rather than humorous skits where the focus is on the story instead of language so full length movies are out of question and they are not structurally driven, they are certainly not clean and there is no apparent linguistic order to the dialogue.

### ***Using Films in the Classroom***

Bahrani and Soltani (2011) studied the effects of listening to different TV programs on improving different components of speaking proficiency. The participants were 20 females and males language learners of English. A sample of speaking from International English Language Testing System (IELTS) test was used as a pre-test. During the study, the researcher provided the participants with different TV programs to work on in the classroom. Moreover, during the experiment and for each interval between every two sessions, the participants were asked to watch and listen to at least four hours TV programs outside the classroom and write down the summary of whatever was heard which was viewed and discussed later inside the classroom. After 3 months of exposure (four hours a week), all the participants took the same sample of speaking proficiency test from IELTS as a post-test to check if there was any change in different components of speaking proficiency. In order to score the interviews and have a better quantitative data for the components of speaking proficiency checklist was used. The checklist included six scales including fluency, comprehension, communication, vocabulary, accuracy, and accent. Each scale incorporates five levels (5 points). According to the results of the post-test compared with the pre-test, the participants improved the vocabulary and communication components more than the other components during the period of the study. Fluency was the other component which improved to some extent. However, accuracy, comprehension, and accent are the three components of speaking proficiency which remained steady with no improvement. On the contrary, accuracy improves less than the other components. Additionally, participants of the study showed great interest in watching different programs from TV during the study. The participants attended the class with low anxiety which led to the high motivation. Accordingly, it was showed that the use of various TV programs in general could facilitate vocabulary acquisition to a significant extent.

According to Mekheimer's (2011) research, it indicated that exposure to supplementary video material can be beneficial to whole language development. This study was set to measure improvement gains in aural/oral, reading, and writing skills using data from an experiment that was conducted over a period of one academic year. Following an intensive, concentrated exposure to authentic video material accompanying a language skills development remedial program and extensive videos of some selected dramatized famous literary works, participants in an experimental group (n=33) demonstrated statistically significant gains scores over their peers in the control group (n=31) across all skills. The research discovered that authentic video, inducing satisfactory viewing comprehension as well as presented in an integrated language skills instruction, is a valuable approach to whole language teaching.

## **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This thesis specifically attempts to reflect on the following research questions: (1) To what extent do pedagogical films affect Iranian EFL learners' development of speaking skill at the pre-intermediate level? (2) To what extent do pedagogical films affect the motivation of Iranian EFL learners in learning speaking skill at the pre-intermediate level?

## **METHODOLOGY**

### ***Participants***

The present study was conducted with the help of 54 students who were selected out of 120 EFL students. All of them were majoring in English Translation including males and females from Islamic Azad University of Abadan in Iran. Through their performance on proficiency test designed by Richards, Lesley, Hansen, Sandy, and Zukowski (2008) those participants whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as the participants of the study. Then, they were randomly divided into two of experimental and control groups based on the scores of the proficiency test. Both groups took a pre-test of speaking through interviewing on some specific topics extracted from their textbook (i.e., Top notch fundamentals). Experimental group was taught via pedagogical films (Top notch fundamentals) and the control group was taught based on the audio CDs of those films. Each group included 27 participants. Also, participants in experimental groups were 27. They were ranged from 18 to 29 with a mean of 22.

### ***Instrumentation***

Three testing instruments were utilized in the process of the development of the present research. Initially, a proficiency test (Richards, Lesley, Hansen, Sandy & Zukowski, 2008) was taken to determine the students' proficiency level which divided the sample population into two experimental and control groups. The test contained 50 multiple-choice items and the students answered them in 60 minutes. The reliability of this proficiency test was computed through KR-21 formula as ( $r = .801$ ). Then a motivation questionnaire, before and after the treatment, was given to measure the students' motivation level in learning English as foreign language. The questionnaire consisted of 37-Likert scale items. The students were supposed to answer them in 30 minutes. The motivation questionnaire extracted from Dornyei (2003), Dornyei, Csizs and Nemeth (2006), Clement and Baker (2001), Dornyei (2001), Gardner (1985), Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000). Also, the reliability of motivation questionnaire was computed through KR-21 formula as ( $\alpha = .743$ ). For analyzing the participants' results in motivation questionnaire the researcher used the Likert scale which measured the extent to which a person agreed or disagreed with each item. The highest mark in each item is 165 and each multiple choice includes five possible answers from strongly disagree to strongly agree. In the motivation questionnaire, the researcher coded the responses accordingly: Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, no answer = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5. Additionally, some questions about the films were asked to measure the students' level of speaking at the beginning of research period. It was a face-to-face conversation according to the level of the person being tested. All oral interviews were recorded for future verification.

Finally, a post-test was done to determine the effects of using pedagogical films on speaking skill. Moreover, post-test includes the same question in pre-test. The reliability values of pre and post-test were calculated through Kuder-Richardson 21 formula too. The reliability values of pre and post tests were ( $r = 0.97$ ) and ( $r = .80$ ) respectively. Furthermore, a checklist (Hughes, 2003) was used in both pre and post

tests to measure communicative abilities of students. Also, during the treatment, four types of techniques were used in both groups to found out the levels of students' speaking. They included note taking, question and answer, discussion, and description.

#### Materials

Considering 10 sessions for classes at the university, the teacher was able to select 8 episodes of topnotch film fundamentals. Every episode was about two minutes. Time of each class was 45 minutes. In every session, the teacher used one episode for each class. The selected films had to meet some criteria. The first criterion was vocabulary frequency and unfamiliarity. Existence of the variety in film's topics was the second criterion to select them. Thirdly, in selecting a pedagogic film we had to take into account the participant's social and religious norms and values as well as the relatedness of the film to the students' daily life in order to communicate well with them. Therefore, the researcher decided to select top notch films which more appropriate and fun to the students. These films have both pedagogical and fun criteria so they are suitable for using in classes to discover the effect of them on speaking skill. Films are selected based on the participants' proficiency levels. Moreover, other instructors assigned which level of top notch films is appropriate for teaching students based on the scores of their pre-test. As a result, Top Notch Fundamentals was selected as teaching materials of research.

#### Procedure

This study was conducted at Islamic Azad university of Abadan. The first step was to make sure of the students' homogeneity. To do so, a week before the instruction, the researcher administered a sample proficiency test to 120 participants in order to select 55 participants. Those with the highest scores were selected and randomly divided into two groups in two different classes. Control group includes 27 participants. Also, participants in experimental groups are 28. Before starting instruction, the groups were participating in a motivation questionnaire with 36-Likert scale items. It means that students answered to 36 items in 30 minutes. A pre-test was administered to discover the students' levels of speaking at the beginning of research period. It was a face-to-face interview. Each oral interview was scored according to the checklist (Hughes, 2003) for the sake of reliability. After selecting and dividing the participants on random judgment sampling, the instruction phase started. One class was required to watch a pedagogical films while the other one audio CDs of those films.

The treatment lasted ten sessions, 45 minutes a session, once a week. During the treatment, in each session, the researcher devoted times to watching the movie, practicing new words, and talking about that part of the movie. Each movie was presented to the students for 15 minutes in every session. Then, the teacher worked on that part of the movie. As mentioned before, during each session, four types of techniques including note taking, question and answer, discussion, and description were used to work on the pedagogical film. Most of the students took notes while they watched the film for reviewing it. After watching the film some questions were asked to discover students' comprehension of it and then they described it. In addition, the students discussed the movie and gave their opinion about the plot of the film. Also control group was conducted the same activities which were done in experimental group. The only difference between both groups related to using audio CDs of the pedagogical films instead of pedagogical films in control group. It means other activities between two groups are the same. For example, students in control group took notes while they listened to the audio CDs. Finally, after the treatment period, a post-test of speaking achievement covered all the materials were administered to two groups. Finally, the results of the tests were compared to each other to know the importance of movies

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of Independent Samples *t*-test was run in order to find out whether the differences between the two groups are statistically significant or not. Moreover, a Mann-U Whitney-Wilcoxon analysis was used to discover the effect of pedagogical films on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learner's motivation before and after research period in both experimental and control groups. First, the data obtained through students' performance on a proficiency test designed by Richards et al (2008) was analyzed statistically. The first step used in analyzing data was determining the proficiency of the groups regarding their levels of second language proficiency. Thus, the students' overall scores on the test were collected from their records.

#### Results for the First Research Question

To test the first research hypothesis, the researcher dealt with comparing two groups based on the role of watching pedagogical films in speaking skill. To do so, students' speaking exam was conducted at the first and the end of the semester as the pretest and post-test of speaking. Two oral interviews were performed and participants' interviews were recorded for analyzing in both pre and post tests. It should be noted that oral performance test focused on the proficiency level of the students' oral interviews conducted face-to-face interaction.

The analysis went further to find out whether it affects on students' performance in speaking skill; two *t*-test analyses were applied in this section, for two groups' performances on speaking. Then an Independent Samples *t*-test was also performed to determine the rate of mean differences, if any, between two groups and this last *t*-test was used to show the role of watching pedagogical films on speaking skill. It is important to note that the researcher employed all the formulas with the level of significance set at 0.05 in all their applications. All the tests which were conducted separately were combined and considered as one single test, that is, the mean for the two tests scores of each student was calculated, and then the Independent Samples *t*-test was applied.

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics of students' speaking pre-tests in terms of the number of participants (N), means, standard deviations (SD), and standard errors of mean.

Table 1: Group Statistics (Pre-tests of Speaking, Experimental vs. Control groups)

Pre-test of Speaking	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	27	13.62	4.53	.87
Experimental	27	13.76	3.64	.69

According to the Table 1, the mean scores of pre-test for control group and experimental group were 13.62 and 13.76 respectively. Descriptive statistics of students' speaking post-tests are summarized in the Table 2.

Table 2: Group Statistics (Post-tests of Speaking, Experimental vs. Control groups)

Post-test of Speaking	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	27	17.48	4.08	.78
Experimental	27	21.26	2.63	.51

The mean score of pre-test were 17.48 for control group and 21.26 for experimental group. Table 3 provides descriptive statistics of both pre and post tests of students' speaking.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (Pre and Post-tests of Speaking)

Groups	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Audio pre-test speaking	27	7.00	22.50	13.62	4.53
Audio post-test speaking	27	10.00	26.50	17.48	4.08
A/V pre-test speaking	27	7.00	21.00	13.76	3.64
A/V post-test speaking	27	14.5	27.50	21.26	2.63
Valid N (listwise)	27				

The results showed that the pre-test speaking scores ranged from 7 to 22.5 out of 30 in control group and 7 to 21 out of 30 in experimental group. Also, the scores of post-test speaking ranged from 10 to 26.5 in control group and 14.5 to 27.5 in experimental group. According to Table 3, The mean scores of the experimental group (M = 13.76, SD = 3.64) were approximately similar to those of the control group (M = 13.62, SD = 4.53) in pre-test but the above table shows that the mean scores of the experimental group in post-test (M = 21.26, SD = 2.63) were significantly different from those of control group (M = 17.48, SD = 4.08). The result of the t-test of pre-test in both groups is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Independent Samples t-test (Pre-tests of Speaking, Experimental vs. Control groups)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances									
		t-test for Equality of Means									
Pre-test Speaking	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
								Std. Difference	Error		
								Lower	Upper		
	Equal variances not assumed	1.87	.17	-.17	51	.86	-.19	1.12	-2.45	2.05	

According to pre-tests of Independent Samples t-Test (Table 4), observed  $t$  (-0.17) was less than critical  $t$  (2.066) with df 51 in control group and also observed  $t$  (-0.17) was less than  $t$ -critical (2.066) in experimental group. Furthermore,  $t$ -test analysis shows significance value as 0.86 which is much greater than 0.05. This means that there is no statistical significance between mean performances of the two sets of scores in experimental and control groups in the pre-test. Moreover, the above table shows that the amounts of observed  $t$  are statistically not significant ( $t = -0.17, p = 0.86$ ); therefore, it can be claimed that two groups were homogeneous at the beginning of the experiment regarding their prior knowledge. Table 5 shows the results of the  $t$ -test of the post-test in both groups.

Table 5: Independent Samples t- test (Post-Tests of Speaking, Experimental vs. Control groups)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances									
		t-test for Equality of Means									
Post-test of Speaking	Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
								Std. Difference	Error		
								Lower	Upper		
	Equal variances not assumed	4.02	.050	-4.09	51	.00	-3.88	.94	-5.78	-1.98	

As presented in Table 5, the observed  $t$  (-4.09) in control group was greater than critical  $t$  (2.066) with df 51, and observed  $t$  (-4.13) in experimental group was greater than the same critical  $t$ . Also, computed significance equals .00 which is smaller than the significance level set for the study (0.05). Based on the results obtained, this strategy improved students' speaking skill. Hence, the first null hypothesis was rejected due to the greater value of means and higher amount of observed  $t$  than critical  $t$ . Thus the equality of mean of these groups was

rejected. This substantiated the fact that there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and the control groups confirming the effect of pedagogical films on the EFL learners' speaking skill. As shown in the Tables 4 and 5, there were considerable individual differences in speaking before and after the treatment. In other words, the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test and this means that the null hypothesis was rejected. It proves that the treatment has increased speaking skill scores. In other words, pedagogical films have significant effects on speaking scores.

**Results for the Second Research Question**

A non-parametric statistics was used to analyse the results of the small sample size. Mann-U Whitney-Wilcoxon, which is a non-parametric test for comparing the performance of two independent groups, was utilized to see whether there was any statistically significant difference in the variables under study. It was used to find out if the differences in students' motivation between two groups were statistically significant. It is important to note that the researcher employed all the formulas with the level of significance set at 0.05 in all their applications. Table 6 shows the mean of groups in pre-motivation questionnaire.

*Table 6: Pre-Motivation Questionnaire (Experimental vs. Control groups)*

Groups		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Pre-Motivation Questionnaire	Control	27	29.00	783.00
	Experimental	27	27.04	757.00
	Total	54		

Table 6 shows that 27 participants in the control groups and also the 28 participants in the experimental group took part in this research. Based on the table, sum of ranks of pre-test of motivation in control and experimental groups were 783, 00 and 757, 00 respectively. The results of Ranks of post- motivation questionnaire are shown in the Table 7.

*Table 7: Ranks of Post- Motivation Questionnaire (Experimental vs. Control groups)*

Groups		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Post-Motivation Questionnaire	Control	27	20.87	563.50
	Experimental	27	34.88	976.50
	Total	54		

Based on the Table 7, post-test of motivation questionnaire shows that sum of ranks of control and experimental groups were 563.50 and 976.50 respectively. Table 8 provides the descriptive statistics of motivation questionnaire for two groups in terms of the number of participants (N), minimum scores, maximum scores, means, and standard deviations (SD). The results in both groups are summarized in Table 8.

*Table 8: Descriptive Statistics (Pre and Post Motivation Questionnaire)*

Groups Motivation Questionnaire	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Audio pre-test question	27	117.00	156.00	139.963	8.41
Audio post-test question	27	125.00	161.00	141.25	7.56
A/V pre-test question	27	128.00	163.00	139.96	8.12
A/V post-test question	27	125.00	165.00	148.42	9.27

As Table 8 indicates, the students' scores in the motivation pre-test in audio group ranged from 117 to 156 out of 165 and the mean score was 139.96. Also, the students' scores in the motivation pre-test in A/V group ranged from 128 to 163 out of 165 and the mean score was 139.96. Also, the students' scores in the motivation post-test ranged from 125 to 161 in control group and 125 to 165 in experimental group. The Table 8 shows the mean score of control group in pre-test was 139.96 and mean score of experimental group was 139.96. It shows the mean scores in control and experimental groups were approximately similar in pre-test. Moreover, the mean scores of post-test motivation for audio group were 141.25 and 148.42 for A/V group. The mean for both groups increased from the pre-test to the post-test, although the experimental group showed a larger increase. The result showed that the mean score of the experimental group (M = 148.42, SD = 9.27) was significantly different from the control group (M = 141.25, SD = 7.56). Table 9 shows that the results of pre-test of motivation questionnaire.

*Table 9: Mann- U Whitney Test (Pre-test Motivation Questionnaire)  
(Experimental vs. Control groups)*

Mann-Whitney U	Pre-test 351.00
Wilcoxon W	757.00
Z	-.455
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.649

According to the Table 9, the two-tailed significance score was greater than the alpha value of 0.05. This indicated that the control and experimental groups were not significantly different from each other relative to the hypothesized values ( $Z = -.455$ ,  $p = .649$ ). The results of post motivation questionnaire are summarized in Table 10.

Table 10: Mann-U Whitney (Post-test Motivation Questionnaire  
(Experimental vs. Control groups)

	Post-test
Mann-Whitney U	185.500
Wilcoxon W	563.500
Z	-3.245
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001

According to the Table 10, the two-tailed significance score of .001 is less than the significant value of .05. There were significant differences between the EFL learners' motivation in two groups. This leads to a rejection of the second null hypothesis and provides support for the research hypothesis. Table 10 displays the results of the analysis of the effects of pedagogical films on EFL learners' motivation in learning English.

### Discussion

As shown in Independent Samples *t*-test, the speaking of two groups improved but there was a significant difference between them. As a whole, the study showed that the pedagogical films are effective in improving EFL learners' development of speaking skill at the pre-intermediate level of English. This result can be more approved by this evidence that there were significance differences between the means of pre-tests and post-tests. The means of the post-tests were higher than pre-tests. Also, *t* values were much greater than *t*-critical. That is to say, the learners who watched the pedagogical films may outperform the learners who listened to the audio CDs of those films. This is very much compatible with the results of the research conducted by Bahrani and Soltani (2011). They discovered that films improved speaking ability of the learners. Also, it showed that vocabulary and communication components of speaking enhance more than other components of speaking. Also, the results of this study are in line with the study that Mekheimer (2011) did. It was designed to indicate whether that exposure to supplementary video material is beneficial to whole language development. The study found that authentic video, is a valuable approach to whole language teaching.

The findings of this study are against with those of Dikilitas and Duvenci (2009). According to their research auditory/textual materials are more effective than films in terms of their effects on EFL learners' speaking skill. They reported that length of utterance and mean length of utterance are higher in students how use auditory/textual materials.

One possible explanation of such result is that correct use of pedagogical films in classrooms may help students to enhance their learning and speaking. This explanation is supported by Katchen (2003) who discovered that DVD films can be used as the major course material in a university level listening and speaking course for English majors. It also showed that students benefited from using DVD films. Combination of sounds and images in films may be one of the reasons that improve speaking. King (2002) in the same way stated that the great value of films lies in its combination of sounds, images, and sometimes text.

Based on the finding, creating a meaningful environment by use of pedagogical films may encourage students to speak. According to Canning-Wilson (2000), use of visuals, films, cartoons, and some other things help learners to clarify the messages and enhance understanding. Progoch (1996) believed visual imaging systems have widespread among people and is an inseparable part of people's lives.

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of pedagogical on learners' motivation in improving speaking language. Based on the results of the Man- U Whitney Test in chapter 4, the results of the study confirmed that learners' motivation in learning and speaking English could be increased through watching pedagogical films. It showed that pedagogical films might provide strong motivation for students to learn English. This is compatible with Ardriyati (2010) that found that using films in teaching could be motivated and attractive. According to him (2010) films can make students become more motivated to learn and communicate in the language. The finding of the study conducted by Istanto (2009) support the use of films in classes and thus is consistent with the outcome of current study. According to Istanto, films provide strong motivation for learners to learn the target language and culture because they can learn in more interesting ways compared to traditional class activities. Moreover, it's in the same line with Jahangard (2007) who discovered that visual materials increase language learning in classrooms. Also, it is consistent with the finding of Ardriyati (2010) who stated that motivation plays an essential element when teacher use films in classrooms as a teaching material.

Based on the results, pedagogical films may arouse learners' curiosity and it can motivate learners to follow the films. It's consistent with the finding of Offner (1997) who states that students may be motivated through watching film to fill this gap. Also in the experimental groups, students showed that they want to speak more about the films may be due to the fact that films can affect students' attitude positively in learning process? Furthermore, EFL learners in this research had positive attitude toward improving speaking through watching films. One of the learners said "*It was fun and learning at the same time*". This outcome is similar to the Adiyaman (2002) who found that technological equipment like watching films effect on students' attitude so much.

There were less stress and tension in the class and it seemed that the learners were able to cope with the difficulties of speaking through various activities and putting them into use and finally activating them. The learners feel more comfort and this class was fun for them. One student mentioned "*I can't wait for the next session to watch the other episodes of the film*". Another learner stated that "*I feel more comfortable in this class than any other classes and it is fun for me*". The findings of this study also are in the same line with the findings of Bahrani and Soltani (2002) who concluded that learners show great interest in watching films and different program from TV during the study. The participants attended the class with low anxiety which led to the high motivation.

### CONCLUSION

Teachers, methodologists, and applied linguists are responsible to help teachers comprehend the value of A/V materials because it can create the motivation and enjoyment in learning speaking. Instructors should provide opportunities for students in classroom to enhance their level

of motivation and effort to participate in the classroom discussion. First, teachers should introduce the importance of using A/V materials in speaking to language learners. Then, they must raise their students' knowledge of them, as well as recommending them and give them some instructions on how and when to utilize pedagogical films for enhancing speaking. Moreover, the teachers should employ the suitable levels of pedagogical films in classrooms. In language classrooms, it is suggested that language teachers familiarize their pre-intermediate language learners with advantages of pedagogical films to improve their speaking ability. Since this survey demonstrated that using pedagogical films in classrooms were useful for pre-intermediate learners of English. It is recommended that language teachers explicitly instruct their pre-intermediate language learners in the use of them.

The study can bear implications for materials developers and compilers of instructional books. By taking insights from the present study, compilers and materials designers might include tasks following short pedagogical films. Also, they should consider that pedagogical films should be presented in a right time and at suitable levels that confirms to the learners' actual potential in learning, in order for them to speak better. Material designers are advised to acquaint pre-intermediate EFL learners with the substance and advantages of using pedagogical films in language classrooms so that language learners with pre-intermediate language ability may draw upon them. As revealed in the present study, material designers had better notify these learners of the value and significance which pedagogical films have.

The results of this research can lead the future researchers to investigate other related areas. This study attempted to find out the effects of pedagogical films on EFL learners' speaking skill and their motivation and did not take the other skills or factors into consideration. Since other skills such as listening comprehension or writing skills and even vocabulary or idiom learning and also other emotions and feeling like anxiety could be influenced by the use of pedagogical films in the classroom situations, researcher is recommended to pay attention to them. Both male and females took part in this study but the researcher can compare them or study the effects of pedagogical films on the same sex. Since the study has evaluated on pedagogical films, replication of the study with different kinds of films and movies in other genres for example documentary, comedy, and also animation or authentic films would also be advisable. Learners who studied English as a foreign language took part in this study. Also, the same study can be replicated in other situations such as ESL situations and even in native speakers' contexts. Furthermore, this research was conducted with pre-intermediate EFL learners at Islamic Azad university of Abadan. Other levels of language proficiency in different cities can also be the participants of further studies if researchers wish to make generalizations about language learners at different proficiency levels. Eventually, the study lasted for two months. Succeeding studies can allocate more time to the instruction of pedagogical films on EFL learners' speaking skill and motivation.

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## ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate the role of reformulation tasks including comparison, paraphrasing, and copying activities concerned with developing writing accuracy in composing one paragraph essays in English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' writing accuracy. To achieve this purpose, a placement test was used to make sure of the homogeneity of participants. Accordingly, 100 participants were selected out of the student majoring in English translation at Abadan Azad University. Then they were assigned to three experimental and one control groups, each comprised of 25 participants based on systematic random sampling. The experimental groups received reformulation tasks, whereas the control group was taught traditionally. In other words, the control group received usual practice in writing essays with no explicit focus on the nominated tasks covered by the experimental groups. Group A received comparison task, group B received paraphrasing task and group C received copying task. The study continued for one semester. The participants took a pretest of writing one-paragraph essay, evaluating their proficiency in writing accuracy. After the treatment sessions, the four groups sat for the post-test of writing a one-paragraph essay. The topics for both the pre-test and post-test were the same. A standard checklist developed by Yang and Zhang (2010) was used to score the essays. For calculating the results, One-way ANOVA was used to measure the differences among the groups. Then a Post-hoc Scheffe test was used to determine the most effective task. The results showed that reformulation tasks such as comparison and copying were beneficial for improving accuracy among EFL learners. They are comparison and copying tasks which improved learners' writing accuracy. Thus this study may suggest that these two tasks could develop writing accuracy more effectively than the other tasks.

**KEYWORDS:** Reformulation tasks, EFL learners, writing accuracy

## INTRODUCTION

Writing is one of the four language skills and it could be very challengeable for EFL or English as second language (ESL) learners who need it as an instrument for employment and promotion (Graham & Perin, 2007). As Ting (2003) believes, writing in English has always been a demanding task for EFL/ESL learners. He states that this is because English writing, compared with English speaking, is the more formal mode of English production and therefore requires learners to be aware of the properties of English text. Harklau (2002) accepted the role of writing as a tool for communication and explained its key role in understanding how second language acquisition take place in elementary and secondary level classroom where literacy use for communication and transmission; it means writing is a way to understand how students learn a second language.

Celce-Murcia (2001) believes the ability to express one's ideas in writing in a second or foreign language with reasonable coherence and accuracy is a major achievement that even many native speakers of English never master. Writing is a complex activity, a social act which reflects the writer's communicative skills which is difficult to develop and learn, especially in an EFL context (Fallahzadeh & Shokrpour, 2008).

According to the benefit of reformulation, Yang and Zhang (2010) examined the effectiveness of reformulation and model text in a three-stage writing task (composing-comparison-revising) in an EFL writing class in a Beijing university; their findings showed that the students made more effort in finding the proper language to express their ideas at composing stage and were able to notice most differences between their original text and the reformulated one at comparison stage and their appreciation of having access to a native model text for a broad range of language input.

Various types of tasks are used as exercises for writing composition training at schools. Sometimes verbal materials are used for older children and series of pictures for developing transformational or representational knowledge that can be stored as information in memory for improvement in written composition used for lower learners (Pavio, 1990; Sølvsberg & Valås, 1995). But when learners finish school, they still cannot write in an appropriate way. This gap in writing research could be somewhat filled by task-based research. In the present study, the researchers use different reformulation tasks (comparison, copying, paraphrasing) to find role of these tasks in learners accuracy. Learners' exposure to native models and the opportunity of using them in writing make learners familiar by accuracy rules.

This study aims to find out the role of different reformulation tasks (comparison, paraphrasing, and copying) among Iranian students' writing accuracy who study at Abadan Islamic Azad University. Although several works have been done about different strategies and tasks to improve writing accuracy, to best of my knowledge, very few studies have been oriented to investigate the role of reformulation tasks in Iranian students writing accuracy. Promoting writing in general and writing accuracy in particular should be the main concern of not only Iranian learners but also those who want to learn English and improve their writing in and outside the academic settings.

Writing is one of the four language skills. It is necessary for language learners to obtain this skill for their goals and purposes. Accuracy and obtaining rules and grammar of English is one way to improve this skill. Reformulation is one way to improve this ability. Reformulation tasks including comparison, paraphrasing, copying are beneficial tasks for improving writing accuracy. By this study, we want to know how different reformulation tasks effect writing accuracy and compare and contrast tasks to know which one is beneficial for which part of grammar.

This study is important especially for Iranian English as foreign language (EFL) learners who want it for communication and pursuing the English for academic purposes (EAP). They do not use English extensively outside the classroom in educational setting to meet their needs. So, authentic texts for model texts, revision parts, and exposure to accurate texts during the term help students to have confidence and write like a native one.

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Writing is needed for higher degree of education, for writing research and be a member of scholarship. It is used to show one's thoughts and ideas (Diekelmann & Ironside, 1998). For these purposes and more than these, students required to learn this skill. They can practice different tasks. In writing courses, students are asked to complete writing assignments such as essays, summaries, reports, term papers, note taking, etc. Although they are hard activities, they are not always leads to learning without cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Hubner, Nuckles, & Renkl, 2010). Kormos (2011) argues that teachers can obtain information about how different task features work with the linguistic characteristics of foreign language written texts before choosing tasks.

Panofsky, Pacheco, Smith, Santos, Fogelman, Harrington, and Kenney (2005) believe the writing process and strategy includes four categories. First, students required to use process tasks. For example, outlining, composing, revising, editing and final writing. Second, argumentative writing which provides important information to support an idea. Third, students asked to arrange, criticize, evaluate, compare, and contrast opinions and information. Fourth, students take part in peer-editing activities.

### *Reformulation*

The first definition of reformulation was proposed by Levenston (1987). In this definition, learner's composition revised by native speaker. In this revision, original draft's ambiguity, awkwardness, lexical inadequacy, stylistic problems, syntactic and spelling mistakes, and grammatical errors are revised.

Cohen (1983, p.4) explains reformulation as "having a native writer of the target language rewrite the learner's essay, preserving all the learner's ideas, making it sound as native like as possible". He continued that Native speaker can change text to make it as native one; this change can occur in lexical, syntactic or style (Allwright, Woodley & Allwright, 1988). Some studies consider reformulation as a feedback tool which have often use by output and noticing in the context of L2 writing. The technique of reformulation has potential to affect some disadvantages of traditional feedback methods, which often target non-target like forms (Hanaoka & Izumi, 2012).

Reformulation is a useful technique for providing input in writing skill. In writing and speaking, sometimes learners cannot reach to their communicative goals as a result of lack of L2 knowledge. But in writing, learners have a chance to resolve their problems by different ways like: using model, reference sources, and asking teachers. By using reformulation technique, learners also can compare their text with new version of it and rewrite their text. So reformulation as an immediate input can help learners to solve their difficulties (Williams, 2012).

### *Paraphrasing and copying*

Sometimes copying in writing skill consider as plagiarism. Copying from source text considered necessary for academic writers to develop their writing. It can be a step before paraphrasing (Chandrasoma, Thompson & Pennycook, 2004; Hyland, 2001). Keck (2006) states that textual borrowing is not necessarily an ill-intention illustration of plagiarism since it can be a learning or developmental process. Researchers say there are differences among plagiarism, novice writers' citation, high level proficiency writers, and summaries (Wette, 2010).

Paraphrasing can be used as a strategy for avoiding plagiarism (Yamada, 2003). For avoiding plagiarism, students can use substantial paraphrases which are defined by Keck (2006) as including only main words that repeated in the text and related to the topic. Also they can use superficial paraphrasing in their writing. Keck (2010) said for using this strategy, L2 writers can add new words, delete words, or substitute with synonyms words. Abbasi and Akbari (2008) argued that many L2 students use superficial paraphrasing to avoid using their own words and this can be due to lack of confidence. Substantial paraphrase by using only main words doesn't guarantee good paraphrasing (Shi, 2012). Yamada (2003) believed on inferential thinking (deductive and analogical) for good paraphrasing.

Fathman and Whalley (1990) works on students' writing against four different feedback conditions: no feedback other than the grade awarded; grammar feedback consisting of underlining all grammatical errors; content feedback in which short, general comments were made about the text; and a combination of grammar feedback and content feedback, argue that only the grammar feedback and the grammar plus content feedback groups made development in grammatical accuracy at a statistically significant level.

Chandler (2003) conducted a study to find the role of error correction in improving accuracy in students writing. Author chose participant among students at an American conservatory. Students were asked to write about 25 pages of autobiographical writing and a book review over the semester. They divided to two groups but they were taught by the same teacher with the same method and both groups received error feedback. The difference between experimental and control groups was in treatment and receiving feedback. Students in the experimental group should revise each assignment and correcting all the errors underlined by the teacher before doing the next exercises. Nonetheless, the control group did corrections of their underlined errors after the first drafts of all five homework assignments had been written toward the end of the semester. The results demonstrate that the control group, which did no error correction between assignments, did not increase in accuracy while the experimental group showed a significant increase which was not accompanied by a decline in fluency. Yang and Zhang (2010) conducted a study to investigate the effect of exposing participants to both a reformulation and a model text in a three-stage writing task. Chinese EFL students participated in this study and narrative writing used for the purpose of this study. Researchers found that participants noticed to the differences between their composed text and reformulated text in comparison stage while they also use models as a good sample of native writing. So, researchers believed on using both reformulation and a model text to improve students' writing. They said by using reformulated text, students can be aware of their problems and learn native version of expressing their ideas; while by using model text which is free from constraints of the original writing, learners have a example of native at all levels consist of vocabulary, sentence structures, and discourse.

Shi (2012) conducted a study to find the role of rewriting and paraphrasing source texts in second language writing. Also this study tries to find how students and professors look at paraphrased, summarized, and translated texts. 48 students and 27 instructors in a North American university volunteered to participate in this study. This study contained 3 questions: 1. How do participating students and faculty across disciplines view the examples of paraphrasing in relation to the amount of copying and the use of one's own inferential thinking? 2. How do participating students and faculty across disciplines view the example of the summarized text in terms of how it should be acknowledged?

3. How do participating students and faculty across disciplines view the example of the translated text in terms of how it should be acknowledged?

Moore (1997) conducted a study at an Australia university in order to find how ESL student relied on copying in their summary writing. Findings showed that ESL students with an Asian background copied when writing summaries without citing. The researchers believed this kind of copying is related to cultural variation, not plagiarism because ESL students look at original text as a source of information so they copy. On the other hand native English speakers attribute the summarized positions to the original author because source text is an individual point of view for them. Johns and Mayes (1990) also examined summaries written by 80 ESL undergraduates, they reported that low levels proficiency students copied directly from the original text more than high levels of English proficiency.

### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study aims to answers the following questions: (1) To what extent do comparison, paraphrasing, and copying tasks affect EFL learners' writing accuracy at the intermediate level? (2) Is there any difference among comparison, paraphrasing, and copying in developing accuracy in writing?

### METHODOLOGY

#### *Participants*

The participants for this study were students of Islamic Azad university of Abadan, majoring in English Translation. They were selected out of those students who had recently passed the course of simple writing at the university. To ensure the students' linguistic homogeneity, the researchers administered a proficiency test (Richards, Lesley, Hansen, Sandy & Zukowski, 2008) to 122 students. After the scores of proficiency test were obtained, 100 students whose scores were within one SD below and one SD above the mean were selected as the participants who gained the level of intermediate level. Then they were non-randomly divided into four groups of 25. They comprised of three experimental groups i.e., comparison group (A), paraphrasing group (B), copying group (C), and a control group (D).

#### *Instrumentation*

The following instruments were implemented in the study: (1) A proficiency test of English languages (Richards et al, 2008) which included 50 multiple choice items to assess learners' general knowledge of English grammar and reading comprehension at the intermediate level. Its reliability coefficient was computed through Cronbach Alpha formula as ( $\alpha=0.865$ ). (2) A pre-test and a post-test were designed based on IELTS topics for writing to measure the students' writing achievement before and after the treatment period. Each writing test included three topics and the participants should select one out of the three to write a one paragraph descriptive essay included 15 words. (3) A check list was extracted from Yang and Zhang (2010) which included 20 items on the accuracy of the students' writing such as mechanics of writing, style, grammar, spelling, etc.

#### *Materials*

Original model texts which were chosen from "Active skills for reading: Book 2", developed by Anderson (2007) were used for revision. This book includes 12 units and each unit contains 2 chapters. There are reading parts in each chapter which were used for our purpose as a model of native one. The book "Paragraph Development" by Arnaudet and Barrett (1990) was used for control group.

#### *Procedure*

In this study, participants were given an English placement test and then they were divided to four groups of 25. Groups were as follows: comparison group (A), paraphrasing group (B), copying group (C), and control group (D). All groups except control group were assigned the same materials but were expected to do different tasks. The reading parts of "Active skills for reading: Book 2" developed by Anderson (2007), was used for all the groups but control group was given the book "Paragraph development" by Arnaudet and Barrett (1990) as a course material. This study was conducted during one semester and each session took 30 minutes. For the pre-test, students were given three topics to write a paragraph of 150 words. Then the researcher explained to each group what they should do during the semester and elaborated more on their tasks. In comparison group (A), students should do what other participants do for reformulation task (composing, contrasting, and revising), they had topic to write about it. It was a kind of free writing and they could use which style that they knew and composed a text. After composing, they had a text about the topic which they had written recently. This text was prepared for them from the book and they could use it as a model text. This text was a kind of native one and acceptable one in accuracy. Students had their written text and model text about one topic. They contrasted their texts with the model in the structure and grammar, and then they wrote another text again or changed their written text. In paraphrasing group (B), students at first had a model text from the selected book by the researchers which was the same for all groups in each session. They read one or two paragraphs and then they composed a text by paraphrasing those parts. In copying group (C), student like previous group at first encountered by a text and then they composed and used copying for write a text. In Control group (D), students had a course book "paragraph development" and they were taught in a conventional way without the use of these tasks.

At the last session, to determine the effectiveness of applying reformulation tasks on EFL learners' writing accuracy, the four groups were given the similar post-test in which the topics were the same topics in pre-test and they should write about those topics. The pre-test and post-test were scored by using checklist and two scorers. Two scorers were used to make sure of subjectivity. According to checklist for each error except sentence structure, student lost 0.25 of total score of 20 and for sentence structure error 0.05. The obtained scores by the four groups were compared with the pre-test scores to see which group had more progress in writing accuracy. They were compared to know the differences in each group and among groups.

In order to determine if comparison, paraphrasing and copying had any impact on intermediate EFL learners developing writing accuracy, the collected data were analyzed by using One-way ANOVA to show the mean differences between the groups. Then a post-hoc Scheffe test was used to show the significant effect of the variables in developing writing accuracy of Iranian English foreign language learners.

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Calculating the data which obtained from the pre-test was the next step in analyzing the data. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance in different groups on pre-test.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Contrasting	24	17.9375	.82175	.16774	17.5905	18.2845	16.50	20.00
Paraphrasing	23	17.0870	1.52556	.31810	16.4273	17.7467	14.00	20.00
Copying	21	17.3214	1.19672	.26115	16.7767	17.8662	14.00	19.00
Control	20	17.3000	1.05319	.23550	16.8071	17.7929	15.50	18.50
Total	88	17.4233	1.20306	.12825	17.1684	17.6782	14.00	20.00

According to Table 1, mean and standard deviation of four groups are to some extent the same. Mean and standard deviation showed that the participants of four groups were performed similarly in pre-test. In order to find out the difference among the groups in the pre-test, One-way ANOVA was performed on the test scores of the four groups' writing essays. Table 2 shows the results.

Table 2: One-way ANOVA (Pre-test)

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.470	3	3.157	2.277	.086
Within Groups	116.450	84	1.386		
Total	125.920	87			

\*Significant at  $p < 0.05$

Based on Table 2 given above, since Critical  $F$  (4.04) is greater than observed  $F$  (2.277) with  $df=3/84$ , the difference between the groups is not significant at ( $p < 0.05$ ). Also based on obtained significant of 0.086 which was greater than 0.05, we could state that there was no difference between the groups in the pre-test. Therefore, all the groups were homogeneous at the beginning of the research. The next step in analyzing the results of the study was the calculation of the scores of students' performance after treatment period on the post-test. Like the pre-test, descriptive and inferential statistics were used for this purpose. The descriptive statistics of participants' scores on post-test are given in Table 3 below:

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (Post-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Contrasting	24	18.3854	.85332	.17418	18.0251	18.7457	16.00	20.00
Paraphrasing	23	17.8152	1.30606	.27233	17.2504	18.3800	15.50	20.00
Copying	21	18.2024	.75257	.16423	17.8598	18.5449	17.00	19.50
Control	20	17.0875	1.25204	.27996	16.5015	17.6735	14.50	19.25
Total	88	17.8977	1.15634	.12327	17.6527	18.1427	14.50	20.00

By comparing the mean and standard deviation of each group in Table 3 with the mean and standard deviation of the pre-test in Table 1, differences among the groups' means were appeared. As it is displayed in Table 3, participants' performances in all groups were changed into high scores. To see whether the differences in the results of the pre-test and the post-test are significant, One-way ANOVA was used. Table 4 shows the results of this calculation.

Table 4: One-way ANOVA (Post-test)

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	20.943	3	6.981	6.148	.001
Within Groups	95.386	84	1.136		
Total	116.330	87			

\*Significant at  $p < 0.05$

According to Table 4, Since Critical  $F$  (4.04) is less than observed  $F$  (6.148) with  $df= 3/84$ , the difference between the groups is significant at ( $p < 0.05$ ). The obtained significant (0.001) is less than significance level set for the study (0.05), so there is a difference between groups and they are not homogeneous on the post-test. Based on descriptive and inferential statistics participants performed better on the post-test. To find out where the difference exactly exist and compare the groups with each other a Post-hoc Scheffe Test was used. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Post-hoc Scheffe Test of Multiple Comparisons

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Contrasting	Paraphrasing	.57020	.31094	.345	-.3169	1.4573
	Copying	.18304	.31842	.954	-.7254	1.0915
	Control	1.29792*	.32263	.002	.3774	2.2184
Paraphrasing	Contrasting	-.57020	.31094	.345	-1.4573	.3169
	Copying	-.38716	.32163	.695	-1.3048	.5305
	Control	.72772	.32581	.181	-.2018	1.6572
Copying	Contrasting	-.18304	.31842	.954	-1.0915	.7254
	Paraphrasing	.38716	.32163	.695	-.5305	1.3048
	Control	1.11488*	.33294	.014	.1650	2.0648
Control	Contrasting	-1.29792*	.32263	.002	-2.2184	-.3774
	Paraphrasing	-.72772	.32581	.181	-1.6572	.2018
	Copying	-1.11488*	.33294	.014	-2.0648	-.1650

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

Table 5 shows that the groups performed differently in gaining the writing accuracy scores. The multiple comparisons of the results showed that there was not a significant difference among comparison group, paraphrasing and copying groups, but there was a significant difference between comparison and control group. By comparing paraphrasing with other groups, no significant difference was observable. Comparing the copying group with comparison, paraphrasing and control groups, the results showed that there was a significant difference between copying and control groups; however, there was not a significant difference between the control group with comparison and paraphrasing groups.

Since the significance level was set at 0.05, it can be seen that there was a significant difference between comparison and control groups (sig=0.002). Thus it showed that the participants in comparison group performed better in the post-test. The same deduction was obtained for copying group compared with control group. Copying group performed better on the post-test (sig= 0.014); however, there was not a significant difference between this group compared with other groups.

Based on obtained results, we can see the first null hypothesis: “comparison tasks do not affect EFL learners’ writing accuracy at the intermediate level” was rejected. Comparison task in this study was effective for increasing writing accuracy of the learners. The second null hypothesis: “paraphrasing tasks do not affect EFL learners’ writing accuracy at the intermediate level”, was not rejected. As it was hypothesized paraphrasing task which was one of the reformulation task, did not affect learners’ writing accuracy. The third null hypothesis: “Copying tasks do not affect EFL learners’ writing accuracy at the intermediate level”, was rejected. It means copying task affect EFL learners’ writing accuracy. The last hypothesis: “There is not any difference among comparison, paraphrasing, and copying tasks in developing accuracy in writing”, was also rejected. Thus just two of three tasks (i.e., comparison and copying) were beneficial in developing writing accuracy. The numbers of errors were calculated based on the checklist and illustrated through a bar graph. Figure 1 shows the results.

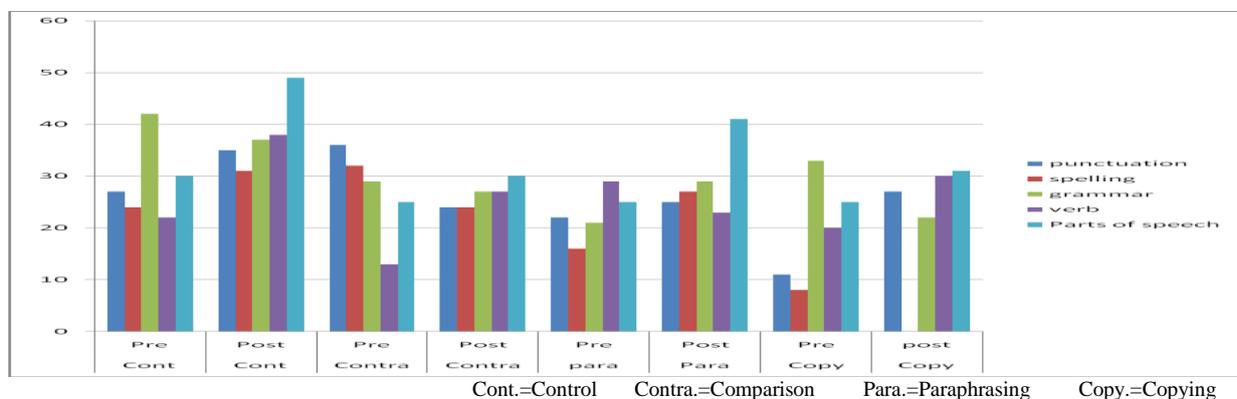


Figure 1: Numbers of Errors in Writing Essays Made by Students in Each Group

Errors of students’ performance recognized based on the checklist which is used for scoring participants written text on the pre-test and the post-test. Then items of the checklist comprised of five categories of punctuation, spelling, grammar, verb, and parts of speech. These items

included frequency of errors made by each group on the pre-test and post-test.

As Figure 1 shows, participants in each group performed differently regarding the errors made by them on the pre-test and post-test. In the control group, errors of punctuation, spelling, verb, and parts of speech were increased during the treatment period but participants' errors of grammar were decreased on the post-test. In comparison group, numbers of errors, made by the participants, were decreased in punctuation, spelling, and grammar after the treatment sessions; however, the errors of verb and parts of speech were increased. In paraphrasing group, errors of all items except verbs increased. In copying group, the improvement in punctuation, verb and parts of speech are visible; but the errors in spelling and grammar were decreased.

### Discussion

As One-way ANOVA of post-test in Table 4 showed, after treatment groups were not homogeneous any more. Results showed that the treatment for experimental groups were beneficial (sig=0.001). By comparing comparison group with two others experimental groups and especially with control group, we can determine whether it was significant or not. Table 5, Post-hoc Scheffe test shows the results of comparing comparison group with other groups. Based on the results of the study, the difference between comparison group and control group was significant. Therefore, the difference is significant. It means that the participants in the comparison group performed better on the post-test. Comparison tasks did not affect EFL learners' writing accuracy at the intermediate level. So the first null hypothesis is rejected. Comparison task in this study was effective for increasing writing accuracy of the learners. In most of the studies about reformulation tasks, comparison strategy was used. It is named three stages task. Hanaoka (2007) used contrasting strategy to investigate what Japanese EFL learners spontaneously noticed in a multistage picture-description task. Results of this study showed that learners noticed to their linguistic problems and found solution to more than 90% of their problems based on model text on revision stage. The result is the same with what obtained in this study. Results showed that in the third stage (revision stage) when learners revise their text based on stage two (contrasting stage), less than half of their problems were solved. On the other hand Swain and Lapkin (2004) found that reformulation of learner's writing is an effective technique for stimulating noticing and providing tasks to engage learners.

The errors of spelling also increased in this group. By learning new text and rules of writing, learners should write more than what they wrote before. They should use new words which they used rarely before. This problem also can be the cause why errors of parts of speech and verb increased in this group. But this problem can be solved by using dictionaries or treatment of the teacher. The only error that decreased after treatment on post-test in this group is grammar. Participants of this group made 42 errors on pre-test and 37 errors on post-test. Following patterns of the book can be the cause of this change. Grammar was the only error in this group which showed positive change after treatment even if it is not significant change. The four other errors increased. We can conclude based on the results of this figure and this study that the traditional teaching was useful only for grammar.

Number of grammar errors decreased in all groups on post-test except in paraphrasing group. Other three treatments were beneficial for improving grammar but paraphrasing was not. In paraphrasing tasks students allowed to change the structure of words and use synonyms of words. Sometimes by changing structure, students cannot follow English rules of sentences or phrases, so it makes them to do errors. As a result of this change after paraphrasing task, that's better teachers don't use paraphrasing tasks for improving grammar of learners' writing.

Parts of speech errors include errors of preposition, adverb, noun, and adjective in this study. By looking at them separately, we can see some of them decreased after treatment period. But as it is observable at Figure 1, parts of speech errors increased in all four groups with different intervals. Control group had the most growth of parts of speech errors compared with other three experimental groups. It was 30 errors on pre-test and 49 errors on post-test in this group.

In summary, comparison tasks were beneficial for punctuation, spelling, and grammar errors. Paraphrasing tasks were helpful for verb errors. Copying tasks were useful for spelling and grammar errors. Traditional teaching was useful for reducing grammar errors. Comparison and copying tasks play somehow the same for lessening errors of the same type. Both of them share reducing spelling and grammar errors. As it was discussed in section four, comparison and copying group showed change after treatment and their change were significant. That obtained results can be due to their role of reducing the same type of errors.

### CONCLUSION

Writing is one of the four language skills which EFL learners need to obtain. To write acceptable text, learners should follow English rules. Accuracy is one of the important parts for writing appropriate and acceptable texts. This study investigated the role of reformulation tasks in EFL learners' writing accuracy. For achieving this purpose, three types of reformulation tasks were used in this study. Four groups of participants were considered in this study. Groups were: Comparison group (A), paraphrasing group (B), copying group (C), and control group (D). Participants in group D did not receive reformulation tasks. Finally, results of the post-test showed that two types of reformulation tasks are beneficial for improving writing accuracy. Based on the obtained results from the pre-test and post-test, participants in comparison group and copying group showed significant change on the post-test. In this study, students' errors on the pre-test and post-test were checked by a checklist (Yang & Zhang, 2010). The results obtained from this checklist presented in Figure 4.1 to show which tasks were helpful for which errors. Based on the research findings, this study gives the following implications and suggests some ideas to EFL learners and teachers and material designers to help EFL learners become proficient in foreign language.

Lack of focusing on a determined method or task in writing in a traditional way may be ineffective because learners cannot write in an appropriate way even after finishing English courses. Most of the times, students use translation for writing text. They think in their native language and translate it to target one. This use of Farsi translation makes many problems for students because rules of writing of each language are different from others. Checking student errors in their written text is not enough for improving writing skill. Teachers can help their students by using reformulation tasks, especially comparison and copying tasks. Results of this study showed that some types of reformulation tasks are beneficial for improving accuracy of learners' writing. So teachers can use these tasks in their classes. By using these tasks in writing classes, students may gain exposure to native model texts which are appropriate ones and by comparing their essays with the model text, students notice more on their problems.

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**THE ROLE OF ENCODING AND REHEARSAL STRATEGIES IN DEVELOPING EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY  
RECALL AND RETENTION**

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**ABSTRACT**

The present study investigated the effects of encoding and rehearsal strategies on the vocabulary development of Iranian English as foreign language (EFL) learners' recall and retention. The design of the research was based on pre-test and post-test experimental inquiry. To achieve this aim, Richards, Lesley, Hansen, Sandy and Zukowski (2008) proficiency test was administered to 120 male and female learners who enrolled in Islamic Azad University of Ramhormoz, Iran. They were non-English majors and selected English for General Purposes (EGP). The learners' scores in proficiency test were analyzed and 60 learners were selected as research sample of the study. They were 45 females and 15 males who were ranging in age from 19 to 30 years old. Then they were non-randomly divided into three groups of 20 participants (i.e., 15 females and 5 males). There were two experimental groups (i.e., encoding and rehearsal) who dealt with two strategies in learning vocabulary. They took a vocabulary pre-test at the beginning of treatment to measure their vocabulary knowledge. During treatment period, encoding group received treatment on learning vocabulary through learners should encoded new materials meaningfully and be able to retrieve them whenever needed while rehearsal group received tasks on rote repetition of items as the main part of their activity. Control group was taught vocabulary through conventional method of teaching such as translation, definition, etc. Finally, all the participants took vocabulary immediate and delayed post-tests and data were put into descriptive and inferential statistics. One-way ANOVA showed that both experimental groups outperformed the control group in recall and retention. However, there was not a significant difference between males and females' recall and retention in learning vocabulary. Findings of the present study for English teachers may suggest that using encoding and rehearsal strategies could be more beneficial than using conventional activities in teaching vocabulary recall and retention.

**KEYWORDS:** Encoding, rehearsal, EFL Learners, vocabulary, recall, retention

**INTRODUCTION**

In the most of EFL context, second language learners feel successful EFL learner are those who know more number of words. So, for these groups of learners knowing great number of words is the first and the most important factor in learning another language. Learning vocabulary is considered as a crucial component of language learning process. As Wilkins (1972) states that "without grammar very little can be conveyed, {but} without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p, 11). Wilkins statement proved the necessity of vocabulary knowledge as the first and most important component of language. As during second or foreign language learning, most of learner's errors are due to the lexical errors. For example understanding of non-grammatical sentence like: "My teacher teached me that talk" is possible; however it would not be comprehensible without enough vocabulary knowledge. Thus this language component is essential for English as second or foreign language learning. Hayati and Shahriari (2010) state "Vocabulary learning by far plays an important role in learning language, be it a first language, second language or a foreign language, it is, therefore, conceivable that the words are the building blocks upon which the second language learning is built" (p. 27). Due to the important of vocabulary knowledge, it is suggested learning a second or foreign language involves the acquisition of thousands of words (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

Vocabulary cannot separate from the language skills. As well as listening, speaking, writing also the clear relationship is between vocabulary and reading comprehension. Matsuoka and Hirsh (2010) state "there is a strong link between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension" (p. 56). This relationship is mutual that is not only having high word storage makes someone good reader, but only having high-level reading comprehension is effective to gain more vocabularies and retain them better. Through reading learner can benefit from this rich context to acquisition more new words. It is a way to enhance word knowledge. Tassana-ngam (2004) state "vocabulary directly affects reading skill; it may impede especially second language learners' comprehension of a written text if the learners have less vocabulary knowledge or below the threshold minimum of approximately 3,000 words" (p.48).

However, learning is not enough but retrieving of words is important. Another important issue in learning vocabulary is remembering Most the learners often have difficulty in remembering those words previously learned. There are so many reasons for this problem, but the ways learners choose for acquiring word is one of the their most problems. Learning happened just when a learner can be able to recall words. Thornbury (2002) said "the learner need not only learn a lot of words but also to remember them, In fact learning is remembering" (p. 23). Here, the question is: how learners can enhance their vocabulary ability? Is there a method or strategy lead to retention and recalling vocabulary? Using of the variety of strategies and techniques for vocabulary development should include into learning process. One possible answer to learners difficulties of learning vocabulary is using different ways to help learners in better maintaining words. Vocabulary learning strategy is one of the important ways by providing different methods in developing vocabulary knowledge to guide learners in selecting best methods for their learning. Nation (2001) asserted that VLS is a subcategory of language learning strategy, which in turn is a subcategory of general learning strategy. Schmitt (1997) defined VLSs as learning is "the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved and used... therefore vocabulary learning strategies could be any which affect this broadly defined process" (p.203).

In the present study, it is assume the subcategories of rehearsal and encoding strategies (word list and word structure) can be influenced in developing EFL learners' vocabulary. Learning second language included all language components; but Because of the importance effect of vocabulary on learning another language, it's known as the first things the learners need to develop the most important thing that help them to get the meaning, having more number of words knowledge. Since vocabulary is central to language learning and EFL learners (Lotfi,

2007), most of them do the best in learning vocabulary but actually do not get more. The question is that why students mostly cannot remember those vocabularies? They are not aware of suitable vocabulary learning strategies to increasing their own vocabulary knowledge, in this situation it's a the teacher duty to help language learners to come up with this problem by providing different strategies to place them in better position in teaching and learning vocabulary situation.

The strategy learners use in own learning vocabulary is one factor that may influence the extent of acquiring vocabulary. It is a great of significant that it not only helps learners developing their vocabulary abilities but also it can solve the problem of retrieving and remembering vocabulary. Learners spend times during the learning process and do everything to recall the words but in spite of devoting more times to learn new words, the result is awful because the learning would not happen and they could not remember and recall vocabulary when they need them. When the Learner fail to learn it make the disappointed and may giving the learning up. The present study used of two vocabulary strategies, encoding and rehearsal strategies to see how much may be applicable in promoting the retention and recall of vocabulary. Using word lists and word structure were two techniques of above strategies which used in this research project.

## **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

### ***Theoretical Background***

Vocabulary is one of the important parts of language learning which has been neglected for several decades (Meara, 1980). Coady and Huckin (1997) claimed that after a long period of neglect "second language vocabulary acquisition has recently become an increasingly topic of discussion for researchers, teachers, curriculum designers, theorists, and others involved in second/ foreign language learning" (P. 1). As the result of the increasing demands of vocabulary, it has changed to one of the important parts of language which shifted to the first stages of language learning. Generally speaking, vocabulary plays undeniable role in the development of all language skills. Schmitt (2008) indicate "One thing that students, teachers, materials writers, and researchers can all agree upon is that learning vocabulary is an essential part of mastering a second language (p. 329)". Several studies and many books have been done on the great significant role of vocabulary on language learning development (Nemati, 2009).

As well as the importance of vocabulary in productive skills (writing and speaking), it is also important in comprehending of receptive skill (reading and listening). In the absence of grammar; knowledge of a passage of reading, a track of listening, a piece speaking or writing a latter is possible, unless it won't be comprehensible in the lack of enough vocabulary knowledge. As previously said, the knowledge of vocabulary directly related to all language skills.

Reading is one skill which interrelated to the knowledge of vocabulary and vice versa. Researchers have been agreed clear relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading skill. According to Hassanvand, Gorjian and Hayati (2012) "Reading comprehension is an important skill and in fact one of the platforms in which a learner can show his ability in a foreign language" (p. 351). This skill is good source for vocabulary acquisition. A learner, who has more number of words storage, understands text better and might be a good reader. So in FLL classrooms, vocabulary plays most important roles and working on this component of language should come at the beginning of pedagogical process. However reading is a rich source for vocabulary development and the amount of vocabulary growth increase during reading classes but dealing with large number of unfamiliar vocabulary and difficulty in remembering or recalling of these hosts of words is main problem. There are so many reasons for this difficulty as affective factors (anxiety), pedagogical factors (methods of teaching) or individual differences (learner's level). According to Takac (2008), several factors that effect on the vocabulary learning are: linguistic factors of items, complexity of learning vocabulary itself, the role of L1 or other language as well as role of memory on the retrieving or forgetting items.

### ***Vocabulary Learning Strategies***

Generally speaking, Vocabulary is of great significance in language learning process. Since and most of learners errors come to vocabulary level It is the first and the most important step in learning another language. Meara (1980) indicates: "...Learners themselves readily admit that they experience considerable difficulty with vocabulary."(p. 221). According to Oxford and Scarcella (1994) vocabulary acquisition is a major challenge for beginner language learners since they have to store a large number of new words in their long-term memory in a short period of time. Since learning vocabulary is a challenge to foreign language learners through providing different VLSs, learners probably can help to becoming independent learners and make them to use most suitable strategies suited to their purposes (Lotfi, 2007). Because of the prominent role of vocabulary in developing knowledge of EFL learners, different approaches are proposed by researchers.

In the teaching and learning processes, providing some suitable strategies can help learners to better organization and memorization of new words into their mind. For example: word association can help learners to relate between what words they already know and what words should they learn, use of some contextual clues is also benefit to understand meaning of word. Word structure technique is another suitable way to comprehend the text and developing words knowledge through analyzing word parts. All of these techniques are known as a title of VLSs which is a component of language learning strategies which in turn are a component of general learning strategies.

### ***Studies Concerning Vocabulary Learning Strategies***

In 1996, Lawson and Hogben investigated the role of using a think-aloud procedure in learning 12 Italian new words among 15 Australian learners. They concluded that the learners who recalled more of the learned words later had used a greater range of learning strategies, and used them more often, than their poorer performing counterparts. However, the learners in this study tended to favor simple repetition strategies over more complex elaboration strategies, despite the fact that the latter are associated with higher recall. They concluded that if students are not aware of the advantages of these procedures for some vocabulary acquisition situations, there is a need to press this point more directly during language teaching.

Karami and Barkat (2012) conducted a study to determine the role of level of learner's proficiency on the use of vocabulary learning strategies. 36 Iranian EFL learners divided into three proficiency level of elementary, intermediate, and advanced. The results of analyzed data revealed that there was an association between proficiency level and strategy use. Advance learners were higher use learners of VLS than immediate or elementary learners. Among of social, memory, affective, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies; the cognitive strategies were the most preferred on among students (Make list of new words, take note or highlight).

It is also believed that learners' sex effect on the selection of appropriate VLS. Catalan (2003) found there was significant relationship between sex and selection/number of appropriate VLS. 581 Spanish -speaking students (male and female) were administered a questionnaire. The results revealed that females used great total number of strategies than male. It also found that female preferred to use of

formal rule strategies, input elicitation strategies, rehearsal strategies and planning strategies and male preferred to use image vocabulary learning strategies.

#### ***Experimental Studies on Rehearsal Strategy***

Among many available vocabulary learning strategies, rehearsal strategies are commonly used by teachers and learners as well. Banikowski (1999) explained rehearsal as Retain the information in working memory by repeating it again and again. He also said information would be transferred to long term memory through rehearsal. Based on this explanation it is clear that rehearsal related to short term memory ,that is through the rehearsal activates every information can transferred into long term memory, in another words retrieving of information is the action of short term memory and long term memory. According to Banikowski (1999), two types of rehearsal proposed as maintenance rehearsal and elaborative rehearsal. Maintenance rehearsal is just repeating information through rote rehearsing. In fact, retaining of information is depended to several rehearsing those items. In contrast to maintenance rehearsal, elaborative rehearsal provided a connection between new information and some existing information. This kind of rehearsal resulted into storing information into long term memory (Banikowski, 1999).

Some studies confirmed rehearsal strategies are important tools to develop learners' vocabulary knowledge. In one study, Fallahchai (2012) conducted a study to determine EFL learners' vocabulary learning through learning strategies training. 558 primary students divided into 4 groups which instructed by 4 different approaches of: (1) vocal rehearsal+ phonological awareness training : (2) sub -vocal rehearsal+ phonological awareness training : (3) vocal and sub-vocal rehearsal+ phonological awareness training : (4) no rehearsal+ phonological awareness training. One-way ANOVA analysis of pre-test and post-test revealed that the group which instructed by the third approach, developed vocabulary learning highly better than other groups. There were not significant differences between groups which instructed through the first and second approaches.

According to the results of above studies, word list as a subcategory of rehearsal strategy is not able to develop the retention of learners' vocabulary knowledge. One reason of rejecting word list as a good VLS is the absence of context. It is argued context is a means to help learners in developing and better understanding unknown words, so the existence of context is necessary and may lead to better retention of words (Hayati & Shahriari, 2010).

#### ***Experimental Studies on Encoding Strategy***

Encoding plays important roles on the retrieving items by shifting new information from short term memory to long term memory. It is known as a process of relating in new information to background information; this kind of relationship help to learned new items meaningfully. Vocabulary retention has been defined as "the ability to recall or remember things after an interval of time. In language teaching, retention of what has been taught (e.g. grammar rules and vocabulary) may depend on the quality of teaching, the interest of the learners, or the meaningfulness of the materials (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 457).

Considering the role of VLSs on learning vocabulary, Tavakoli and Gerami (2012) compared two methods of keyword and pictorial on Vocabulary Learning and Retention among 60 adult female elementary students. Homogeneity test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test were used as the instruments of their study. At the end of the treatment period, immediate test administered to measure learners' short-term memory recall .After Two weeks intervals a delayed post-test was used to measure learners' long term memory retention of vocabularies. The results of One-way ANOVA analysis reveal that keywords method had significant effect on the vocabulary learning and retention as well. The learners who used keyword could restore and retrain vocabulary in the long-term memory better than those who used pictorial methods.

In a study reported by Sarcoban and Basibek (2012) investigated the role of mnemonic technique and Context method on vocabulary retention among 84 learners at upper intermediate level. The pretest, immediate recall test, and delayed retention test were the instruments of this study. The finding of data revealed that mnemonic group was better performed than context group in immediate and delayed posttest.

In another study by Nemati (2009), she investigated two memory strategies on the vocabulary retention of short and long term memory. The results show that teaching vocabularies through giving synonyms and mini-contexts positively effect on the long term and short term retention of learners vocabulary. She concluded that giving strategy awareness can positively improve the learning of the new vocabulary and learners are able to retrieve new information. In contrast to rote rehearsing strategy to vocabulary learning, Eshagi Sardroud (2013) conducted a study to explore the effect of deep strategies like contextual guessing, keyword, metacognitive strategy and semantic mapping on vocabulary retention. 32 post intermediate learners divided into two groups of experimental and control. After the treatment period, the analyzed data of teacher made vocabulary post-test revealed that experimental group achieved higher vocabulary retention; moreover it also revealed that female were more receptive for vocabulary training than male learners. Bowers and Kirby (2010) conducted a study on the morphological word structure on learner's vocabulary knowledge. Experimental used of morphological word structure as a vocabulary learning strategy and another one did not use. Results indicated that the experimental group made better use of vocabulary knowledge in learning new vocabulary through morphological word structure technique. All of the above studies had been proved the effects of VLS on the vocabulary acquisition. As well as learning, retention and recall of learnt items is important. In order to learn and better retention of words learners as well as teacher should use of VLS that can help learners to better comprehending a text as well as better memorizing new vocabularies and lead to retrieving learnt items.

### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The present study aims to answers the following questions: (1) To what extent do encoding and rehearsal strategies influence EFL learners' vocabulary recall among pre-intermediate EFL learners? (2) To what extent do encoding and rehearsal strategies influence EFL learners' vocabulary retention among pre-intermediate EFL learners?

In the present study researchers will use encoding and rehearsal strategies which are subcategories of memory strategies, to help learner developing EFL vocabulary and lead to better retention and recall into their memories.

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### ***Participants***

A total of 60 pre-intermediated EFL students (15 males and 45 females) from Islamic Azad University of Ramhormoz, Khuzestan enrolled in the course of general English participated in this research project. They were selected among 120 EFL university students (mostly senior)

based on their availability and willingness. To determined participants' homogeneity, a sample of proficiency test (Richards et al, 2008) was administered. Those participants whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as the participants of the study. Based on the result of the homogeneity test sixty students (male, n=15 & female, n=45) who met the necessary condition were chosen for this study. The students non-randomly divided into 3 groups of 20 (two experimental groups and one control group) (male, n=5 & female, n=15). The ages of participants range from 19 to 30. They were selected on the basis of their availability and they had been studying English at least for five years up to the time of the study. They were in the second semester of their study. Through their performance on proficiency test those learners whose scores are one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as a homogeneous group. A Pre-test and two post tests were given to the participants before and after instruction. The reliability of all tests was calculated through KR-21 formula.

**Instrumentation**

In this study, the data were generally collected through a number of instruments which are as follows: proficiency test, teacher made pre-test and two post-test. First of all, a sample of proficiency test (Richards et al, 2008) including fifty items in form of multiple-choice was administered to 120 participants to identify their homogeneity. During a month of treatment, the participants practiced eight passages of the textbook "Active Skills for Reading 1" developed by Anderson (2007). Finally, the post-test was administered immediately after the treatment period which took eight sessions to assess the participants' recall effects. Two weeks later, they were participated again in that post-test as a retention test. The time for recall and retention post-tests was about forty minutes. Their reliability indexes were met through Kudor-Richardson 21 formula as (0.759, 0.814, & 0.790) for homogeneity test, Pre-test, Post-tests respectively).

**Materials**

The materials in this study that presented to all participants consisted of eight reading text selected from unit one to eight of the textbook "Active Skills for Reading 2 developed by Anderson (2007). This textbook was used among the students at the pre-intermediate level. Before the beginning of the treatment, 40 vocabularies were selected from the first eight units of this book. The main criteria for vocabulary selection were based on the key words used in the exercises of each unit.

**Procedure**

In this study, 120 (male and female) at pre intermediate level of non-English majors' students that studied in the second semester of Islamic Azad University, in Ramhormoz, Iran- participated in this research. Participant's selection was based on their availability and willingness. In order to estimate their proficiency level, they took a proficiency test. A according to their performance on proficiency test, 60 participants (F=45, M=15) who their scores were one standard deviation above or below the mean with the same or near homogeneity were choose for study. Then they non-randomly divided into three groups, two experimental groups and one control group, each group consisted of five male and fifteen female. These three groups were equal in term of number and material. The instruction for this study lasted eight sessions, twenty minutes a session, twice a week, in a period of about one month. All three groups took 8 texts selected from the first eight units from Active Skills for Reading: Book 1 (pre-Intermediate level) developed by Anderson (2007). The total number of 40 words (five words per session) were selected and presented to learners of all three groups during the instruction period. The experimental and control groups were assigned the same materials, time of instruction and number. However, the techniques of teaching vocabulary were different. The first group was instructed through of rehearsal strategies that word list worked as a technique in the classroom, the second group was instructed through encoding strategy that word structure worked and the third group was not instructed by any strategies as rehearsal or encoding.

Before instruction, the researchers explained that it was part of a research project and participating to the end of month as well as use of specific strategy which worked in their groups were necessary for the final results. In order to determine participant's vocabulary knowledge all of them were took teacher-made test as a pre-test consisted of thirty five questions in the form of multiple choices about forty minutes. At the beginning of each session, all the participants were presented just five words because the focus of this study was on the effectiveness of two VLS on the learner's achievement not size or number of presenting new words. It also might motivated learners to leaning and decreased their problems came from facing host of unknown words.

In the first group, participants taught through rehearsal strategy. Word list as a subcategory of rehearsal strategies used as a technique in this group. A list of five new words in L2 and L1 equivalents as well as word pronunciation, and synonyms presented at the beginning of each session.

*Using Word Lists as a Part of Rehearsal Strategy*

- New words were thought through rote memorization, and repetition
- There was not the necessity use of context (reading passage) and direct instruction for this group
- Learners' drill were reading, repeating, reviewing, and using new words in sentence (make new sentence)
- L1 equivalents were used to better comprehending

For example: teacher asked learner to read words on the board L2 vocabulary: Competition L1 equivalent رقابت (translation)

Synonyms: (contestation)

Use of new vocabulary in a sentence (Use in context) Speaking is a way of communication.

*Table 1: Example of using word list*

New word	phonetic	Part of speech	L1 equivalent	synonym	Use in sentence
producer	ˈprədʒu:sər	noun	تهیه کننده	maker	He is a producer
competition	Kam.pə'tlʃh.n	noun	رقابت	contestation	My brother has a football competition
careful	keə.fl	adjective	بادقت	aware	Ali is a careful driver.

In Second group of participants taught through encoding strategy. Using word structure as a component of encoding strategy was used as an instruction technique in this group. The aims of this strategy was on analyzing word parts ,to identifying root and affixes which can attach to the base form of the word and change its meaning and increased the extent of vocabulary. In this group, direct instruction was needed as learners should determine the kind of vocabulary as a noun, verb, adjective, or adverb. Teacher did not present words in isolation learning new vocabulary was through reading passage so context is necessary. At first, teacher talked about part of speech and provided some example for each of them. Then a list of common prefixes and suffixes in English language presented to learners. While reading text passage, they learnt new vocabularies. The identification of vocabularies with same word structure was done individually or in pair work activities. Learners taught to analyze words into some meaningful parts as roots and its prefix or suffix. For the next session, learners were asked to provide some example of new vocabularies in sentence. They were actively involved in the learning process. This method could be useful for developing learners' autonomy. For example: develop and developments were two words in a text. During the instruction period participant learnt that *ent, er, tion* in the development, worker, collection are noun making ending affixes that can change part of speech (verb to noun).

*Using Word Structure as a Part of Encoding Strategy*

- Learning new word through analyzing its structure
- Specific instruction was given by teacher within context
- Learners find new word through the text
- Learning is not just root memorization (meaningful learning)

The third group as a control group did not use any specific strategies. All learners in control group taught through conventional way such as translation, definition, or dictation. After the instruction period, two post-test administered. Immediate post-test as a recall test administered immediately after the end of instruction. Two weeks later, all groups took another post-test as a retention test. Their reliability will be met through Kudor-Richardson 21 formula.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

*Data analysis*

The collected data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 17). In order to determine whether using word list and word structure as two vocabulary learning strategies are effective on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary development, once the scores of the pre-test and two post-tests (immediate and delayed recall tests) were obtained, the means and standard deviation of the Scores of 60 participants were calculated. The One-way ANOVA was used to calculate the data. Post-hoc Scheffe test was used to indicate the potentialities of significant differences between the variables. SPSS Statistics were conducting to analyze the data. The level of significance was set to be .05. Descriptive statistics was conducted to pre-test and two post-tests to determine if there is any difference between the rehearsal group and encoding group regarding the recall and retention of newly learned vocabulary.

*Results of the Pre-tests among Three Groups*

First, the data obtained through a sample of language proficiency test as a homogeneity test was analyzed statistically. In this analysis, the homogeneity of groups determined based on their levels of second vocabulary language knowledge. Thus, the students' overall scores on the test were collected from their records. The reliability of the tests was calculated by KR.21 formula for pre-test (r=0.759), for immediate Post-test (r=0.814) and delayed post-test(r=0.790).After the instruction period, participants took an immediate and delayed post-test consisting 35 multiple-choice items. Table 2 represents Descriptive statistics such as, means and standard deviations which computed to summarize the participants' scores on the pre-test.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics for the Pre-test

No.	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min	Max
1	Rehearsal	20	18.3500	1.44154	16.00	21.00
2	Encoding	20	18.4000	1.36665	16.00	21.00
3	Control	20	17.5000	1.98773	14.00	21.00
Total		60	13.5714	1.60786	9.00	19.00

Table 2 displays the number of participants in each group, mean scores, and standard deviations for each group which administering on pre-test. As the data indicted the means for rehearsal, encoding and control groups respectively were 18.35, 18.40, and 17.50. So there were not significant differences in students' performances on pre-test among three groups.

*Table 3: One-way ANOVA on Pre-test*

Scores pre-test					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10.233	2	5.117	1.617	.207
Within Groups	180.350	57	3.164		
Total	190.583	59			

One-way ANOVA was conducted to assess if there is a significant difference between the three groups regarding their vocabulary level before the instruction periods. The test was also used as a base to estimate the improvement of each group by comparing it with the post-test. As the data indicated in Table 3, the P value is .207, which is far above the 0.05 level of significance. Since the observed F (1.617) is less than critical F (3.118), therefore, there is not a significant difference among the participants of the three groups on the pre-test; and it indicates that they are homogeneous.

***Results of the Immediate Post-tests among the Groups***

The first research question of this study was whether encoding and rehearsal strategies influence on developing EFL learners' vocabulary recall among pre-intermediate EFL learners. To do this aim, an immediate post-test was administered to see the amount of vocabulary recall of students and to reject or confirm the first null hypothesis. Then students' scores on immediate post-test among three groups were analyzed statistically. Table 4 shows descriptive statistics regarding the three groups' performances on immediate post-tests as the students' recall test.

*Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for the Immediate Post-tests*

No.	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min	Max
1	Rehearsal	20	24.1000	2.04939	21.00	28.00
2	Encoding	20	25.1000	2.69307	21.00	31.00
3	Control	20	23.0500	2.30503	19.00	27.00
Total		60	13.5714	1.60786	19.00	31.00

As the data indicated in the above table, after instruction period, students performed better on immediate test than the pre-test. However, the means of immediate post-test were 24.10, 25.10 and 23.05 for rehearsal, encoding and control groups respectively. Encoding group with mean of 25.10 performed better than the other groups on the immediate post-test. The maximum scores for the immediate test are 28 for rehearsal, 31 for encoding, and 27 for control groups. The second One-way ANOVA was used to see whether there was any difference between means of the three groups after the instruction, and which of the three groups performed better on the immediate post-test which led to recall vocabulary easily. Table 5 shows the result of the One-way ANOVA for the immediate post-test of three groups.

*Table 5. One-way ANOVA (Immediate Post-tests)*

**ANOVA**

Scores post-test					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	42.033	2	21.017	3.761	.029
Within Groups	318.550	57	5.589		
Total	360.583	59			

Table 5 illustrates a significant difference among the 3 groups regarding the vocabulary Scores At the end of the instruction period on immediate posttest. Since Observed F ( $F=3.761$ ,  $p < .05$ ) is greater than the Critical F ( $F_c=3.118$ ), therefore the difference between the groups was significant. So, the first null hypothesis stating there is not any relationship between encoding and rehearsal strategies in developing EFL Learners' vocabulary recall is rejected and it is obvious that these two vocabulary learning strategies effect on the learners' vocabulary achievement.

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

Table 6: Post-hoc Scheffe test- Multiple Comparisons (Immediate Post-tests)

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A	B	-1.00000	.74757	.414	-2.8790	.8790
	C	1.05000	.74757	.379	-.8290	2.9290
B	A	1.00000	.74757	.414	-.8790	2.8790
	C	2.05000*	.74757	.029	.1710	3.9290
C	A	-1.05000	.74757	.379	-2.9290	.8290
	B	-2.05000*	.74757	.029	-3.9290	-.1710

A: Rehearsal group      B: Encoding group      C: Control group

The multiple comparison of the results show no significant difference between group A (rehearsal ) and the other 2 groups, i.e. group B (encoding ) and group C (control) respectively; but group B shows a significant difference from the other groups in which the level of significant was .029. Also the control group shows a significant difference from encoding group's level of significant.

**Results of the Delayed Post-tests**

The second research question of this study was whether encoding and rehearsal strategies influence on developing EFL learners' vocabulary retention among pre-intermediate EFL learners. The second post-test as a delayed post-test was administered to all groups to answer question and to reject or confirm the second null hypothesis. Table 6 illustrates the descriptive statistics in delayed post-test among three Groups:

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics for the Delayed Post-test

No.	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min	Max
1	Rehearsal	20	21.6500	2.04939	19.00	25.00
2	Encoding	20	23.1500	2.69307	20.00	30.00
3	Control	20	20.0500	2.30503	19.00	27.00
Total		60	13.5714	1.60786	16.00	25.00

Table 7 shows descriptive statistics of delayed post-test among three groups. The mean and standard deviations of three groups on delayed post-test was  $M=21.65$  and  $SD=2.04$ ,  $M=23.15$  and  $SD=2.69$  and  $M=20.05$  and  $SD=2.30$  for rehearsal, encoding and control groups respectively. It means that vocabulary development regarding retention of vocabulary in encoding group was significantly better than the other groups. By a mean's comparison of three groups' performances on immediate post-test, it is obvious that students' overall performance on immediate post-test was significantly better than delayed post-test. As the mean of rehearsal, encoding and control groups on immediate test was 24.10 25.10 23.05, in contrast to their means on delayed post-test that was 21.65, 23.15 and 20.50 for rehearsal, encoding and control groups respectively. However, in this two tests, encoding group performed better than other groups; that is encoding group was able to recall and retention of vocabularies better than rehearsal or control groups. The following Table illustrates the results of the third One-way ANOVA for delayed post-test among the three groups:

Table 8: One-way ANOVA (Delayed Post-tests)

Scores post-test					
	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	96.133	2	48.067	10.298	.000
Within Groups	266.050	57	4.668		
Total	362.183	59			

Table 8 shows the statistical analysis of One-way ANOVA on the three groups' Delayed post-test scores. As data indicate, Since Observed

Table 9: Post-hoc Scheffe test- Multiple Comparisons(Delayed post-tests)

(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
A	B	-1.50000	.68319	.099	-3.2172	.2172
	C	1.60000	.68319	.073	-.1172	3.3172
B	A	1.50000	.68319	.099	-.2172	3.2172
	C	3.10000*	.68319	.000	1.3828	4.8172
C	A	-1.60000	.68319	.073	-3.3172	.1172
	B	-3.10000*	.68319	.000	-4.8172	-1.3828

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

A: Rehearsal group      B: Encoding group      C: Control group

F (F=10.29, p<0.05) is less than Critical F (Fc=3.118), there is a significant difference between groups. Therefore, the second null hypothesis stating there is not any relationship between encoding and rehearsal strategies in developing EFL Learners' vocabulary rejected is rejected.

Table 9 shows the second multiple comparisons of the results for delayed post-test. As the data indicates no differences observed in group A and other groups. As it is observes in second row, such a difference is observed when comparing performance of the participants in groups B (encoding) with other groups (sig=.000). In the third row, the control group also shows a difference from encoding group's level of significant.

### Discussion

In order to determine the effect of the encoding and rehearsal strategies on retention and recall on the development of English vocabularies, two sets of post-test administered to participants. Moreover, it aims to examine if learners are able to retain and recall new words better by using encoding strategy or rehearsal strategy. The results of pretest, immediate and delayed post-tests indicated not only using of VLSs developed learners' vocabulary knowledge but also participants at the encoding group were better to retain and recall of material than other groups. The discussion of analyzed data it should be address to research questions and null hypotheses of this study.

a) To what extent do encoding and rehearsal strategies influence on developing EFL learners' vocabulary recall among pre-intermediate EFL learners?

All participants administered by an immediate post-test to identify their recall. Generally, all groups' vocabulary knowledge developed through instruction period. As shown in Table 3, the means of two experimental groups on the immediate test were greater than control group. Moreover, the results of comparison between groups' performances on pre-test and immediate post-test supported that after instruction period there was significance difference between the means of pre-tests and post-tests which led to developing learners' vocabulary knowledge. In another words, encoding and rehearsal strategies as the two VLSs effect on the developing learners vocabulary knowledge regarding recall of vocabulary. Therefore, the first null hypothesis of this study that claimed there is not any relationship between encoding and rehearsal strategies in developing EFL learner's vocabulary recall among pre-intermediate EFL learners was rejected.

Based on the finding of this study, it can be claimed using of two VLSs during instruction period was main reason for the better performance

of experimental groups and their effective vocabulary development. The encoding group performed better than rehearsal group but their difference was not great. However, some researchers rejected rehearsal strategy as an appropriate way to learn vocabulary especially for long time (Wei, 2007) but Many EFL learners frequently use of word repetition and memorization to learn vocabulary. One possible answer to applicability of rehearsal strategy might be learning vocabulary through memorization is common among language learners yet. Word repetition is a favorable condition in learning vocabulary (Nation, 2001). Vocabulary learning through lists of words is useful when a large numbers of vocabularies need to be learning in short periods of time especially in early stages of language learning (Nation, 1980).

The finding of this study is consistent with the results obtained from the research conducted by Baleghzadeh and Ashoori (2010) conducted a study to determine the impact of two subcategories of encoding and rehearsal strategies, keyword, and word list on the immediate retention of learners' vocabularies. The results of immediate post-test revealed that the keyword method performed better on recall compared to the word list method. However, the finding of research conducted by Herusatoto (2011) shown that learners who learning words in isolation (word list) retained the target words and the meanings better than those who learning through context (using contextual clue).

b) To what extent do encoding and rehearsal strategies influence on developing EFL learners' vocabulary retention among pre-intermediate EFL learners?

The delayed test was the second post-test of the current study that administered to determine the effect of encoding and rehearsal strategies on the learners' vocabulary development as well as retention of materials. Results of One-way ANOVA indicated statistically significant difference between the experimental groups performing on the delayed post-test regarding retention of vocabulary. It also reveals that the two experimental groups performed better than the control one. Moreover, encoding group performed highly better than the other groups. Therefore, the participants who were instructed through encoding strategies retained vocabularies better than those who used rehearsal strategies. Therefore, the second null hypothesis that claimed the relationship between encoding and rehearsal strategies in developing EFL learner's vocabulary retention among pre-intermediate EFL learners was also rejected.

The finding of this study is consistent with the results obtained from the research conducted by Baleghzadeh and Ashoori (2010) concerning the significant effect of key word method on immediate retention of learners' vocabularies rather than word list method. In another study conducted by Sadeghi, Nasrollahi, Mazandarani and Mesgar (2011), they concluded that that experimental group which trained through analyzing words to their functional and grammatical affixes positively performed vocabulary learning better than control one.

There are various reasons that could be attributed to the better performance of learners in the encoding group. First, as previously mentioned; the word encoding refers to some meaningful connection between what you have learned and what you already know, in other words learning through meaningful connection of past and new material is the main part of encoding. Chastain (1988) claims that "for longest retention, new knowledge must be associated with previous knowledge, that is, it must be tied up to existing information nodes in the cognitive network" (p, 42). So learning vocabulary is not matter of rote memorization such as rehearsal strategies. In this line Lawson and Hogben (1996) state "Rehearsal strategy is important for maintaining a particular item but not be very effective for long-term use" (p.104). Another reason of success of encoding material might be learner involvement and attention. In encoding group, after the first session of instruction through word structure method, all of participants actively involved in learning process. For example as soon as teacher wrote new word "Communication" on the board, learners were analyzed parts of word e.g., **compete** as a root and **ation** as the noun making suffix individually or pair work.

Context is another reason for superiority of encoding to rehearsal strategies in this study. Rehearsal group was presented a list of words consisting of words' definition, pronunciation, synonyms, and sample of new word in sentence. Everything was ready and learners were only to memorize vocabularies through repetition. Context (reading passage) was not important while in the encoding group, a text passage was read by teacher and learners focused on the new words which were bold. After the instruction they had to find other word which were making through affixing process.

As previously mentioned there are some factors affecting on the VLSs selection e.g., learning style, age, motivation, language proficiency, gender. In the current study, learners' age and their background knowledge were affected on learning in some way. Both in pre-test and post-tests performances, older learners did better than younger one. It seems that adult learners performed better in vocabulary learning than younger one. Another important factor was their background experiences on the language learning. In this study, the range of English language learning was 5 to 8 years. Those learners with more language learning experiences performed better either in encoding group or rehearsal one.

## CONCLUSION

Vocabulary is known as an important parts of language learning. Most the time, EFL learners are complained that learning host of words in a short time is really difficult. One way to learn vocabulary effectively is providing different techniques and methods for learners. VLSs are appropriate ways in presenting variety of suitable methods during vocabulary learning process. In the current study, we investigated the role of encoding and rehearsal strategies in developing vocabulary regarding the learners' retention and recall. After the analyzed data, it can be stated that two experimental groups that used of VLSs were shown to be more effective in L2 vocabulary development. Since, Both of them were affected on the retention and recall of learning vocabularies, Therefore two null hypotheses of this study were rejected. Moreover, the findings of current study confirmed that encoding group outperformed in vocabulary development concerning recall and retention than other groups. In addition to important role of VLSs on learners' vocabulary development, although we also need to stated that learning vocabulary is a very personal activity and learners' ability is important to their L2 vocabulary comprehension and development.

Many language teachers in EFL contexts teach vocabulary in a traditional way. In this situation, EFL learners have to learn in just passive way because teacher is responsible of the classroom, presenting of strategies or technique and materials as well. It is better that learners become responsible for their learning by participating in the selection and presenting of method and learning materials through use of VLSs. According to finding of this study, it can be claimed that use of VLSs can lead to effective vocabulary learning. Teachers are recommended to benefit from varieties of materials and techniques rather than just using of traditional ways of teaching vocabularies. Besides, the results of this study suggested those learners trained through encoding strategies learn vocabularies in term of recall and retention better than rehearsal group and control group. Therefore, it is recommended to incorporate this strategy into learners' vocabulary learning process. Before using VLSs, learners should be aware of the significant role of VLSs by their teachers. Finally, as previously said, some important issues related to selection of VLS should take into account such as age, gender, background knowledge, learning style or learning strategies.

One suggestion for further studies is that the current study can be done in other geographical areas because this study was conducted at Islamic Azad University of Ramhormoz. Also this study investigated the role of encoding and rehearsal strategies on vocabulary development through reading course among EFL learners at pre-intermediate level. In order to achieve generalizable results, the same studies can be done in other language skills such as writing, speaking or listening among other learners with elementary, intermediate or advance level of knowledge and other VLSs can be used as well. It also suggested taking into account the possible role of gender and its effect on vocabulary's development.

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VERB AFFIXATION OF LAMPUNG LANGUAGE IN KUNTARA RAJA NITI BOOK AND TEXTBOOKS:  
A MORPHOLOGY STUDY

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**ABSTRACT**

This research explains morphologically the verb affixation of Lampung Language in Kuntara Raja Niti book (1901) and textbooks. In the explanation, the data which contain verb affixes in Kuntara Raja Niti book and textbooks are collected, analyzed and determined in order to find the types of the affixes. As results, this research has found six prefixes, seventeen circumfixes and two infixes of Lampung language verbs.

**KEYWORDS:** Verb Affixation, Lampung Language, Morphology, Affixes, Qualitative

**INTRODUCTION**

Lampung language is one of the local languages in Indonesia, which is still used and maintained by Lampung people. Lampung language is one of the world languages which has their own letters called 'Had Lampung' or Lampung alphabets. There are two main dialects found in Lampung language; there are "Abung" and "Pesisir." In the development, Van Royen cited in Hadikusuma (1988) has divided Lampung dialects into A and O dialects. It is called A dialect because the vocabularies ended with /a/ vowel whereas it is called O dialect because ended with /o/ vowel. This A dialect sometimes called 'Pesisir dialect.' This dialect is found and used in Belalau, Peminggir Teluk Semangka, Teluk Lampung, Way Kanan, Sungkai, Komering, Krui, Melinting, dan Pubian while O dialect is found and used in Tulang Bawang (Menggala), Northern of Lampung, Centre of Lampung, and Eastern of Lampung.

Research about Lampung language has been done by Walker (1976). He published a book title "A Grammar Of The Lampung Language: The Pesisir Dialect Of Waylima." In that book Walker describes words, utterance and morphological rules of Indonesia language which is freely used in the Lampung language contexts especially for a person who lives in Lampung or often having contact with Lampung people. Other linguists who have already done a research for Lampung language are Nazaruddin (1988) who describes about the syntax of "Pesisir" dialect, Sudirman (2006) who describes about geography dialect and found variations of phonemes in Lampung affixes and Wetty (1992) who describes the morphology of Abung dialect. In her research, Wetty describes the development of part of speech in Lampung language and she does not found any circumfixes in Abung dialect.

Based on the researches that have been done before, there is no specific research in morphology that concerned with verb affixation. This research tries to describe the affixation of verb in Kuntara Raja Niti book which contains original text of Lampung language and using middle school textbooks from Warsiyem (2007) as other reference for modern text of Lampung language.

This research will focus on morphemes. The area of grammar concerned with the structure of words and with relationships between words involving the morphemes that compose them is technically called morphology, from the Greek word *morphe* 'form, shape'; and morphemes can be thought of as the minimal units of morphology (Katamba, 1993; Aronoff and Fudeman, 2005; Carstairs and Mc.Charty, 2002). There are two kinds of morphemes. Morphemes that can stand on their own are called free morphemes, and ones that cannot are bound morphemes (Tadjuddin: 2003). However, a single word may constitute several morphemes for examples cited from Fromkin and Rodman (1998):

- One morpheme : *boy, desire*
- Two morphemes : *boy + ish, desire + able*
- Three morphemes : *boy + ish + ness, desire + able + ity*
- Four morphemes: *gentle + man + li + ness, un + desire + able + ity*
- More than four: *un + gentle + man + li + ness, anti + dis + establishment + ari + an + ism*

From the examples above, morphemes like *boy, desire, gentle* and *man* may constitute words by themselves. These are free morphemes. Other morphemes like *-ish, -ness, -ly, dis-, trans-* and *-un* are always parts of the words. These morphemes called bound morphemes or it can be called affixes.

The affixes can be separated into parts such as prefix, suffix, infixes and circumfixes. English language only has prefix and suffix. However, infix and circumfix occur in some language. Prefix is an affix that occur before a morpheme (like *en-* in *enlarge*), suffixes is an affix which occur following a morpheme (like *-ance* in *performance, -ness* in *whiteness*, and *-able* in *readable*), Infix is an affix which inserted into other morphemes (Bontoc morphemes, spoken in Philipines: *fikas* "Strong" which is a noun/adjective will change into *fumikas* "to be strong" in order to be a verb) and circumfix is an affix which attached to another morpheme both initially and finally (Chikasaw, a Muskogean language spoken in Oklahoma: *chokma* "he is good" as affirmative becomes *ik + chokm + o* as "he is not good" as negative). (Fromkin and Rodman, 1998; Aronoff and Fudeman, 2005; Carstairs and Mc.Charty, 2002). The process of affix attachment to a morpheme is called affixation.

In addition, many morphemes also have different pronunciations, called allomorphs Carstairs and Mc.Charty (2002), the choice between them being determined by the context. For example, *-s* addition for plural words in English has different sound such as: [s] (as in *cats or lamps*), [z] (as in *dogs or days*), and [iz] or [əz] (as in *horses or judges*). Verb affixation in Lampung language is the most productive affixation in Lampung language. Therefore, this research will only focus on that matter.

**METHODOLOGY**

This research uses Descriptive-qualitative method. The method has been seen by Bogdan and Taylor as a procedure that result descriptive data such as verbal or written words (Moleong, 1993:3). Descriptive terms suggest that this research conducted based on the facts or phenomenon which is textually noted. The data in this study were collected through observe and note methods. It is accordance with what is stated by Mahsun (2005: 90-92). This collecting method was called observe method because the way to collect the data was done textually by observe the verb affixation. Furthermore, the data were noted and then divided based on the their topic.

For data analysis, this research uses intra-lingual equivalence. In this step, the data of Lampung language verbs were compared with Indonesian Language verbs. In the presentation of the data, the analysis will be presented in two ways, namely: (a) formulation using

common words, including the use of technical terminology by describing the process of verb affixation, and the result of verb formation. (b) formulation that uses signs and symbols.

The examples of signs and symbols are: (1) curly braces ({}), which is used to mark the morphological unit in a morpheme. It usually a bound morpheme, (2) the square brackets ([]) indicates that the unit inside of the brackets is a phonetic unit and it is used in the field of phonology to symbolize a particular sound that does not have any status of phoneme, (3) arrow (→) is used to indicate changes in verb form, (4) a plus sign (+) indicates the addition of the form, (5) single quotation marks (') indicates the meaning and (6) the symbol letters such as abbreviation like BL indicates Lampung language.

## DATA ANALYSIS

### 1. Prefixation of {N-}

The research shows that prefixation of {N-} is commonly found in Lampung language verb. The prefix {N-} has five allomorphs: ng-, n-, ny-, m- and nge-.

#### a. Prefixation of {N-} with ng- allomorph

{N-} prefix becomes *ng-* is formed when {N-} joined the base that begins with vowels (a, i, u, e, o) and the vowels then assimilated. In addition, prefix {N-} becomes *ng-* formed when joining the base begins with consonant [k] then [k] is assimilated. For examples:

- {N-} + ator → **ngator** 'to manage'  
(19/3) Pandai *ngator* Pengetuha, Penglaku.
- {N-} + injam → **nginjam** 'to borrow'  
(11/1) Mak munsu *nginjam* bidak.
- {N-} + unut → **ngunut** 'to find'  
(4/5) Jual berenang serta kajang, dan Penyimbang ni ngemik gerok, mak *ngunut* kekurangan di humbul barih. Tani sina ngulah pukandang jenong tani sinapun.
- {N-} + emik → **ngemik** 'to possess'  
(4/5) Jual berenang serta kajang, dan Penyimbang ni *ngemik* gerok, mak ngunut kekurangan di humbul barih. Tani sina ngulah pukandang jenong tani sinapun.
- {N-} + osegh → **ngosegh** 'to expel'  
(19) .... Belanda *ngoseghia* ...
- {N-} + kunci → **ngunci** 'to lock'  
(4/5) *Ngunci* kahandak.

#### b. Prefixation of {N-} with Ny- allomorph

{N-} prefix becomes *Ny-* is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with consonant [s] and [c], both of the [s] and [c] consonants is assimilated. For examples:

- {N-} + *sahut* → **nyahut** 'to reply'  
(13) Maka *nyahut* Temenggung Singa Pati : "Ya Gustiku sepatah kata Tuanku akan ku turut".
- {N-} + cambuk → **nyambuk** 'to whip'  
(15/4) Sai nyutuk makkung tekas lengan ni mena *nyambuk*.
- {N-} + cuba → **nyuba** 'to try'  
(53) Ngeramat *nyuba* baya jenong hukum sinapun sai kara nyau ni hati.
- {N-} + sukak → **nyukak** 'to change'  
(60) Maka wat ngemaling di mahan mak kenebok, suwa debingi, makkung munsu *nyukak* hejongan sai kedau mahan sina begawoh atau hejongan mahan ni.
- {N-} + sangka → **nyangka** 'to suppose'  
(68) Maka perkara sangka-menyangka, teduh meneduh, ki sai *nyangka* kalah ya dihukum kebalik tali reti ni ya nyukak di sai kakak.

#### c. Prefixation of {N-} with n- allomorph

{N-} prefix becomes *n-* is formed when {N-} joined with base that begins with consonant [t] and then [t] consonant is assimilated. Contoh:

- {N-} + *tayuh* → **nayuh** 'do tayuh'  
(10/12) Mak dapok mak di ajak sai tuha lapah *nayuh*.
- {N-} + tutu → **nutu** 'to pound'  
(13/6) Hun *nutu* gelepung mak ngurau ya.
- {N-} + tenggalan → **nenggalan** 'to consider'  
(96) *Nenggalan* di tengah bingi
- {N-} + terima → **nerima** 'to accept'  
(48/3) Jelema miskin kira-kira haga *nerima* suduk.

16. {N-} + tinjuk → **ninjuk** 'to catch'  
 (59) Maka meranai *ninjuk* muli, sampai ditunggang ni kuruk pulan lebih sanga pungenahan, kejuju sampai ngebiyan anying ki muni-muni muli sina dibatok meranai sina, dan muli sina kira makkung cinta atau akil balikh sina ninjuk adok ni, sanga mahan muli sina lain kedau haga, atau makkung suka, ki tubas jadi, meranai sina ngebayar beli ni ngepih dan rega bedak lunyuh ni rial sawik harung bah menurut pangkat muli sina, ya nyamporkon badan ni di kanca pereda ni.

**d. Prefixation of {N-} with m- allomorph**

{N-} prefix becomes *m-* is formed when {N-} joined the base that begins with vowels (a, i, u, e, o) and the vowels not assimilated. In addition, {N-} becomes *m-* is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with [h] and [p] consonants, [h] and [p] consonants is assimilated. For examples:

17. {N-} + *unggak* → **munggak** 'to raise'  
 (40/4)Maka Ratu Majapahit *munggak* di pusaban ...
18. {N-} + hinok → **minok** 'to stay overnight'  
 (15/4) ... dipa lagi rang *minok*
19. {N-} + pagas → **magas** 'to stab with a spear'  
 (84) Maka wat nyabut gegaman tajam mak permisi pai, maka hulun sai rados disan tekebas nyawa ni ki ya haga *magas* didenda siwa pitis Rp.36,-. Ngeramat nyirang baya jenong hukum sinapun.
20. {N-} + pisol → **misol** 'to slaughter'  
 (100)Tapi ki muli mak suka atau ahli waris ni mak suka nemu kon tian rua musti tian rua jaja-jama *misol* kibau hurik sai, serenta muli, ngemuli muloh merani rena munih, sebab liom malu tian rua, gegoh, cuman meranai tambah nyukak hejongan mahan sina bugawoh sina lebih kerugian ni meranai.
21. {N-} + pekik → **mekik** 'to scream'  
 (12) ... jama bunyi sai *mekik*

**e. Prefixation of {N-} with Nge- allomorph**

{N-} prefix becomes *nge-* is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with all of the consonants except [P, T, K, S, C] then the consonants is not assimilated. Furthermore, {N-} becomes *nge-* can also be formed with the base that begins with [h] (not only for {N-} prefix with *m-* allomorph). However, it differs with *m-*, in {N-} prefix with *nge-* allomorph the [h] consonant not assimilated. For examples:

22. {N-} + jaga → **ngejaga** 'to guard'  
 (10/10)*Ngejaga* rulung.
23. {N-} + lawan → **ngelawan** 'to fight'  
 (25) Ya mula ni kidah pun angguan ni Punyimbang, *ngelawan* adik wari dang kurang pinggung pikir angka jaman mak akhir dang kurang ati-ati angka ni makkung mati, dang kurang angok-angok angka ni lagi dapok.
24. {N-} + hapak → **ngehapak** 'to guide'  
 (30) Sebab ki lapah *ngehapak* jelema buta, napong jaoh bakal tejajan, sebab itu kita berjalan awas-awas, hiwon-hiwon.
25. {N-} + gudok → **ngegudok** 'to stir'  
 (40/4) Sungai bulok dibulok-bulok, Badak purang *ngegudok* kubang, tanoh dikukut ti cakak kon di hulu sina pantangan anak Ratu.
26. {N-} + maling → **ngemaling** 'to steal'  
 (51) Maka perkara maling kak wat bukti kak wat saksi ni dan sai *ngemaling* kak nerima salah, ya laju kilu hukum di Perwatin.

**2. Prefixation of bu- and be-**

Besides {N-} prefix this research found bu- and be- prefixes. Below is the explanation of those prefixes.

**a. Prefixation of Bu-**

Bu-prefix used with the base that begins with consonant and then the consonant is not assimilated. For examples:

27. Bu- + *sesat* → **busesat** 'to go astray'  
 (2/3) Mak *busesat*.
28. Bu- + *langgar* → **bulanggar** 'to have a mosque'  
 (2/4)Mak *bulanggar* atau musigit.
29. Bu- + *geduk* → **bugeduk** 'to have a drum'  
 (2/6) Mak *bugeduk*.
30. Bu- + *kahandak* → **bukahandak** 'to wish'  
 (2/8)Mak *bukahandak*.
31. Bu- + *balah* → **bubalah** 'to speak'  
 (10/3)Simah *bubalah*.

**b. Prefixation of Be-**

*Be-* prefix is used with the base that begins with consonant or vowel and then the consonant or the vowel is not assimilated. For examples:

32. Be- + *iman* → *beiman* 'to have faith'  
(96) ... jelemabeiman ...
33. Be- + *kawan* → *bekawan*. 'to have friend'  
(1) ... bughung sai *bekawan*...
34. Be- + *gughau* → *begughau*... 'to joke'  
(1) lagi *begughau*...
35. Be- + *kaca* → *bekaca* 'to use glass'  
(2) Niku *bekaca* di wai
36. Be- + *bunyi* → *bebunyi* 'to sound'  
(9) Mak beni bel *bebunyi*

**3. Prefixation of ti- and te-**

Besides {N-}, bu- and be- other prefixes found in this research are ti- and te-. Below is the explanation of ti- and te- prefixes.

**a. Prefixation of ti-**

*Ti-* prefix is used with the base that begins with consonant or vowel and then the consonant or the vowel is not assimilated. For examples:

37. Ti- + *urau* → *tiurau* 'called'  
(48) Tetapi kiwat jelema ngan ni nyawakon ya tengenah ni atau ya nengis ni, atau ditangani ni dapok *tiurau* mit Perwatin sina maka ya nemonkon cawa jelema 12 sudi jeno, ampai dapok diterima jadi saksi, maka wat saksi 12 pasal sina tiulah lagi ditaksir Perwatin, acak nyaksikon batu, kayu.
38. Ti- + *rerap* → *tirerap* 'cut'  
(54) Maka wat ngemaling bubuahan atau tinanaman, mak tiranting, mak *tirerap* dan mak tigelegai kejuju ni di pinggir rang.
39. Ti- + *gelegai* → *tigelegai* 'shaken'  
(54) Maka wat ngemaling bubuahan atau tinanaman, mak tiranting, mak tirerap dan mak *tigelegai* kejuju ni di pinggir rang.
40. Ti- + *ilik* → *tiilik* 'stepped'  
(74) Maka wat mupika kon hulun, taksir kedo kak bangat ni, dan *tiilik* pangkat sai bedusa sina mari ngitung tepung ni.
41. Ti- + *kejanguh* → *tikejanguh* 'revealed'  
(90) Maka wat *tikejanguh*, taksir pangkat ni sai dihayakni sina, danda mulai rua belas rial harung bah, dan pukakas ni akuk, kiya sai kedau ya sayang di pekakas ni beli ni muloh pira ya timpu ya ngebeli barang sina jono ni.

**b. Prefixation of te-**

*Te-* prefix is used with the base that begins with consonant and then the consonant is not assimilated. For examples:

42. Te- + *jajau* → *tejajau* 'lost'  
(30) Sebab ki lapah ngehepak jelema buta, nepong jawoh bakal *tejajau*, sebab itu kita berjalan awas-awas, hiwon-hiwon.
43. Te- + *tahan* → *tetahan* 'hampered'  
(64) Maka wat jelema ngemaling kena *tetahan* lambung darak, dipinggir rang atau pinggir huma atau randos dihulun burakal, hukum ni diulangkon ni kebelah di sai kedau menahan sina, atau rega ni separo jelema makai tungga bugawoh.
44. Te- + *tutuk* → *tetutuk* 'carried away'  
(76) Maka wat nyerumah barang atau daw belanja atau bulanja atau binatang maka lebon atau luang atau cadang atau pupika, periksa munih api barang ngan sai nyerumah, sina *tetutuk* munih kelebunan, atau cadang atau luang atau pupika, diputus hukum sukak ni nengah rinci jelema haga kecewa.
45. Te- + *liyu* → *teliyu* 'passed'  
(80) Maka wat jelema *teliyu* atau ratong nginjang derani, kejuju ki debingi hulun mak pandai disahaja ni, maka wat kepetenahan tiyuh sina sai mak ketentuan sebab ni, menurut kuntara pasal 79 hukum ni Tupai lalu kelapa jatuh.
46. Te- + *kebas* → *tekebas* 'thrown'  
(84) Maka wat nyabut gegaman tajam mak permisi pai, maka hulun sai randos disan *tekebas* nyawa ni kiya haga magas didenda siwa pitis Rp.36,-. Ngeramat nyirang baya jenong hukum sinapun

**4. Prefixation of di-**

*Di-* prefix is a prefix that is found in Lampung language. Below is the explanation of di- prefix.

**a. Prefiksasi di-**

*di-* prefix used with the base of word that begins with consonant or vowel and then the consonant or the vowel is not assimilated. For examples:

47. Di- + *tetok* → *ditetok* 'cut'

(1) Anak salah anak sai malah, culuk salah culuk *ditetok*.

48. Di- + anggu → **dianggu** 'believed to be'  
(6/3) Wajib juga *dianggu* ki pandai di ram bator.
49. Di- + lulih → **dilulih** 'asked'  
(10/8) Lika *dilulih* muli temui.
50. Di- + guwai → **diguwai** 'performed'  
(11/2) Mak *diguwai* hulun Penglaku.
51. Di- + penah → **dipenah** 'waited'  
(11/4) Mak *dipenah* hun mengan kibau.

### 5. Circumfixation of {N-} ...-ko/-kon/-i

On the last explanation, I have mentioned that {N-} has several allomorphs such as ng-, ny-, n-, m-, and nge-. To form circumfixes, those five allomorphs then joined with the base and ended with -ko/-kon/-i suffixes which result several circumfixes such as: ng-...-ko/-kon, ng-...-i, ny-...-ko/-kon, ny-...-i, n...ko/-kon, n-...-i, m-...-ko/-kon, m-...-i, nge-...-ko/-kon, nge-...-i.

#### a. Circumfixation of Ng-...-ko/-kon

Ng-...-ko/-kon circumfix is formed when {N-} joined the base that begins with vowels (a, i, u, e, o) and the vowels then assimilated then added -ko/-kon suffix. In addition, prefix {N-} becomes circumfix ng-...-ko/-kon is formed when joining the base begins with consonant [k]; [k] is assimilated then added -ko/-kon suffix.

52. {N-} + kuat + -kon → **nguatkon** 'to strength'  
(46) Turunan anak Jawa sai *nguatkon* tata-titi, nangga bumi keraton.
53. {N-} + ingok + -kon → **ningokkon** 'to remember'  
(56) Maka wat barang tinggal, dihulu hulun, sai ngehalu ya rulus hati, mulang barang bugawoh, ram dang mak *ningokkon* hati kedua sai betik, maka sampai jadi pekara, ulah sai ngehalu ya saking piyot, wat saksi ni sai temon nunjukkon, jak sai budakwa maka dihukum barang mulang, dihapik ni kiri-kanan, dimuka dan belakang jadi kelima batang, ngejabok baya jenong hukum sinapun. Ya haga makai pintor jama kedua.
54. {N-} + intar + -ko → **ngintarko** 'to deliver'  
(143) Maka wat ngiring gegoh Kuntara pasal : 88 bedua ngelakuni, dan pok ngiring seperti kuntara pasal 105. Maka ya mulang cuma diterangkan Penyimbang ni bugawoh, sebab ya lapah pinangguran rua telu Penyimbang *ngintarko* ya, ganta ya kak mulang, Penyimbang sina nguraw sampai 5-6 nyawako bedua jara ulang tiyung, cabi ni kak ratong, dan perkara alat ni mak ngedok denda cuman Penyimbang sina ngeguwai hanekan kanan bugawoh, ulah ya haga nemuiko kanca pureda ni.
55. {N-} + ucak + -kon → **ngucakkon** 'to return'  
(124) Ngeramat ngelakung baya jenong hukum sinapun, *ngucakkon* tiyuh kedua, tiyuh kedua humbul atau kebul.
56. {N-} + kenal + -ko → **ngenalko** 'to command'  
(8) ... sai bakas *ngenalko* ...

#### b. Circumfixation of Ng-...-i

Ng-...-i circumfix is formed when {N-} joined the base that begins with vowels (a, i, u, e, o) and the vowels then assimilated then added -i suffix. In addition, prefix {N-} becomes circumfix ng-...-i is formed when joining the base begins with consonant [k]; [k] is assimilated then added -i suffix.

57. {N-} + ubat + -i → **ngubati** 'to cure'  
(83) Maka wat hulun buhaban bedas atau laju mati di jenganan, anjak memenganan, lamon jadi perkara sapa sai kedua makanan atau memasak sina sai kena di hukum *ngubati* ya, atau ngebangun ya dan segala ongkos-ongkos hal sina.
58. {N-} + unyah + -i → **ngunyah** 'to mock'  
(3) ... muli guwai *ngunyah* ...
59. {N-} + aku + -i → **ngakui** 'to admit'  
(41) ... guwaingakui dusa ...
60. {N-} + kuruk + -i → **nguruki** 'to enter'  
(41) Maling sina *nguruki* nuwaku
61. {N-} + koret + -i → **ngoreti** 'to cut with sickle'  
(41) Bebai sina *ngoreti* huma

#### c. Circumfixation of Ny-...-ko/-kon

Ny-...-ko/-kon circumfix is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with consonant [s] and [c], both of the [s] and [c] consonants is assimilated then added with -ko/-kon suffix. For examples:

62. {N-} + cawa + -kon → **nyawakon** 'to say'  
(9/5) ... nganniyawakon...
63. {N-} + saksi + -ko → **nyaksiko** 'to see'

- (48) Tetapi kiwat jelema ngan ni nyawakon ya tengengah ni atau ya nengis ni, atau ditangani ni dapok ti uraw mit Perwatin sina maka ya nemonkon cawa jelema 12 sudi jeno, ampai dapok diterima jadi saksi, maka wat saksi 12 pasal sina tiulah lagi ditaksir Perwatin, acak *nyaksikon* batu, kayu.
64. {N-}+ sani + -kon → *nyanikon* 'to tidy up'
- (65) Maka wat jelema ngemaling kena tinahan dilambung darak, tapi ngan ni ancun, lain gegoh sudi jeno, musti di ulohkon ni unyin atau *nyanikon* pepah ni tinahan sina.
65. {N-}+ sadang + -kon → *nyadangkon* 'to break'
- (133) Jumlah 15 pasal sai *nyadangkon* atau ngebinasakan Pepadun, tetapi ki hantara ..... atau ginging dapok diadilkon segala bagi dan segala tungguan ni ..... hejong ni ki lagi wat Pepadun lam buai sina sai barih.
66. {N-}+ cacak + -kon → *nyacakkon* 'to utter'
- (135) .... ni ya kilu ragam ngumbankon sai dia *nyacakkon* sai disuya ni sina musti diragami Perwatin.

**d. Circumfixation of Ny-...-i**

*Ny-...-i* circumfix is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with consonant [s] and [c], both of the [s] and [c] consonants is assimilated then added with *-i* suffix. For examples:

67. {N-}+ calak + -i → *nyalaki* 'to fool'
- (118) Cepala buha nahun, *nyalaki* anggopni, tapi ki pedom atau buhaban dang dihukum.
68. {N-}+ sahut + -i → *nyahuti* 'to reply'
- (118) Siti *nyahuti* urauan indukna
69. {N-}+ cuba + -i → *nyubai* 'to try'
- (121) Nyak *nyubai* kawai sina
70. {N-}+ cabut + -i → *nyabuti* 'to pull'
- (121) Nyak *nyabuti* uban indukku
71. {N-}+ sirang + -i → *nyirangi* 'to pass'
- (122) Ulat *nyirangi* tumbang...

**e. Circumfixation of n-...-ko/-kon**

*n-...ko/kon* circumfix is formed when {N-} joined with base that begins with consonant [t] and then [t] consonant is assimilated then added *-ko/-kon* suffix. For examples:

72. {N-}+ temui + -kon → *nemuikon* 'to found'
- (4/1) *Nemuikon* hulun tandang, atau himpun manuk.
73. {N-}+ temon + -kon → *nemonkon* 'to correct'
- (48) Tetapi kiwat jelema ngan ni nyawakon ya tengengah ni atau yenengis ni, atau ditangani ni dapok ti uraw mit Perwatin sina maka ya *nemonkon* cawa jelema 12 sudi jeno, ampai dapok diterima jadi saksi, maka wat saksi 12 pasal sina tiulah lagi ditaksir Perwatin, acak nyaksikon batu, kayu.
74. {N-}+ tunjuk + -ko → *nunjukko* 'to show'
- (56) Maka wat barang tinggal, dihulu hulun, sai ngehalu ya rulus hati, mulang barang bugawoh, ram dang mak ngingokkon hati kedua sai betik, maka sampai jadi pekara, ulah sai ngehalu ya saking piyot, wat saksi ni sai temon *nunjukkon*, jak sai budakwa maka dihukum barang mulang, dihapik ni kiri-kanan, dimuka dan belakang jadi kelima batang, ngejabok baya jenong hukum sinapun. Ya haga makai pintor jama kedua.
75. {N-}+ tegi + -kon → *negikon* 'to build'
- (123) Maka wat *negikon* linggis, cepala nyukak kepunggor, nuruikon linggis cepala nyukak kubor, ki sampai tekas anjak pungi ni di tengah tiyuh, hukum ni musti diakuk Penyimbang tiyuh sina linggis ni.
76. {N-}+ terang + -kon → *nerangkon* 'to explain'
- (134) Supaya gegoh sina mula didenda rasan ki mak mampu nyukak ya sina dilupukkon jadi padangan Batin Semerga, ahli waris ni busai lupuk dia cuma mesol kibau hurik *nerangkon* sai jadi padangan sina, pupadun ni tinggal sipa helau ni sina mak lungkap lagi, habis perkara ngampang.

**f. Circumfixation of n-...-i**

*n-...-i* circumfix is formed when {N-} joined with base that begins with [t] consonant and then [t] consonant is assimilated then added *-i* suffix. For examples:

77. {N-}+ timbak + -i → *nimbaki* 'to shot'
- (19) ... Belanda *nimbakirakyat* ...
78. {N-}+ tutu + -i → *nutui* 'to pound'
- (20) Hun *nutui* pari
79. {N-}+ timpa + -i → *nimpai* 'to press'
- (21) Dang *nimpai* kukut ku
80. {N-}+ tepuk + -i → *nepuki* 'to tap'
- (21) Ia *nepuki* pok pedom
81. {N-}+ tutuk + -i → *nutuki* 'to follow'
- (22) Ulun tuha selalu *nutuki* hagana sana ganta

**g. Circumfixation of m...-ko/-kon**

*m...-ko/-kon* circumfix is formed when {N-} joined the base that begins with vowels (a, i, u, e, o) and the vowels not assimilated. In addition, {N-} becomes *m-* is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with [p] consonant, [p] consonants is assimilated then added *-ko/-kon* suffix. For examples:

82. {N-}+ putus + -ko → **mutusko** 'to decide'  
(9/5) *Mutuskon* perkara ya mak tesok.
83. {N-}+ perelu + -kon → **merelukon** 'to need'  
(9/5) Rincian kurang pandai mak *merelukon* badan, jenong Penyimbang sinapun.
84. {N-}+ pangkal + -kon → **mangkalkon** 'to initialize'  
(50) Maka wat hulun jubal ulah hutang piutang atau makanan, atau pekerjaan atau dandan pakaian, atau pukakas sahintiru, *mangkalkon* jubal ulah sai segabor di ingok ni tetapi saksi ni mawat, bukti ni mawat, maka di kain kon busumpah setih sesuatu, maka tian rua berani unyin, maka taksir tian rua sapa sai sayung kehidupan ni, sina sai besumpah labuh perkara ni menang.
85. {N-}+ perhati + -kon → **merhatikon** 'to observe'  
(14) ... *merhatiko* usulan ...
86. {N-}+ pati + -kon → **matikon** 'to kill'  
(19) ... Sultan ngarapat *matiko*...

**h. Circumfixation of m...-i**

*m...-i* circumfix is formed when {N-} joined the base that begins with vowels (a, i, u, e, o) and the vowels not assimilated. In addition, {N-} becomes *m-* is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with [h] and [p] consonants, [h] and [p] consonants is assimilated and then added *-i* suffix. For examples:

87. {N-}+ pungker + -i → **mungkeri** 'to deny'  
(51) Maka wat ngelagoki perkara radu putus diputuskon Perwatin rinci ni *mungkeri* dengki, musti didenda segera perkara.
88. {N-}+ hiwang + -i → **miwangi** 'to cry'  
(51) Dang *miwangi* nasib hore
89. {N-}+ patuh + -i → **matuhi** 'to be loyal'  
(52) Ya *matuhi* cawa ulun tuhonno
90. {N-}+ patuk + -i → **matuki** 'to bite'  
(53) Asu *matuki* daging
91. {N-}+ payung + -i → **mayungi** 'to cover'  
(53) Nyak *mayungi* niku

**i. Circumfixation of nge...-ko/-kon**

*nge...-ko/-kon* circumfix is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with all of the consonants except [P, T, K, S, C] the consonants is not assimilated and then added *-ko/-kon* suffix. For examples:

92. {N-}+ gantung + -kon → **ngegantungkon** 'to hang'  
(2/5) Mak *ngegantungkon* kelekup (kentong).
93. {N-}+ jalan + -kon → **ngejalankon** 'to do'  
(29) Mari jenong jelema pandai ya *ngejalankon* tilik tidai 5 perkara.
94. {N-}+ jamuk + -ko → **ngejamukko** 'to give'  
(93) Ngeramat ngelidung baya jenong hukum sinapun ya *ngejamukkon* sai mak betik haga di hun tekona, denda sina mulang di sai ngedakwa sina, Perwatin cuman ongkos perkara gawoh.
95. {N-}+ gampang + -kon → **ngegampangkon** 'to make easy'  
(102) Ngeramat ngepar baya nama hukum sinapun, ya *ngegampangkon* kehimpunan.
96. {N-}+ buntor + -kon → **ngebuntorkon** 'to make round'  
(130) Ngeramat ngungkor baya retini ya *ngebuntorkon* mahan keduwa tapi ki jelema handak pi'il pusanggiri dang dihukum atau didenda.

**j. Circumfixation of nge...-i**

*nge...-i* circumfix is formed when {N-} joined with the base that begins with all of the consonants except [P, T, K, S, C] the consonants is not assimilated and then added *-i* suffix. For examples:

97. {N-}+ lagok + -i → **ngelagoki** 'to suppose'  
(23) Maka wat *ngelagoki* ...
98. {N-}+ racun + -i → **ngeracuni** 'to poison'  
(23) *Ngeracuni* nama hukum...
99. {N-}+ cida + -i → **ngecidai** 'to break'

(24) ... wat sai haga *ngecedai* ia induh...

100. {N-}+ lindung + -i → *ngelindungi* 'to protect'  
(24) Ngeramat *ngelindungi* baya...

101. {N-}+ hadop + -i → *ngehadopi* 'to face'  
(26) ... niku *ngehadopi* nya...

#### 6. Circumfixation of be-...-an and bu-...-an

This research found bu-...-an and be-...-ancircumfixes. Below is the explanation of those circumfixes:

##### a. Circumfixation of bu-...-an

*bu-...-an* circumfix is formed when *be-* joined with the base that begins with consonant and the consonant is not assimilated then added with *-an* suffix. For examples:

102. Bu-+ pekal + -an → *bupekalan* 'to have place'  
(2) Mak *bupekalan*ragah

103. Bu-+ peselok + -an → *bupeselokan* 'to insert'  
(100) Kuruk Batin, tanda ni meranai sina cakak mahan muli, makai bidak, busabuk, *bupeselokan*, buselikap, bulistar.

104. Bu-+ serah + -an → *buserahan* 'to surrender'  
(49) Kuruk Batin, tanda ni meranai sina cakak mahan muli, makai bidak, busabuk, *buserahan*, buselikap, bulistar.

105. Bu-+ tabrak + -an → *butabranken* 'to clash'  
(28) Mobil sina *butabranken* di ranglaya

106. Bu-+ kirim + -an → *bukiriman* 'to send'  
(28) ...meranai sina *bukiriman* surat jama muli

##### b. Circumfixation of be-...-an

*be-...-an* circumfix is formed when *be-* joined with the base that begins with consonant or vowel and the consonant or the vowel is not assimilated then added with *-an* suffix. For examples:

107. Be- + karet + -an → *bekaretan* 'rubberized'  
(25) Ani *bekaretan* dibuwokni

108. Be- + salam + -an → *besalaman* 'shake hands'  
(27) Dang lupa *besalaman* jama ulun tuha

109. Be- + timbal + -an → *betimbangan* 'to exchange'  
(27) Wat acara *betimbangan* delom gawi sina

110. Be- + iring + -an → *beiringan* 'together with'  
(28) Motor sina *beiringan* jama mobilku

111. Be- + sabai + -an → *besabaian* 'to be related to'  
(28) Ia *besabaian* jama maha niku

#### 7. Circumfixation of ti-/te-...-ko/-kon/-i

As I explain before in Lampung language besides {N-}, bu-, and be- prefixes there are te- and ti- prefixes. In circumfixation, ti- or te- is ended with *-ko/-kon/-i* suffix. Below is the explanation of te- and ti- circumfixations.

##### a. Circumfixation of ti-...-ko/-kon

*ti-...-ko/-kon* circumfix is formed with the base that begins with consonant or vowel. The consonant or the vowel is not assimilated then added *-ko/-kon* suffix. For examples:

112. Ti- + uloh + -kon → *tiulohkon* 'returned'  
(62) Ki kak munsu tengemaling ni *tiulohkon* dihapikni kiri kanan, jadi ketiga batang dan hejongan seperti

113. Ti- + ucak + -kon → *tiucakkon* 'uttered'  
(5) ...daighahtiucakkon ...

114. Ti- + siyap + -kon → *tisiyapkon* 'prepared'  
(44) ... ghaduti*tisiyapkon* ...

115. Ti- + cawa + -kon → *ticawakon* 'spoken'  
(60) Tiyau *ticawakon* ...

116. Ti- + lebon + -ko → *tilebonko* 'erased'  
(50) Motor ayah *tilebonkon* adik

##### b. Circumfixation of ti-...-i

*ti-...-i* circumfix is formed with the base that begins with consonant or vowel. The consonant or the vowel is not assimilated then added *-i* suffix. For examples:

117. Ti+ gelagh + -i → **tigelaghi** 'named'  
(57) ... luwagh*tigelaghi* ...
118. Ti+ gawang + -i → **tigawangi** 'cleaned'  
(77) ... ghikt*tigawangi* ...
119. Ti+ sapon + -i → **tisaponi** 'cleaned'  
(78) Nuwa sina *tisaponi* anak muli
120. Ti+ pedom + -i → **tipedomi** 'to sleep on'  
(79) Pok pedom mahani dang *tipedomi*
121. Ti- + injam + -i → **tiinjami** 'loaned'  
(79) Ia *tiinjami* tapis

### 8. Circumfixation of di-...-ko/-kon/-i

There are two circumfixations of di- prefix. Both of them are di-...-ko/-kon or di-...-i. Below is the explanation of both circumfixes.

#### a. Circumfixation di-...-ko/-kon

*di-...-ko/-kon* circumfix is formed when *di-* joined with base that begins with consonant or vowel. The consonant or the vowel is not assimilated then added *-ko/-kon* suffix. For examples:

122. di- + ungsi + -kon → **diungsikon** 'evacuated'  
(12) *Diungsikon* hulun nyangsang.
123. di- + urus + -kon → **diuruskon** 'managed'  
(49) Maka perkara kak wat saksi ni kak wat bukti ni dan ya kak nerima, musti *diuruskon* pai tanda buserah ni nurun jak kedua pihak, nimbang rega perkara sina tanda ni mak nyilor di segala putusan Perwatin.
124. di- + kayin + -ko → **dikayinko** 'asked'  
(50) Maka wat hulun jubal ulah hutang piutang atau makanan, atau pekerjaan atau dandan pakaian, atau pukakas sahintiru, mangkalkon jubal ulah sai segabor di ingok ni tetapi saksi ni mawat, bukti ni mawat, maka *dikayinkon* busumpah setih sesuatu, maka tian rua berani unyin, maka taksir tian rua sapa sai sayung kehidupan ni, sina sai besumpah labuh perkara ni menang.
125. di- + putus + -kon → **diputuskon** 'decided'  
(51) Maka wat ngelagoki perkara radu putus *diputuskon* Perwatin rinci ni mungkari dengki, musti didenda segera perkara.
126. di- + tarik + -kon → **ditarikkon** 'pulled'  
(57) Maka muli *ditarikkon* meranai, liwat anjak panjang telu, sina tekab jaba adok ni ki mak jadi telaju kahjong, meranai sina nurun petelu pak likor rik kibau sai rega 12 rial dan nyukak rega bedak luyuh ni muli sina pak likor rung bah nuruni pangkatni muli sina.

#### b. Circumfixation of di-...-i

*di-...-i* circumfix is formed when *di-* joined with base that begins with consonant or vowel. The consonant or the vowel is not assimilated then added *-i* suffix. For examples:

127. di- + tangan + -i → **ditangani** 'organized'  
(48) Tetapi kiwat jelema ngan ni nyawakon ya tengenah ni atau ya nengis ni, atau *ditangani* ni dapok ti uraw mit Perwatin sina maka ya nemonkon cawa jelema 12 sudi jeno, ampai dapok diterima jadi saksi, maka wat saksi 12 pasal sina tiulah lagi ditaksir Perwatin, acak nyaksikon batu, kayu.
128. di- + marah + -i → **dimarahi** 'to be angry at'  
(54) Antak *dimarahi* bugawoh, sai dimaling ni sina dang diakuk laju kon dia gawoh.
129. di- + butong + -i → **dibutongi** 'to be angry at'  
(136) Maka muli atau bebai *dibutongi* Penyimbang ni baka cawa dan Penyimbang ni kilu ragam di Penyimbang-penyimbang barih, mesti diperiksa pai api ya ngandung, ulah capa, ki mak butantu retini ngampang.
130. di- + gheghing + -i → **digheghingi** 'liked'  
(42) ... mulani ia *digheghingi* ...
131. di- + alam + -i → **dialami** 'experienced'  
(41) ... api sai *dialami* ...

### 9. Circumfixation of ke-...-an

*ke-...-an* circumfix is found in Lampung language. This circumfix can be said a unique one because there is no *ke-* prefix used as a verb in Lampung language. In order to make a verb *ke-* prefix must be added with base and ended with *-an* suffix. Below is the explanation of *ke-...-an* circumfixation.

#### a. Circumfixation of Ke-...-an

*ke-...-an* circumfix is formed when *ke-* joined with the base that begins with consonant. The consonant not assimilated then added *-an* suffix. For examples:

132. ke- + tengis + -an → **ketengisan** 'heard'  
(35) ... *ketengisan* mula ya ...

133. ke- + rugi + -an → kerugian 'suffered financial loss'  
(69) ... kalah segala kerugian
134. ke- + hilang + -an → kehilangan 'stolen'  
(76) Kelebonan atau cadang ...
135. ke- + betong + -an → kebetongan 'saturation'  
(78) Nyak radu kebetongan
136. ke- + betoh + -an → kebetohan 'famine'  
(79) Nyak radu kebetohan

#### 10. Infixation of ...-en-...and ...-em-...

There are only found two infixes in Lampung language. Those two infixes are...-en-... and...-em-...Below is the explanation of those infixes:

##### a. Infixation of...-en-...

...-en-... infix is formed when base which begins with consonant is separated by separating the first letters from the base then added ...-en-... infix. After the infix added then the rest of the letters joined in. For examples:

137. Kebok→K + -en- + bok → kenebok 'closed'  
(53) Mangka perkara maling ya mak asing ni mak hurani hujan, rangok sangun mak kenebok, jenganan bangkang, ya munih tepak nerima di hukum Perwatin ya ngulangkon barang sai watas diakukni sina gawoh, dan saksi dapok mak busumpah.
138. Kuta→K + -en- + uta → kenuta 'fenced'  
(150) Anying ki wat sai kedau ya dihukum nyukak denda sina dan ngeganti kerugian sai dicadangkan ni, anying sai cadang sina mak kenuta, mak tigelegai, denda sudi bugawoh dapok mak ngeganti kerugian sai cadang.
139. Cekar→C + -en- + ecar → cenecar 'cut'  
(159) Maka wat ngusi nuar sampai nyadang kon hasil pulan seperti hui, buluh, damar, tahi-tahi ni kayu sai radu ditanda kejuju ki ya sangun nyansat, nyadang kon ya atau ngakuk ya didenda rua belas rial Rp.24,- dan sai diakuk ni sina mulang tau disukak ni di sai kedau tinanda, seperti cenecar tinerap, tisingkil, tapi ki tian rua jejama ngaku kedau, ketahu periksa kuntara pasal 50 tapi periksa pai tian rua sapa sai randos disanjenganan ni musti sai jaoh kalah, ki gegoh jaoh ni tian rua berani sumpah unyin, mak ngedok saksi kuntara pasal : 50 sudi ngan ni putus.
140. Panjal→P + -en- + ajal → penanjat 'kicked'  
(167) Dang pananjat nyak jama kukutmu
141. Pajak→P + -en- + ajak → penajak 'boiled'  
(169) Kikim penajak

##### b. Infixation of ...-em-...

...-em-...infix is formed when the base which begins with consonant is separated each other by separating the first letters from the base then added ...-em-... infix. After the infix added then the rest of the letters joined in. For examples:

142. Pukem→p + -em- + ukem → pemukem 'rounded'  
(178) Pudana pemukem
143. Guppo→g + -em- + uppo → gemuppo 'droves'  
(178) Tian gemuppo hagog masigit
144. Gatem→g + -em- + atem → gematem 'to keep on booming'  
(177) Gematem suara bedil
145. Gercik→g + -em- + ercik → gemercik 'crackling'  
(176) Way Batanghari gemercik
146. Tebeng→T + -em- + ebeng → temebeng 'straight'  
(177) Niat temebeng.

#### D. CONCLUSION

This research has tried to answer the unsolved questions about the verbs affixation in Lampung language in Kuntara Raja Niti book and textbooks using morphology study. The finding of this study found that there are six types verb prefixes in Lampung language. The six types of prefixes are {N-}, *bu-*, *be-*, *ti-*, *te-* and *di-*. Prefix {N-} has five allomorphs: *ng-*, *ny-*, *m-*, *n-*, and *nge-*. However, other prefixes such as *bu-*, *be-*, *ti-*, *te-* and *di-* do not have allomorphs. Moreover, there are 17 (seventeen) verb circumfixes. There are: *ng-...-ko/-kon*, *ng-...-i*, *ny-...-ko/-kon*, *ny-...-i*, *n...ko/-kon*, *n-...-i*, *m-...-ko/-kon*, *m-...-i*, *nge-...-ko/-kon*, *nge-...-i*, *bu-...-an*, *be-...-an*, *ti-...-ko/-kon*, *ti-...-i*, *di-...-I*, *di-...-ko/-kon*, *ke-...-an*. There are only two verb infixes found in this research. Two kinds of infixes are ...-en-... and...-em-.... However, there are no independent verb suffixes found in this research.

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#### ABSTRACT

The aim of this research is to utilize the personal, cultural and historical information that students bring to the class in order to make a more flexible and dynamic teaching strategy, in literature classes. Based on the schema theory which assumes the construction of the meaning to reside in the interaction of the literary text and background knowledge of the students and by considering the issue of interpretive communities, the researcher tends to create a correlation between the students' knowledge and their shared assumption as a small community and directing it through literature to achieve a more flexible syllabus. Interpretive communities share the patterns of signifying meanings in a particular community. By considering the classroom as a community with certain background and interests, the teacher may evaluate the concerns of the students, in achieving a more flexible teaching strategy, in the class. In this method, class becomes a dynamic field to accomplish the objectives of the class; teacher must be alert to evaluate the collective interests of the class as a community, in order to promote certain language skills such as reading and listening, as well as aesthetic learning through what students demand, as a group and what is appropriate for the class. In this sense, this research attempts to challenge the pre-established literary canons which are employed, in the classes in order to facilitate the process of learning and transform it to a more challenging task, by providing the material based on the logical pleas of the class.

**KEYTERMS:** Flexible Teaching Strategy- interpretive communities- Literature Class- Schema Theory.

#### INTRODUCTION

Teaching literature has long been considered a challenging task, especially in literature classes, in which the aim of the instructors of the course is to educate not only aesthetic dimensions of a certain literary text, but also some particular skills, such as reading and writing. The complicated nature of these courses heightens with the heterogeneity of the classes; different classes would vary in number, race, gender and age of students. This would intensify the complexity of assumed educational objectives of the course. One of the best solutions for this problem is homogenizing the students, based on certain factors, such as age and gender and race. However, in the present multi-cultural societies, it appears to be impossible. Thus, utilizing the dynamic educational potential of students could be the answer. This research attempts to scrutinize a more dynamic teaching strategy by employment of pre-established collective knowledge of students, in presenting practical teaching techniques.

Many scholars have devoted their researches to scrutinizing different methods of literature teaching to optimize the outcomes of literature classes. Literature has emerged from the mere fictional presentation of events into a demanding field of educational contemplation, by endowing students with many other practical educational skills, such as reading, writing and listening skills. In this regard, literature transforms into a pragmatic educational domain that transcends its conventional role as a subject of entertainment. Thus, many teachers focus on literature, as an attractive educational realm; one that entertains and teaches, concurrently.

Among many approaches that investigate various methods of teaching literature, some are of pivotal significance. The postmodern tendency to locate the core of meaning in individuals is the one that appreciates the subjective interpretations of readers, as the major intention of literary texts. This involves glorification of pre-established insight that assists the readers to analyze the texts. Each individual brings a unique set of presumptions to the procedures of reading activity. However, there are many shared comprehensions by readers of a same book, based on their socio-cultural paradigms. In that case, evaluating the possible pragmatic methods of teaching literature simplifies by investigating the communal appreciation of a literary work. The issues which are going to be discussed in this research are the definition of schema theory, its affiliation with interpretive communities providing more flexible teaching approaches such as permanent evaluation of the student's interest based on teacher's objectives, in the class. Accordingly, the main aim of this study is challenging the classical traditional literary canon, in order to create a more fruitful educational goal. Some stratagems that could be applied in the class include the permanent evaluation of the student's mandates, employing the multiple intelligences of the students, participation of the students in achieving the class's objectives and involving the students, in the process of assessment.

#### THEORY

Texts are defined in the scope of the active interaction of the readers' perceptions and significations that are conveyed to them by complicated socio-cultural codes. There are numerous ongoing procedures that direct readers to the intended message of the text. However, these processes are not static and refashion continually, based on construction of pristine semantic knowledge of the readers.

According to Bartlett (1932) who has coined the term 'schema theory', this notion means that "meanings are not contained within the text but are constructed in the interaction between the text and the interpreting background knowledge" (p. 79). Therefore, there is always strife in construction of immaculate meanings, since, the text have no signification, in isolation; Perkins (1983) entitles this as "semantic constructivity". The most focal issue is that the schemas are dynamic and tend to modify by incoming experiences; it implies that they are "an active organization of the past reactions or experiences which must always be supposed to be operating in any well adopted organic responses" (p. 201). The fact that readers with different experiences might have different discernments of the same text transforms the reading activity and construction of the meaning, into a creative endeavor, varying from one reader to another.

According to Iser (1972) the meaning is generated by "meeting of the writer, text and the individual mind of the reader with its own particular history of experience, its own consciousness, its own outlook"(p. 189) and it is the "convergence of the text and the reader that brings the literary work into existence" (p. 196). This existence is materialized in the process of realization of text. Iser proposes that, "the written text imposes certain limits on its unwritten implications in order to prevent these from becoming too blurred and hazy, but at the same time these implications worked out by the readers' imagination, set the given situation against a background which endows it with far greater significance than it might have seemed to possess on its own" (p. 190). This provides a wide range of significations that are rooted in the original text. The process of the construction of the meaning or the 'destination' of text, then resides in the interpretive acts of the readers and not the writer; therefore, the origin of the unity in the process of the reading is embedded in the elucidations of the reader, as Barthes (1967) mentions (p. 150). There is a great emphasis on the reader's role, in creation of the meaning that takes place by bringing his

prior knowledge into the progression of the interpretation of the texts, in the phenomenological theories of reading by critics like Ingarden, Iser, and Fish. They all agree that there are some gaps that must be filled up by the readers; this constitutes the act of reading as an individual process that is related to the past experiences of the readers, as well as being shaped and constructed by their present social affairs. This research aims to create a sense of affiliation between the issues of semantic theory and the idea of interpretive communities of Stanley Fish, in order to find more flexible strategies for teaching literature, as a second language.

The concept of schema is correlated to another idea, introduced by Stanley Fish (1980), interpretive communities'. The signification of a specified text is based on the policies that readers utilize in reading; it implies that it is not the text but the knowledge or schemas of the readers that determines the act of signification or construction of the meaning. According to Fish, these policies may be shared by many readers of the same text and these strategies "exist prior to the act of reading and therefore determine the shape of what is read" (p. 219). It signifies that the schema knowledge of the readers is not stable and its dynamicity is a good proof that schemas are not only fashioned, in the course of reading but they are shaped by past experiences, too. According to Fish, reading patterns modify, as the individuals of a society amend their assumptions about the issues around them. By employing a progressive model of reading stratagems, these tactics transform into not an everlasting and accepted but learned and artificial sets of techniques. In this way, the meaning is not "extracted but made and made not by encoded forms but by interpretive strategies that call forms into being" (p. 220). Semino (1995) believes that from a cognitive point of view, the perception of the reader results from "the application of certain portions of the reader's background knowledge (schema) to the interpretation of the text" but this schemata is not a fixed entity but it is a flexible perception which "depends on the extent to which the existing schemas of the readers are confirmed or challenged during the process of interpretation" (p. 79). Just like the notion of interpretive strategies of Fish, the schemas are considered to be "prior knowledge" of the reader, constructed by socio-cultural paradigms of members of a community (p. 82). Considering the point that a classroom could be considered a small community where the members may share the reading tactics, the teacher of a literature class may find a mutual ground in the class, in order to structure a more flexible course syllabus. By fusing the concepts of schema theory and interpretive community the researcher attempts to implicate a term which will inclusively attribute to both of the theories, defined as **Group Schema** or **Collective Schema**. The next section of this research is dedicated to schema theory and its correlation with literature. In this part, the process of reading literary texts and creation of new schema knowledge is reviewed.

### *Schema Theory and Literature*

Schema theory could be applied to almost all documents as well as literature, in order to assist researchers in articulating educational approaches, for a better cognition of learning materials. More than any type of document, a literary text is capable of deconstructing the existing significations, in the process of reading, due to its polyphonic quality. This heterogeneous nature of literature is the key to developing numerous teaching techniques, based on students' responses, in the classroom. Thus, the major responsibility of the teacher resides in appreciating the wide range of presumptions and directing them toward the appropriate meaning.

Semino (2001) believes that the relation of schema theory and literature is that, "literary texts tend to challenge and modify the readers' existing schema" and if readers "apply different schemas or different variants of the same schema; they will end up with different understandings" (p. 346). Having this in mind, then the goal of teaching should be generating appropriate responses by students, by motivating them about the literary texts. Britton (1968) puts this as, "to refine and develop responses the children are already making rather than instructing them with the responses"; therefore, in the literature classes the teacher must act as the "mediator to help students to take knowledge and make sense of the text" (p. 183). The most important issue is that the schemas are dynamic and tend to remold, by coming experiences; it implies that they are "an active organization of the past reactions or experiences which must always be supposed to be operating in any well adopted organic responses" (Bartlett, 1932, p. 201). Thus, the ongoing performance of appreciation of meaning resides not in the text alone, but dwells in the unique responses of the readers.

A critical debate, raised by critics against the schema theory is that "it seems to assume a very rigid division of background knowledge into separate compartments, thereby failing to do justice to the flexible, creative and tolerant way in which we apply our knowledge of old experiences to new ones" (Semino, 1995, p. 83). Guy Cook (1990) suggests that the most significant role of schema theory is that despite the Russian formalist's assumption that rigidly limits the text to its linguistic devices with certain key concepts such as de-familiarization and de-automatization, the schema theory provides a dynamic frame for active participation of readers' knowledge of the text (pp. 212-13). In literary texts, this confrontation of the readers' prior schemas and the present ones may result in violation of the existing schemas of the readers and eventually leads to "schema refreshment"; and that is why the literary texts offer the readers an opportunity to experience new situations and create new schema knowledge. Sometimes, schema knowledge is reinforced by a text and sometimes it is interrupted and altered by new coming information in the texts. Literary texts challenge the confirmed assumptions and therefore would formulate diverse results, ranging from authenticating the schemas of the text to rejecting the presented schemas. The discursive quality of literary texts would reinforce the process of generating polyphonic assumptions, by readers of the text. This explicitly advocates the existence of multiple numbers of elucidations, in reading process.

### *Teaching Literature, Significance, Objectives and Material*

The first step in determining the strategies of teaching literature is that the teacher must have a clear idea of why he/she is teaching literature; according to Nojournian (2007), one thing must be taken for granted in teaching literature,

First and foremost, teachers of English literature should primarily explain this idea that literary texts are not primarily intended to get across a particular moral, philosophical, or political message. Of course, these implications could always come as the final stages of reading process. Many writers by treating their own material as nonjudgmental do not expect the reader to come to a particular message even in the final stages. Reading literature for them is supposed to share a particular experience (p. 121).

Hence, literary texts would be classified among other texts which are designed for certain educational aims. This quality is fortified by a communal appreciation of literature. Students would react more positively to the texts that have a shared meaning for them. This would formulate a new pattern for reading literary materials that promotes the desired objectives of the teacher.

According to Tarakcoiglu (2003), studying literature involves not only reading certain literary works, but objectives of the literature classes differ from other courses. It indicates that while the student in an EFL literature class employs the structures of a certain language, he/she is,

Supposed to acquire and store the conventions and traditions about literature as well as getting

acquainted with the authors, texts, nature, history and culture of the target language. At the end of this process, the student is assumed to become an expert or authority that is equipped with the necessary and enough knowledge to analyze, criticize, and write about literature, literary history, literary theories, periods, authors and literary works (p. 214).

Obviously, the sole aim of literature classes is not to entertain the students, by providing amusing material for the class, but there are crucial objectives that must be fulfilled. Literature classes should boost the creativity of the students and lead them to appreciation of the literary concepts. There also must be certain objectives in teaching literature and the objectives have to embrace "development of knowledge of world of literature, practice in reaching and discussing creative work and introduction of literary concepts" (Muyskens, 1983, p. 413), as well as having this issue in mind that "techniques used in teaching literature must be interesting, in order to make the initial experience with literature pleasurable and material is a part of this" (p. 415). Not only the literary aspects of the text but the linguistic and educational aims are taken into account when a text is prepared for the class, "Typical goals for beginning and inter-mediate high school or college students may include the practice of language acquisition skills, practice in reading comprehension, and the stimulation of literary appreciation" (p. 415). This would ensure the pivotal objective of literature classes, in absorbing the attention of students who are primarily exposed to literary texts. However, there is another challenging task ahead of the literature teachers, preparing educational materials for the class.

Preparation for literature courses is always a hard task to do for the instructors, since this planning is never "cut off from the arbitrary external pressures of time, space, and money.... and the Academic calendar of the semester invariably shapes intellectual and pedagogical decisions" (Showalter, 2003, p. 42). Usually material preparation is mentioned very little in methods of teaching literature and literary texts are chosen, merely, for "linguistic and language skills" (Muyskens, 1983, p. 414). They may be divergent approaches for preparing materials for the class such as teaching from one's own "area of research specialization and making it a subset of research" or making teaching "an exploration for us and students" (Showalter, 2003, p. 45). In this method, teaching is not a static procedure, with fixed materials, but it converts into a literary expedition that engages students, as well as teachers. The outcome of this activity is the mutual interaction between the students and their instructor; it leads to a more fruitful educational goal.

According to Susanne Bock (1995), a suitable material for literature classes must have certain features, materials must,

Activate existing background knowledge (content schemata) by relating the content of the text to the students' own cultural experiences, encourage prediction. Predicting (allowing students to formulate hypotheses about the text before reading commences) is a further way of encouraging students to utilize what background information they possess and arousing their interest in the development of the story and Fill in background knowledge where it is missing through explicit presentation of the cultural, historical, and/or social context of the text (p. 155).

Among the materials which are widely used in literature classes, the anthologies seem to be the most popular form, for the instructors of literature classes. Their availability, canonicity and their adoptability to the semester format of the educational time, make anthologies the best choice as a teaching material. Although anthologies seem to be the best available material for literature classes as they prepare the students for the future standard examinations, by equipping them with the required knowledge of the course, the obstacles such as "cultural and linguistic deficiencies" may interfere with the maximum profit of the chosen materials. But the problem with the entire traditional and old style anthologist is that "they don't develop critical thinking, fostering passive acceptance of authority" (Mojica, 1997, p. 210). More than abolishing the active critical thinking of the students, the canonized anthologies would preserve the existing dominant social disciplines and marginalize the dissident voices. This opposes the true purpose of literature, in generating an unprejudiced world. According to historicists the problem with anthologies is that "teaching anthologies and histories of literature are instruments of indoctrination... preserving the structure and inequality of society" (208). As a result, a new teaching methodology must be defined that transcends the common conventional teaching patterns.

The next part of the research is devoted to finding and presenting some practical methods which could be used in literature classes where the literary competence of the students plays a crucial role, in students' appreciation of the text, in order to challenge the pre-existing methods of teaching literature based on the affiliations of schema theory and interpretive communities; this means using the multiple intelligences of the students and their diverse schema knowledge as a group, to create a more fruitful and flexible teaching strategy.

#### UTILIZING GROUP SCHEMA (COLLECTIVE SCHEMA) AND TEACHING STRATEGY

In moving toward a flexible syllabus in literature classes, the most important issue is to give the students the opportunity to be active, in the process of development of material for the class which will hopefully increase the motivation of the students, continuously, during the course. Giving space to students in preparation of the material does not mean to ignore the authority of the teacher; the teacher must move in a presumed direction to achieve the accepted standards and objectives of the class. Accepting to have a flexible curriculum means that the teachers must be willing to experience more flexible and modern policies of teaching, instead of applying traditional systems, by creating a good relation with students,

It should be clear by now that teachers' relationships with students are central to student learning. Becoming competent and caring mentors for a broad range of students, therefore, means developing specific skills and competencies for teaching... Teachers and prospective teachers, especially those who have not had extensive experience with students of diverse backgrounds, need to learn to understand human differences in order to tap into the intelligence and capacity of all students. This is a life-long journey, and professional development is a central component of the journey. (Neieto, 2010, p. 215)

Accordingly, in the contemporary multi-cultural societies, there is a demand for unprejudiced teaching materials, which would satisfy the diverse interests of the students, without offending them, racially, culturally and socially. To achieve this goal, a very accurate material planning must be designed, by employing the following steps:

-Primary Evaluation: The first step in a literature class is to consider the fact that the best time to evaluate the interests of the students in order to make a meaningful connection of those interests with the aims of the class is the first session. The teacher must try to give introduction to the subject in a well organized pattern to draw the attention of the students to the issues which are of great significance for

the progress of the course. This includes the objectives of the course, the desired frameworks of the course and the patterns of educational evaluation.

- Utilizing Multiple Intelligences: According to Gardner (1983), in "Frames of Mind", the notion of intelligence means: "human ability to solve problems or to make something that is valued in one or more culture" (p. 12) and this means no matter how a problem is solved, as long as individuals may find different solutions for that. Based on this assumption, Gardner names some types of intelligences such as musical, logical-mathematical, special, intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences. It is also significant to consider that individuals may have different strength and talent in using their intelligences. According to Pool (2000) benefitting the Multiple Intelligences in the class will give the students a chance to "immerse themselves into the intelligence areas" and at the same time the teacher may experience a new technique of teaching where he/she could "cooperate with colleagues to develop a menu of appropriate strategies and secure resources for each intelligence"(12). To schedule the class based on the multiple intelligences concept means to respect the diverse discrepancies of the individuals' understandings and their unique cognitive ability. By considering the shared schemas of the students about certain fields of human knowledge, a fruitful teaching strategy could be planned.

-Multi-Dimensional Schedule: According to Nieto the syllabus of the course is usually prepared based on the official programs of the educational systems and usually presents a one dimensional program where the desires of students are neglected, "the curriculum in schools is at odds with the experiences, backgrounds, hopes, and wishes of many students. This is true of both the tangible curriculum as expressed through books, other materials, and the actual written curriculum guides, as well as in the less tangible and 'hidden' curriculum as seen in the bulletin boards, extracurricular activities, and messages given to students about their abilities and talents"(p. 166) . The teacher must remind the students that there is not going to be a rigid syllabus in the class and the significant points that will be covered are to be reviewed in the class. Afterward, the students are asked to find different ways to go through the important subjects, on their own way. Of course, the teacher must be an active monitoring agent in the class, by guiding the students toward the objectives of the class. Flexibility of the teacher in planning the syllabus is very crucial, in achieving the aims of the class.

-Group Construction: in this method, the teacher must divide the students to groups, according to their common interests based on their group schemas or their shared knowledge that they bring to the classroom. The teacher may group the students based on other forms of literary materials such as movies, plays, music or even a popular writer may serve as the basis of constructing a team, in the class. The more homogenous the groups are, the more challenging, the desired objective become. Of course, there may be some difficulties in classes where students may be of different age groups or belonging to different cultural, social or racial communities. Therefore, the Maximum profit of this method is gained in a racially, socially, culturally homogeneous groups. According to Nojournian,

One of the basic approaches to teaching literature is to develop and transform the individual appreciation to a group one. Experts in education call this process, the process of move from individual to collective response. Students are encouraged to share their views with others and they are supposed to discover that this will only deepen the level of understanding and appreciation of the text. (p. 128)

- Challenging the Pre-established Literary Canons: the most popular materials for teaching literature are anthologies which are divided into different canonized issues such as thematic, women's, ethnicities and focus anthologies. In this method of teaching, the most important aim of the teacher is to use anthologies as a supplement for the class activities instead of making it the dominant authority, in the class. The teacher may choose some of the materials from anthologies, but that does not mean that they should be the governing element of the teaching.

-An Active Participation of the Students in the Progress of the Course: the teacher may use other forms of arts such as painting, music, movies and plays in order to activate and deepen the literary knowledge of the students. Again the role of the teacher is not neglected in this method but the teacher acts as a mediator in transmitting the knowledge to the students. Using another form of art in relation with literature, may help the students to widen their knowledge of literature, as well as expanding their range of vocabulary in EFL literature classes. According to Tarakcioglu (2003), "students get familiarized with more and more vocabulary and structures as well as the variety of their applications in different situations. In this way, they gradually manage to express themselves, in a variety of ways articulately and appropriately" (p. 218). The instructor may select a literary material, depending on the subject of the course; it may be a poem, a play or a short story and ask different groups to find the other versions of that literary work. For example, the group who are in the music group may find the related piece of music which seems to be in close relation with the features of the text. The teacher and other students may observe the information that students have brought to the class, as their shared interest and knowledge; and then it is the time when teacher start to present his own lecture about the topic, in order to achieve the objectives of the class.

-Utilizing New Forms of Technology: nowadays, many educational institutions are equipped with high tech instruments; however, many developing countries lack the simplest educational facilities. Nonetheless, even the simplest computer- aided activities along with audiovisual and transparencies might be used in the class to facilitate, not only the process of increasing aesthetic knowledge of the students about the literature, but strengthen their listening and speaking skills, as well as improving their linguistic competency, through authentic material.

-Encouraging Critical Thinking in the Students: based on the postmodernist assumption about the subjectivity of interpretations and glorification of individualism in this theory, the teacher of the literature class must encourage students to express their feelings about the literary text, scrutinized in the class. The appropriate opportunity must be provided for the students to analyze the literary materials, based on their own understanding of literature; but of course, again it is the responsibility of the teacher to guide the students to the desired goals of the class. There are always preferred versions of literary appreciations that are advocated by specified social groups. It is teacher's duty to provide an explicit framework for the class, based on social paradigms. This would not imply the thorough agreement with dominant educational discipline. They would encourage students to contemplate on different issues of their societies, under the direct supervision of the instructor.

-Participation of Students in the Assessment Process: here, the students may have the opportunity to have an active share in assessment process. The teacher may prepare some questionnaires about each group's seminars and activities with relation to the students' area of interest. Each group which had the most approving scores (evaluated by providing more beneficial information to other students, having more common points with the literary texts that the teacher had supplied for the class and the capacity to deepen and sharpen the groups' schemas) would have a better chance to get the higher point. Of course some portion of the mark is attributed to the teacher's opinion about the students and their group work.

Whatever the targets of the class are, the educators have the responsibility to prepare students to live successful lives, by obtaining a chance of employment for financial self-support, competent participation in the community and contributions to society; to achieve this aim, a flexible method of teaching must be utilized.

#### CONCLUSION

This research is an attempt to infuse two different theories, for enriching the teaching strategies in literature. By combining the schema theory and the notion of interpretive communities, the researcher wishes to introduce a new word, **Group Schema**, which means the collective knowledge that students bring to the class, in order to create more flexible teaching stratagems, in literature classes. Based on the schema theory, the meaning of a text resides not in the text solely but it is created by the interaction of the text and the prior knowledge that readers bring to the text, which is influenced by the social, cultural, racial background of the individuals, as well as their personal diversities. According to the concept of interpretive communities, the strategies of signification or construction of meaning is based on the collective reading policies of the society which is a dynamic process. In moving toward a flexible teaching strategy, there must be a constant evaluation of student's demands in the class, not to ignore the authority of the teacher, in guiding the students to the pre-assumed objectives of the class. On the whole, in this method of teaching, all the pre-established canons and traditional systems of teaching are challenged, in favor of a more flexible teaching strategy to formulate new versions of materials which are related to literature, like music and movies. This would result in creation of an enriched educational environment, under the monitor of the instructor.

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THE ATTITUDES OF EFL LEARNERS TOWARDS USING MIND MAPPING SOFTWARE  
ON THEIR READING COMPREHENSION

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**ABSTRACT**

Nowadays, the technological developments are one of the inseparable parts of teaching especially in English language teaching programs. Reading as one of the important and purposeful macro skills of literacy is mainly based on the interaction of an active reader and the text in order to get the meaning (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984; Koda, 2005). And as many stated, the comprehension is the most important part of reading (e. g. Pressley, 2006). There are lots of modern devices which suits reading comprehension. Mind mapping softwares are among them. This study aimed to search the attitudes of 31 EFL female students towards the use of mind mapping softwares on reading comprehension activities. They were sophomore students of business management at Hakimian university, Bojnourd, Iran. The research was conducted through an attitude questionnaire and the data was analyzed by calculating the frequencies of the answers to these 17 questions in the Lickert type. The results showed that the participants' attitudes were significantly positive towards the use of mind mapping soft wares on their reading activities in order to enhance comprehension. Most of them found them an interesting tool, although expressed that it is more difficult to design a mind map by software in comparison to its handmade designation. They emphasized on some of the advantages of software mind maps like sharing or even designing their mind maps with others via internet.

**KEYWORDS:** Attitudes, Mind Mapping Software, Reading Comprehension, Female Learners

**INTRODUCTION**

In second language learning programs, reading English texts has a significant role. Reading can be regarded as especially important because it is assumed to be one of the central means for learning new information (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). It is one of the essential macro skills especially for students who study English as a part of their education and they might be required to read textbooks, carry out research, prepare reports, etc. Therefore, they need to comprehend successfully as well as to read effectively. Nowadays, the progress of the technology has made some changes in different aspects of our life and in education as a part of it. This technological development is extended to the ELT and particularly in the scope of reading comprehension, too. There are lots of reading strategies which governs by technological tools as computers, web, etc. Graphic organizers, concept map, and mind maps are among them.

When you want to express your ideas and concepts, you can demonstrate them visually in the form of a mind map (Buzan & Buzan, 1993; Wycoff, 1991). "A mind map is a colourful, visual form of note-taking that can be worked on by one person or a team of people. At its heart is a central idea or image. This is then explored by means of branches representing main ideas, which all connect to this central idea." (Buzan, 2004, p. 10). Actually the origins of mind mapping belongs to the note takings of some genius people like Da Vinci, Edison, Einstein and Michaelangelo, that were investigated by Buzan in 2003. In fact Tony Buzan involved with mind mapping strategy by studying the techniques they used in their notes; that it was a proven for the use of both halves of the brain by them that resulted some kind of creativity (Hofland, 2007).

The flexible links of mind maps, capacity of using images, colors, and lots of other useful options facilitate different actions as brainstorming, analyzing, comprehending, etc. One hundred uses of mind maps are mentioned by Congdon (2011), Foreman (2009), etc. There are two kinds of mind maps: hand-made mind maps and software mind maps. Thanks to the progress of technology, nowadays there is a chance to design mind maps by computers. Among the increasingly number of mind map software programs, we can mention some of them like, Free mind map, Buzan i mind map, personal brain, mind manager, x mind. It's a fact that there are some benefits of computer mind mapping over manual mind mapping. There are lots of quotations that state this superiority, but lots of them bode in cases like:

"However, the areas where computer Mind Mapping can offer a significant improvement to personal productivity are the areas of: automatic Mind Map generation; Mind Map editing; data storage; data retrieval; text input; and the organisation of data."(Buzan & Buzan, 1996, p.274).

The mind maps created by computer software are printable and you can make copies for the use of a group of people. It may occur most of times that when designing a mind map, you realize that it takes more space to complete it, so in manual working you are forced to redraw it in a bigger paper; but in the computer ones you can continue without any worry about its small size, because the computer can magnify the branches and sub-branches (it is known as Mega Mind Map) (Buzan & Buzan, 1996). It must be mentioned that you can also see the overall mind map simultaneously. In other words, they are macro and micro manager of the information. They also make the opportunity to draw the branches and sub-branches separately and then link them to the main theme which is located in the center. The computer mind maps are portable, so they have the ability to be used or edited by other soft wares. Drawing a mind map by aids of computers is faster than handmade ones, even with few tool requirement and they can be saved in computers with their vast memory capacity. It is clear that working with a computer, will make the opportunity of recoloring and repositioning the mind maps, as the mind map soft wares have a toolbar to control these options. They can also record the ideas that are produced spontaneously during brainstorming. Mind map soft wares are capable to receive the key words and to place them in central theme or sub-branches. Organizing and reorganizing information are important advantages of computer mind maps, as Buzan and Buzan (1996) mention:

"An integrated data organisation environment allows you to group files into directories, sub-directories and sub- sub directories, etc., enabling you to locate easily and with instant retrieval capability items from any category" (p. 277).

The recent computer mind maps do not give just one version of mind map for inputs, in fact they enable us with a variety of mind map forms for an indicate data. In other hand, their show is equipped with the mood of presentation in a 3D view to give more insight to audience. As Buzan and Buzan (1996) avouch for the appropriateness of using mind maps for the aim of lecturing as it makes a balance between spontaneous and fresh talk and the clear and well-structured one. It's certain that the computer made mind maps have the capacity of transferring via internet or share them online for the use of working purposes or group discussion. One of the superiorities of software mind maps that are provided by the aid of computers over hand writing mind maps is that when you want to design a mind map, you may study for many times after starting a mind map, so software mind maps give this chance to you to avoid rewriting while your information

increased in intervals. This editing process is available in the stage of editing the not precise structures and also the ideas that are located in not appropriate places.

#### REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A few numbers of studies have been devoted to incorporate the use of mind mapping soft wares in order to improve learners reading comprehension, and as we said, this study is an attempt to fill the gaps in this realm. Some of the past studies in this scope are presented below.

Kim and Kim (2012), in a study to find the educational outcomes of using digital mind maps in elementary level classes, perceived its positive effects for example in memorizing vocabularies and they also introduced mind mapping as a tool that suits with different learning styles. Benavides et al (2010), searched on the effects of mind mapping software on reading comprehension for the students of Bachelor degree in English attending reading and writing in English II course at Universidad de Oriente Univ, San Miguel. The data in this dissertation analyzed in three parts: contrastive analysis of students' assignments, questionnaire, and content analysis. The results in the first part showed that 17 students out of 25, had progress in visualizing skill and determining important skill. The results of questionnaire showed that 100% of the students considered the Mind Mapping Software as a good tool for the improvement of reading comprehension skill and as a technique to summarizing reading and to organize the ideas. And the last part indicated synthesizing skill is the highest and most complex form of comprehension.

Ellozy and Mostafa (2010), in an attempt searched to find the effects of using E-maps in developing critical reading skills of seventy first year Egyptian students who enrolled at the American University in Cairo. The results showed that the majority of the participants found it as an active tool to enhance critical thinking and its visualization feature led them to a better communication. In fact it improved their analytical and synthetic skills. Liu, Chen, and Chang (2010) studied the effect of computer-assisted concept mapping strategy on reading comprehension of EFL learners and the results showed that its positive effect appeared more in low-level students than the high-level ones. Also it showed that it increased the participants' use of other English reading strategies—listing, enforcing, and reviewing. Tucker, Armstrong, and Massad (2009) in a survey discovered that 41 percent of respondents in business use either hand-drawn maps or mind mapping software. Their results indicated that in education 43 percent (about 75 percent of it is related to female and about 25 percent to male), in government 10 percent, and in other sectors it is 0.06. Ruffini (2008), tried to test the effects of using e- maps to organize and navigate the online content of twelve students and finally reached to the positive effects. Bidarra, Guimarães, and Kommers (2000), in a study on mind mapping and the creation of Hyperscapes, found that they can give learners control over multimedia materials and improve motivation.

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study is to shed light on the attitudes of Iranian EFL learners towards the use of mind mapping software on their reading comprehension. In other words, this study attempts to find answers to the following research question:

1. What are the attitudes of Iranian female EFL learners towards using mind mapping software as a tool to improve their reading comprehension?

#### METHODOLOGY

In order to find the purpose of this study which aimed to investigate students' attitudes towards using mind mapping software while reading comprehension, the quantitative data of the participants were gathered through a questionnaire.

##### *Participants*

The participants of this study were 31 female students of business management at Hakimian University of Bojnourd, Iran. They were participating in general English course as their compulsory one. It must be mentioned that these students passed the pre-university general English in their previous semester and they are familiar with mind maps and how to use them in comprehending reading text since they have been taught to use mind maps and have used them for 16 sessions in their last semester. The general English semester lasted two hours per week for 16 weeks and this is their second semester they participating in the university. Their ages ranged from 18 to 23 and we selected just female students as the limitation in the number of male students in this university and in this field of study forced us.

##### *Instruments*

As mentioned before, the quantitative data of this study was collected through an attitude questionnaire. The questionnaire was composed of 17 questions in relation to the use of software mind maps in reading comprehension activities. The questions are close-ended and the responses are based on 4-point Likert scale, that 1 stands for "strongly agree", 2 for "agree", 3 for "disagree", and 4 for "strongly disagree". The questionnaire was designed by the researcher with some inspirations from the questionnaire prepared by Hariri and Tahriri (2013) and studied by another EFL instructor of university to be confirmed. Also the questionnaire was piloted on another group of 15 students in the same university and with the same field of study to be informed of the possible problems and to correct them. It must be mentioned the participants were familiar with mind mapping, especially hand-made ones from their last semester but at the number of treatment sessions in this semester for using mind map soft wares were 14 sessions and in each session 15 minutes were allocated to it. In this treatment period, the students got familiar with mind map soft wares and cooperated to do it in the class for the reading texts of their course book. The main textbook that was considered for this semester was "Inside Reading 2" (intermediate) by Lawrence, Zimmerman, and Zimmerman (2012). They also tried designing mind maps by their own computers out of the class in the home.

##### *Procedure*

The rationale for selecting these participants was based on the fact that the researcher was the teacher of this class in the current and previous semester and they practiced mind maps in their last semester as an extra activity for each session. So, there was no need to introduce mind maps to them as they were familiar to it from their last semester. The data gathered by the researcher herself as the teacher of this class. It must be mentioned that the participants taking part in the study were aware of the intentions of the study and were guaranteed that their responses did not have any effect on their course score.

##### *Data Analysis*

After the data from the questionnaire were gathered, they were analyzed by determining the frequency for each of the questionnaire's

questions. At the end, the results were presented in the form of table too.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

As we said, the answers of the questionnaire were based on the Likert scales, these answers are showed in Table 1 below:

*Table 1: Students' Responses to Attitudes Items about the Use of Mind Map Software in Reading Comprehension*

Items	Students' Responses							
	1 Strongly Agree		2 Agree		3 Strongly Disagree		4 Disagree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
1	2	10%	6	30%	3	15%	9	45%
2	4	20%	11	55%	3	15%	2	10%
3	6	30%	10	50%	3	15%	1	5%
4	4	20%	10	50%	2	10%	4	20%
5	5	25%	8	40%	3	15%	4	20%
6	0	0%	3	15%	7	35%	10	50%
7	5	25%	10	50%	1	5%	4	20%
8	4	20%	12	60%	1	5%	3	15%
9	4	20%	13	65%	1	5%	2	10%
10	4	20%	5	25%	4	20%	7	35%
11	5	25%	3	15%	5	25%	6	30%
12	6	30%	7	35%	2	10%	4	20%
13	5	25%	6	30%	3	15%	6	30%
14	6	30%	10	50%	2	10%	2	10%
15	5	25%	10	50%	2	10%	3	15%
16	3	15%	4	20%	5	25%	8	40%
17	4	20%	10	50%	3	15%	3	15%

According to the early questions of the questionnaire, most of the participants indicated that software mind maps are more interesting than handmade ones but both of them help the learners in their reading comprehension. They said that training how to mind map by a software needs lots of training and special courses. Most of them mentioned some superior characteristics of software mind mapping on handmade ones (item 12), as sharing knowledge of a reading passage along peoples along world (item 4), or communicating with other students (item 13). They consider it as a new way of working on reading comprehension and most of them were disagree that using mind maps in reading comprehension is a waste of time and few of them felt isolated when practicing reading by mind map soft wares. Half of them in item 10 expressed that mind map soft wares are complicated to use but the rest were disagree, as in the item 11, half of them were not the type to use soft wares. Most of the participants (80%), stated that they are pleased to use mind map soft wares for their reading comprehension in the future especially at their own homes. But most of them considered the designation of a mind map by soft ware more difficult than its handmade one (item 16) but it is more useful for solving the post-reading questions (item 17).

As we mentioned earlier, there are few studies conducted to investigate the role of mind map softwares on the students reading comprehension, but the findings of this research is in line with the results of some of the studies mentioned in the literature review as Benavides et al (2010) who expressed the positive role of mind map soft wares in summarizing, organizing and summarizing a reading passage which help increasing the comprehension. Also it is in line with Liu, Chen, and Chang's (2010) study that proved mind map softwares had positive effects on low-level EFL learners. This study also reached to some further information about the attitudes of the participants towards paper made mind maps and software mind maps that they stated although the mind maps designed by a software are more interesting than the handmade mind maps, but it needs to be instructed in order to design a mind map with a software.

**CONCLUSION**

The present study aimed at examining the attitudes of 31 EFL female university students that their proficiency level was mainly elementary towards the use of mind map softwares on their reading to improve their comprehension. Due to the approximately positive conclusions of the study, it may be premature to state that there is significant attitudes of these university EFL learners towards using mindmapping softwares in the reading comprehension. Most of the participants said that they enjoyed using mind map softwares and they will use it in the future but it needs some instruction to gain a good command of it. Nevertheless, further research replicating this study should be carried out in the future to conclusively determine the authenticity of such relationship. One of the limitation for doing this study was the use of computers to work with mind maps in the class by the participants, and as in that university there were no facility for this issue to prepare computers for each student and all the students were not able to have personal laptops and bring them to the class, so the researcher used her personal laptop and showed the content via a projector.

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**APPENDIX**

**Questionnaire of Learner's Attitudes towards Using Mind Map Software in Reading Comprehension**

Age: .....

Instruction: Please read the following questions and choose one answer from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (4).

**strongly agree      agree      disagree      strongly disagree**  
**1                              2                              3                              4**

No.	ITEM
1	The mind map soft wares are more interesting than the handmade ones.
2	I need do a lot of training in a course which uses mind mapping software to understand how to use them.
3	Mind maps (whether soft wares or handmade) help me to have better reading comprehension.
4	I enjoy sharing my knowledge of a reading passage with peoples all around the world via mind maps software.
5	As a new way of reading, I think mind-mapping soft wares are interesting.
6	Using mind map software in a reading process is a waste of time.
7	Mind map soft wares provide me with learning opportunities that I have never tried before in usual reading classes.
8	I felt isolated when I participated in a course using mind map soft wares.
9	It is easier for me to comprehend what I've read through mind map soft wares than without them.
10	The mind map soft wares are complicated to use.
11	I am not the type to do well with soft wares.
12	There are lots of advantages in designing a mind map by software than handmade.
13	Software mind maps are more suitable to communicate more with other students than the handmade ones.
14	In the future, do not want to use mind map soft wares.
15	I would like to be able to use mind map soft wares at home.
16	Designing a software mind map is easier than its handmade one.
17	When I use mind map soft wares for a reading passage, I'm more able to solve post-reading activities.

ON THE EFFECT OF ASSESSING THREE KINDS OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION ON EFL LEARNER'S ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

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**ABSTRACT**

This study investigates the nature of three types of focus on form in three communicative classrooms on English as a Foreign Language milieu. The study was conducted with intermediate participants in a private language institute in Bandar Abass, Iran. Based on a mixed method, containing both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis, the effectiveness of input-enhancement, dictogloss, and consciousness-raising was traced through a pre-test-post-test design and a two-week classroom observation. SPSS analysis revealed input enhancement and consciousness-raising had significant effects on the gain scores of two groups. The study also showed that there was more viable teacher-learner interaction involving "use of preposition" in consciousness-raising than the two other tasks. The study suggested that Iranian EFL learners could benefit more from consciousness-raising task if appropriately incorporated into classroom activity.

**KEYWORDS:** Task-based instruction, Form-focused instruction, Input enhancement, Dictogloss, Consciousness-raising

**INTRODUCTION**

In recent years, the tendency toward task-based instruction has increased. Task-based instruction has been recommended as a way forward in English Language Teaching. Ellis (2003) believes that "task-based instruction (TBI), as an offspring of the strong version of communicative language teaching, with an emphasis on meaning over form, fluency over accuracy, experiential approach over analytic one, has been glorified, denigrated, proscribed and prescribed quite furiously by different perspectives. The immediate mastery over authentic language use, attainment of communicative competence and performance, numerous supportive evidence from Second Language Acquisition theories, all in all seem to herald a new panacea to the ailment of language learning". Focus-on-form instruction in second language teaching is defined by Long (1991, pp. 45-46) as an attempt that "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication". This definition of focus-on-form is in line with Spada (1997) of the concept of form-focused instruction (FFI) in which FFI refers to "pedagogical events which occur within meaning-based approaches to L2 instruction but in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways". This new approach encourages learner to acquire communicative and grammatical knowledge. So, FFI or focus-on-form deals with any pedagogical effort which is performed to draw learner attention to form either explicitly or implicitly.

**Statement of the Problem**

TBI, however, has confronted many criticisms in its own turn. One of the most critical issue that has been pointed to, is the role of "grammar instruction". TBI, in stark contrast to task-supported instruction based on the Cognitivist Approach, is heavily grounded in Implicit Learning Model, based on Interactionist view. Although the latter is predominated theory-wise, in practice it failed to account for various aspects of language learning, such as: development of linguistic competence and accuracy, lack of idiomaticity or sociocultural appropriateness, and the hazard of fossilization that may induce a false, pidginized glib. FFI is proposed as a viable solution to compensate these deficiencies. At the heart of FFI is the "focused task", a task which is designed to induce learners to process or produce a linguistic form. This approach should not be confounded with traditional approach to grammar, in which the teaching of grammar was equated with "forms only" in an isolated, decontextualized and artificial manner to memorize grammatical forms, devoid of any meaning, through controlled drills and exercises such as: repetition and substitution. On the other hand, FFI is meaning-oriented and endeavours to draw learners conscious or subconscious attention into grammatical points while they are engaged in negotiation of meaning to achieve a communicative purpose. In this way, input can promote both meaningful interaction and acquisition of salient linguistic forms.

**Theoretical Framework**

As it is claimed the most prevalent and valid conceptualization of FFI in SLA research realizes at three levels:

- 1- Proactive conceptualization at syllabus design level (Williams & Doughty, 1998),
- 2- Reactive conceptualization at methodological process level (Long & Robinson, 1998),
- 3- Postactive conceptualization or after-task-completion (Skehan & Foster, 2005).

At the level of syllabus, 'task' could be designed in such a way that incorporates a specific linguistic structure. Structure-based communication task is a focused task that can be implemented through task-naturalness, task-utility and task-essentialness (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993). Comprehension or interpretation task is another important alternative in FFI. At the level of methodology, FFI could be performed either implicitly (e.g. recasting and clarification) or explicitly (through metalinguistic comment, query). Postactive FFI aims to observe and identify learners error and diagnose them either through direct correction or indirect, delayed feedback.

The current study concentrated on the second level of FFI namely, 'reactive conceptualization at methodological process level' in which three kinds of presented task were performed explicitly or implicitly. Teachers involved in this study provided different tasks at this level of focus on form which were focused on 'preposition'. For instance, the first group of learners was benefited from comprehension activities by focusing on the input in input enhancement task. The second group was benefited from production activities by concentrating on the output in dictogloss task (by reconstructing the text as closely as possible to the original version in a collaborative work). The last task made a language point the topic of language and raised the explicit attention of learners to the form in consciousness-raising task. So, in all of these tasks learners implicitly or explicitly concentrated on form and exchanging of information for obtaining meaning or communication purposes.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

We begin our overview of task-based instruction with the two most prevalent and well accepted definitions of a 'task' provided by Ellis and Nunan. Ellis (2006) defines task in the following way: "A task is a work-plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or

written skills and also various cognitive processes". Nunan (2006) believes that "a task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form".

Most of the studies carried on the task investigated the effectiveness of focus-on-form instruction in three kinds of task namely, input enhancement, dictogloss, and consciousness-raising. A number of research studies investigated the effect of input enhancement on noticing and language acquisition. For example, Jourdenais et al. (as cited in Ellis, 2003) used a think-aloud procedure to determine whether the highlighting of target forms would affect learners' on-line processing of forms, found that the think-aloud protocols of students exposed to enhanced text contained significantly more episodes related to the target forms than the group who did not have enhanced texts.

In dealing with 'dictogloss', Swain and Lapkin (as cited in Fotos & Nassaji, 2011) compared Grade 8 French immersion student's performance of an information gap task involving a picture-story and dictogloss task where they first listened to the story and took the notes before attempting to reconstruct it. They predicted that because the dictogloss task afforded the learners a linguistically-encoded content, they would have more time to attend to form (a corollary of accuracy) than in the information gap task where the information was supplied pictorially and thus had to be encoded linguistically by the learners. However, there were no statistically significant differences in the frequency of 'language-related episodes'. On the other studies relating to dictogloss, Kowal and Swain (as cited in Ellis, 2003) found that Grade 8 French immersion students both noticed and produced exemplars of the present tense when working in pairs to reconstruct a text that had been devised to practice this structure.

The last pieces of research studies pertains to the consciousness-raising (CR) tasks which were conducted by Ellis and Fotos (as cited in Ellis, 2003) to examine whether the grammatical understanding that resulted from learners performing a CR task was as good as that resulting from traditional grammatical explanations provided by a teacher showed that the CR tasks used in this study led to a good understanding of the target grammar points and resulted in plentiful meaning negotiation. On the other study, Sheen (as cited in Fotos & Nassaji, 2011) compared direct and indirect consciousness-raising in a six-week beginners' French course for Japanese students, reporting that students in the two groups did equally well in written post-test of the structures taught.

One of the Researches which examined the effect of task repetition on learning enhancement in EFL learners was conducted by Ahmadian. Ahmadian (2012) considered the significance of repetition of the same or slightly altered tasks at intervals. He considered how teachers might develop the pre-, while-, and post-task phases of lessons. He ultimately found that instead of focusing upon the performance of tasks in isolation, the concept of task repetition moves the focus of debate clearly towards the pedagogic use of tasks within lessons.

#### OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study examined the effectiveness of focus-on-form instruction in three kinds of task (input enhancement, dictogloss, and consciousness-raising) at methodological process level. Thus, this study investigated three groups of EFL learners who dealt with three different kinds of task to focus on form adopted in classroom. "Preposition" used for the form in focus since most of EFL learners encountered with different problems in accurate use of prepositions due to their low saliency and insensitivity of learners.

#### SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In recent years, language teaching and learning have trends toward communication dimension of language via focus on form. This kind of focus as an active and meaning-based to language teaching and language learning. Various researchs and studies were conducted in EFL milieu concerning the effect and nature of explicit and implicit focus on form. It is one of the concern of EFL teachers that how much learners' attention is directed to communication by focusing on form. As Sheen (2003) points out that "the debate revolve around the degree to which teachers need to direct learners' attention to understanding grammar whilst retaining a focus on the need to communicate".

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study sought to find the answer for the following questions:

- a) Do different types of focus-on-form have different effects on EFL learner's academic achievement?
- b) Which type of focus on form affects students' use of English preposition the most ?

#### METHODOLOGY

This study conducted through a mixed method. The choice of the methodology was mainly in line with Ellis' (2003) recommendation for research on tasks: "FFI studies could be examples of hybrid research, or a combination of confirmatory and interpretive paradigm". Such a procedure added more to the depth and credibility of the results. Thus, this study was carried out in two phases: a quantitative phase followed by a qualitative one. Data were collected and analyzed through both perspectives. The quantitative phase involved administration a pre-test-post-test design. At first, a pre-test administered to capture pre-existing differences among groups and to make them statistically equivalent from the outset. Later on, two weeks of instruction based on FFI were followed. At the end of intended instruction post-tests administered to measure any changes in the learner's accurate usage of preposition (gain score) which in turns indicated the effectiveness of instruction. The second phase, a qualitative data collection, involved classroom observation and note-taking in order to address the second research question, which mainly aimed at revealing if three different types of tasks would lead to more meaningful interaction containing using prepositions or not.

#### Participants

This study drew on convenient sampling. The researchers used the available sample at an institute in Bandar Abbas, Iran. Although this type of sampling is the weakest or the least desirable type of sampling but as Miles and Humberman (as cited in Dorney, 2007) claim that "convenient sampling is the most common sampling strategy, at least at the postgraduate research level. It is not purposive but largely practical: the researcher uses those who are available". Three major groups (classroom) of learners, who were studying at the same levels, *intermediate level or Real course* at level 8, were chosen for this study. Thirty-five participants (two groups each with 12 participants and one group with 11 participants) participated in this study. They studied at three different classes with three different teachers (each of teachers had more than three years teaching experience in language institute) although all of the participants were at the same level (8) and studied the same textbook (Real). Then, three different tasks (input enhancement, dictogloss, and consciousness-raising) were allocated for three groups (each class or group was allocated one task).

**Materials**

Tasks were the core material for this study. Three kinds of task were considered: input enhancement, dictogloss, and consciousness-raising. These tasks were extracted from textbook under the instruction. The textbook used for this course was *Real* (Craven, 2008). This book has communicative themes realting to social, travel, work, study, and etc.

Input enhancement involves "typological enhancement of input to draw learners incidental attention to salient features of target language that may be left unnoticed otherwise" (Fotos & Nassaji, 2011). Here, the teacher provided a short text in which prepositions were bolded and learners were exposed to 'bold prepositions' (e.g. appendix C, task 1). The second group was benefited from dictogloss. As Nassaji (1999) explains dictogloss as a technique in which "the teacher reads a short text twice and at a normal speed to group of students. The students are instructed to listen very carefully and to write down as such information as they can as they listen to the story. When the reading is finished, the students are divided into small groups and are asked to use their resources to reconstruct the text as closely as possible to the original version. Finally, the students are asked to compare and analyze the different versions they have produced". So, in this study, the teacher read a short text ( e.g. appendix C, task 2) for learners twice at a normal speed. The learners listened carefully and took notes, e.g some key phrases. Then, they reconstructed the story later. Here, the aim was to test whether the learners could product "preposition" accurately or not.

The last group was benefited from the instruction of consciousness-raising task. Consciousness-raising (C-R), as an explicit focused task with linguistic content, required learners to use their metalingual ability to move beyond semantic processing to syntactic processing through negotiation of form. As Ellis (2003) mentions that "C-R tasks seem to be an effective means of achieving a focus on form while at the same time affording opportunities to communicate". In this group, learners should concentrate explicitly on the preposition on the text which was provided by the teacher. For instance one of the task implemented in the class by learners presented in appendix C, task 3 in which learners should underline time preposition on the text firstly and then write the time phrase in the provided table.

**Instruments**

Tests constituted the main instruments for this study. A pre-test (appendix A) administered at the beginning of the research constructed based on a focus on different usages of prepositions. This test was extracted from the book of *Grammar in Use* (Murphy & Smalzer, 2009) and given to three teachers who cooperated in this study in order to judge whether it was at the level of student or not. In order to have a more reliable test, it was administered to the similar group of students ( studied at level 8 of *Real* course) before the begining of the study. Post-test (appendix B) was another instrument followed the same format and from the same mentioned resource although the questions were different. Observation of the researchers during classroom constituted another instrument for gathering in-situ data. Lincoln and Guba (as cited in Aray, Jacobs, & Sorenson, 2010, p 424) introduced the concept of human as instrument to emphasize the unique role that qualitative researchers play in their inquiry.

**Procedures for Data Collection and Data Analysis**

Data were triangulated through classroom observation and field note-taking of interaction between teacher-student, and two tests (pre-test, post-test). Three instructors administered the pre-test on the same day and allocated the same amount of time for students at the beginning of the study. Pre-test included 15 blanks and each correct answer received one positive score total of 15 scores. Researcher spent eighteen session of class observation (six sessions for each teacher) which lasted ninety minutes for each session. Although the teachers followed a set routine of communicative instruction in their classes, some of the times of the classes were allocated to dealing with provided tasks (focusing on form) through communication. During classroom observation, the researchers endeavored to capture as many relevant teacher performances as possible, including their use of materials, classroom management in interaction with students.

Data werer transcribed and codified. A post test was administered by three instructores after two weeks instruction and the criterion for scoring procedure was the same as pre-test. Mean scores were calculated for correct and wrong use of form for each of the task for pre-test and post-test separately. The researcher compared mean scores of each group in the form of paired t-test in pre-test and post-test to obtain the amount of progress in learning for each group. The level of significant was pre-set to .05 ( $p < .05$ ). Percentages for learning gains (progress from pre to post-test) were calculated for each kind of tasks.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This section involves findings from both phases of research. First, the quantitative phase is examined. Findings from the current study indicated that two tasks out of three tasks which focused on form affected on EFL learners academic achievement. Table 1 shows that learners had progress from pre- to post-test (learning gains) for input enhancement.

*Table 1: Learning gains from pre to post-test for Input Enhancement*

Input enhancement	N	Mean/15	SD	SEM	t	p
Pre-test	12	8.41	2.50	0.722	4.213	0.001
Post-test	12	11.16	2.20	0.637		

As indicated in 'table 1', the learners' mean, which was only 8.41 out of 15 on the pre-test, increased to 11.16 out of 15 on the post-test. The learning gain from pre- to post-tests is highly significant ( $t = 4.213, p < 0.001$ ); it indicates that students made impressive progress on this task from pre- to post-tests as a result of FFI ( instruction of input enhancement).

Results from dictogloss task indicated (table 2) that learners had less or no progress from pre-to-post test.

*Table2: Learning gains from pre to post-test for Dictogloss*

Dictogloss	N	Mean/15	SD	SEM	t	p
Pre-test	12	8.50	2.57	0.743	0.484	0.638
Post-test	12	8.75	2.38	0.689		

As illustrated in 'table 2'. The learners' mean, which was 8.50 out of 15 on the pre-test, increased to 8.75 out of 15 on the post-test. The learning gains from pre- to post-tests are less or no significant ( $t = 0.484, \text{ and } 0.638 < p$ ); it indicates that students had less or no progress on this task from pre- to post-tests as a result of the instruction of dictogloss task. The learning gains made from pre- to post-test for consciousness-raising task as they are presented in 'table 3' showed that learners had highly progress in this kind of task.

*Table 3: Learning gains from pre to post-test for Consciousness-raising*

Consciousness-raising	N	Mean/15	SD	SEM	t	p
Pre-test	11	8.36	3.10	0.936	4.737	0.001
Post-test	11	12.27	2.72	0.821		

Table 3 indicated that the learners' mean, which was only 8.36 out of 15 on the pre-test, increased to 12.27 out of 15 on the post-test. The learning gain from pre- to post-tests is highly significant ( $t = 4.737, p < 0.001$ ); it shows that students made impressive progress on this task from pre- to post-tests as a result of the instruction of consciousness-raising task.

The researchers observed two weeks of classroom instruction. The main goal of this phase was to examine which type of focus on form (FOF) motivated more opportunities for learners to use preposition. Below, there are three examples taken through filed-noting during classroom observation. They also revealed the type of classroom interactions between teachers and learners.

*Example on: Input enhancement*

Attention may be drawn to a target form via typographical means such as underlining, color-coding, or bolding target structures that appear within a meaningful setting. For instance, in this study the teacher administers a text contains some bolded items (preposition). He asks his students to first read the text individually. Later he asks them to be paired and look more carefully at the bolded items. There is some discussion between students (student-student interaction). Teacher adds more explanations on the board and gives some oral examples.

\_Teacher (to the class): do you understand it?

\_Class: YES!

In another situation, the teacher brings a picture to the class. By using picture, teacher wants to learn using the correct form of "preposition" for *directions*. He writes every preposition with different color beside each picture. He addresses to students:

\_Teacher: Look! *On* (blue color) the left is kitchen.... and *on* (blue color) the right is the dining room. There is bathroom just *at* (red color) the top of the stairs and living room here just *at* (red color) the bottom of stairs. *Opposite* (yellow color) to our room is Abigail's room and *next to* (green color) Abigail's is your room.

\_Student: Excuse me! Use *on* for top and right and *at* for bottom and left.

\_Teacher: Pay attention to color...

\_Student: Pardon me! You mean we use *on* for the left and right directions because you use the same blue color and *at* for the top and bottom because you use the same red color.....

\_Teacher: Right! You got it.

Although some understanding-checking questions popped up during the instruction, examples of initiation or use of preposition by the learners were rarely observed in this classroom.

*Example two: Dictogloss*

In the beginning of the class, teacher and students review some points related to the previous lesson. Then, the teacher informs students that they are going to have a new classroom activity.

He presents oral introduction and make students understand what they are going to learn in this lesson. After that, He reads the provided text for students loudly with a normal speed twice.

T: We'll have a dictation, a new one. I'll read a text aloud and omit some parts of it, the preposition. You have to write the correct prepositions while you are writing the text.

Teacher divides students in four groups (each group contains three students) and requests students to cooperate with each other. He only observes discussion of the students for reconstructing the text and finding the correct preposition. At the end, students try to sort every part of the text in the separate sentence.

\_Students: We find appropriate prepositions and separate each sentence.

\_Teacher: Good! I'll explain them on the board.

After the dictogloss, the teacher turns to the board and organizes them in categories and adds more explanation (Teacher-whole class interaction).

*Example three: consciousness-raising*

The pedagogical grammar hypothesis and its consciousness-raising techniques are the undeniable forefathers of focus-on-form theory and techniques. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988) define consciousness-raising as "the deliberate attempt to draw the learner's attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language" (as cited in Gascoigne, 2001).

For performing consciousness-raising task in the current study, the teacher asks learners to work in pair. He gives them a text followed by a table. The students are asked to read the text and organize the prepositions in the pre-made table. Then the teacher asks every pair to read one of the examples and explain if it's a time preposition, place preposition or other types.

\_Student A: "*On*" Thursday, 24<sup>th</sup> May, but we say "*in*" June?

\_Teacher: great! And why?

\_Student A: well.....we use "*in*" for months?

\_Teacher: Good! And?

\_Students: but for time, sorry date (?), we should use "*on*"

\_Teacher: can you give me an example about your own birthday?

\_Students: I was born on April 23d, 1987? But, I was born in April

\_Teacher: yeah!

In another situation, students discuss about a subject. Teacher goes near to them.

\_Teacher: What's the matter?

\_Students: We have a discussion about using the right preposition for university.

\_Teacher: and did you reach an agreement?

\_Students: Which one *on*, *at*, or *in* can we use with university?

\_Teacher: Do you study at Azad university (Student A)?

\_Student A: Yes

\_Teacher: How about you, do you study at Azad university or at Payame-noor university (Student B)?

\_Students: Thanks. We got it. We must use *at*.

\_Teacher: So, would you like to continue our discussion about other prepositions such as... .

Pertaining to consciousness-raising task, the teacher tried to develop students basic abilities to understand what they listen to or read and to convey information, knowledge, and ideas by actively interacting with the students and creating positive attitude toward communication through dealing with everyday's life matters. It could be observed that learners were more prone to initiate and use preposition while working with consciousness-raising task.

### Discussion

The discussion section is devoted mainly to summarize and discuss the results obtained from the effect of three kinds of task on EFL learners' academic achievement. The researchers considered this question that do different types of focus-on-form have different effects on EFL learner's academic achievement? They examined the results of the study and realized that the learners who were benefited from two types of task instruction pertaining to input enhancement and consciousness-raising had better progress in their learning. According to the results, students made significantly fewer errors on the post-test than on the pre-test for each of these tasks. For supporting this claim, results obtained from pre-test showed that in pre-test about 56% of participants in input enhancement, 56.6% of participants in dictogloss, and 55.7% of participants in consciousness-raising correctly answered the questions pertaining to prepositions, while these results for post-test were 74.4% for input enhancement, 58.3% for dictogloss, and 81.8% for consciousness-raising respectively. These findings confirmed that using different types of focus-on-form had different effects on the performance of learners. This matter was evident in the progress of learners from pre-to-post-test due to their benefiting from each of these tasks instruction separately. So, dealing with different tasks had different effects in learners academic's achievement.

Considering the second question of the research that which type of focus on form affects students' use of English preposition the most? The researchers endeavored to consider both qualitative and quantitative finding of the study. Although the main focus was on qualitative approach. Pertaining to quantitative results in the form of numbers revealed that the learners who were benefited from conscious-raising task had better performance in dealing with preposition from pre-to-post test compared to two other groups. In the qualitative phase, The field-notes made by the researchers during classroom observations indicated the low frequency of teacher-learners interaction during two types of task, input-enhancement and dictogloss. It is suggested that learners didn't find many opportunities to use preposition during these two FOF. However, a considerable meaningful interaction was engendered during consciousness-raising which went beyond the understanding-checking on the part of teachers. These findings are in line with Ellis (2003) idea about the effectiveness of consciousness-raising task as he believes "C-R tasks seem to be an effective means of achieving a focus on form while at the same time affording opportunities to communicate". This could be a viable, yet not totally generalizable, answer to the second research question which aimed at finding which types of three FOF encouraged more interaction and use of preposition on the part of learners. It could be concluded that "use of preposition" is more motivated via tasks like consciousness-raising in EFL classrooms.

### CONCLUSION

Grammar instruction continues to be a controversial area of research in applied linguistics. As a celebrated approach toward grammar instruction in a communicative-oriented language teaching, Focus-on-form received positive attention due to its balanced approach toward fluency-accuracy and its applicability in EFL contexts. The present study attempted to examine the efficiency of three models of FoF; namely input enhancement, dictogloss, and consciousness-raising; on learning "*preposition*". To achieve this goal, three intermediate classrooms (35 EFL learners) in a private language institute, where the main focus is meaning-based communication, were chosen.

Based on quantitative (pre-test post-test design) and qualitative data collection (observation and field notes), results revealed that EFL learners who were exposed to input enhancement and consciousness-raising task instructions had better progress in appropriate use of preposition compared to the other group who received dictogloss task instruction. Findings from the current study have correspondent to the effectiveness of consciousness-raising task instructions in enhancing learning in learners in some of the previously conducted studies in this area such as, the work of Ellis and Fotos (as cited in Ellis, 2003), and Sheen (as cited in Fotos & Nassaji, 2011) and the effectiveness of input enhancement task in increasing learning in the work of Jourdenais et al. (as cited in Ellis, 2003). Meanwhile, the analysis of classroom observations indicated that more meaningful interaction was engendered during performing consciousness-raising task than the other two tasks. The current study suggested that Iranian EFL learners could benefit more from consciousness-raising task if appropriately incorporated into classroom activity. However, since this study was conducted on a small-scale with a limited sample, generalization should be done with care with different contexts and participants.

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#### Appendix A

##### Pre-test

Full name: \_\_\_\_\_ Term: \_\_\_\_\_  
Course: \_\_\_\_\_ Time: 20 min

Select an appropriate preposition from the following list for each sentence.

Preposition list: **at, in, by, on, on time, to, in time, of, about, with, for.**

1. Three people were taken ..... the hospital after the accident.
2. You can rent a car ..... the airport.
3. I just started working ..... the sales department.
4. Write your name ..... the top of the page.
5. Can I pay ..... credit card?
6. They sent me a check ..... 200 dollars.
7. Raschel showed me some photos ..... her family.
8. I'll see you ..... Friday morning.
9. I want to deal ..... some problems.
10. If something happens ....., it happens at the time that was planned.
11. There is somebody ..... the building.
12. When you leave the hotel, please leave your key ..... the front desk.
13. Who was responsible ..... all that noise last night.
14. Lisa is upset ..... not being invited to the party.
15. I'm in hurry. I want to be home ..... to see the game on television.

#### Appendix B

##### Post-test

Full name: \_\_\_\_\_ Term: \_\_\_\_\_  
Course: \_\_\_\_\_ Time: 20 min

Select an appropriate preposition from the following list for each sentence.

Preposition list: **on, at, for, in, to, in time, of, about, on time, with, by.**

- 1- Don't go out ..... the train. Wait until it stops.
- 2- How did you get here? Did you come ..... train?
- 3- The company closed down because there wasn't enough demand ..... its product.
- 4- Don't meet me ..... the station. I can get a taxi.
- 5- Amy works at a bank and her brother is ..... the medical school.
- 6- The bus was late this morning, but it's usually .....
- 7- I'm going ..... vacation next week.
- 8- There has been an increase ..... the number of traffic accidents recently.
- 9- The police want to question a man in connection ..... the robbery.
- 10- Thank you. It was very kind ..... you to help me.
- 11- I didn't do it ..... purpose. It was an accident.
- 12- It was a lovely day. There wasn't a cloud ..... the sky.
- 13- I've thought ..... what you said, and I've decided to take your advice.
- 14- Will you home ..... for dinner.
- 15- I don't like going out ..... night.

#### Appendix C

##### Task 1: Input Enhancement

- Please read the following text and pay attention to the bold words.

So, welcome to English Studies International everyone. My name is Anna and I'm the director of studies. All right, so the first thing is

what's happening today? So **from** 9 am **until** 10.30, you'll do some tests. **After** you've done the test, **at** half past ten, you can have a break. **After** the break **at** 10.45, Rebecca will be waiting **for** you **in** reception to give you your books. **At** 11 o'clock, please come back here **to** the Learning Center, and Stewart, the Manager, will give you an introduction **to** the Learning Center. **At** half past eleven you will meet Christine. Christine will talk to you **about** the social programme **at** English Studies International. These are all the activities that you can do **after** school. So that **until** midday. Then **at** midday, I will come back. You will meet me again and I'll give you your timetables. Then you can have lunch **in** the canteen. During lunch, Berit will be **in** her office if any of you have accommodation problems. Then, this afternoon you could either listen to a talk **about** London or you could do a conversation class if you know London already.

**Task 2: Dictogloss**

- **Please listen to me carefully. I read the text twice and you listen to me, after I finished my reading you should discuss about it in group and reconstruct the text.**

Before we begin the first activity, I'd just like to talk about a few classroom rules. You know, to help your learning. These are rules for all my students. Ok, so, the first one- the most important rule- when you're in here, inside the classroom, you must speak English. You all have lots of different first languages so it makes sense to use English to each other. A second rule is about being on time in the morning. Lessons start at 9 o'clock so you must get here on time- before 9 is even better- so we can all start studying together. It's not really very polite to arrive 20 minutes late because it disturbs the people who did come on time. It makes things hard for your classmates. And another thing is mobile phones. You mustn't use your mobile during the lesson. Again it's not very polite. In fact, please turn your phone off completely during the lesson.

**Task 3: Consciousness-raising**

- **Please underline the time expression in this passage.**

I made an appointment to see Adam at 4 o'clock on Monday 13th May to speak about my application for a job. Unfortunately, he was involved in a car accident in the morning and rang to cancel the appointment. I made another appointment to see him at 11 o'clock on Thursday 23th May. However, when I got to his office, his secretary told me that his wife had died at the night and that he was not coming into the office that day. She suggested I reschedule for sometime in Jun. So, I made a third appointment to see Adam at 2 o'clock on Friday 12th Jun. this time I actually got to see him. However, he informed me that they had now filled all the vacancies and suggested I contact him again in 1988.

- **Now, write the time Phrases into this table.**

At	On	In

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#### ABSTRACT

Launching and developing the virtual and electronic education in universities and educational institutions, and generally, the higher education system, has been regarded by education scholars, communication and information technology professionals, and policy makers and those involved in the teaching and learning activities. Traditional training, despite its prominent role in history and authenticity throughout the years in training, learning and human knowledge, no longer is sufficient to meet all the educational needs of diverse clients from training in the era of information and communication such as continuous education, lifelong learning, and in-service training. At the same time, the use of faculty and students of modern communications technology and e-learning has always faced with the problems. The main objective of this study is to investigate the barriers and strategies for the development of e-learning among the students of physical education in Hamedan province in Iran. The scope of this study is Bu Ali Sina University and, Hamedan Azad University, Iran. Information for this study has been developed using a survey and the questionnaire technique. The questionnaire consisted of two parts: personal information including gender, age, educational level, GPA and University; and, e-learning barriers in the form of four barriers and 35 items. Then the reliability coefficient was determined using Cronbach's alpha (0.92) and the questionnaires were distributed among physical education students (especially) higher education students. To investigate the hypothesis, inferential statistical techniques such as the Kolmogorov – Smirnov test (KS), one-sample t-test and independent t-test were used. The results showed that infrastructure and equipment barriers, credit and financial barriers, educational and administrative barriers and human barriers of physical education students are involved in e-learning. The results also showed that among Bu-Ali Sina University and Azad University, there is no difference in the field of e-learning barriers, educational and administrative barriers, credit and financial barriers and human barriers. However, there are differences in the perception among Azad University students and Bu-Ali Sina University in the infrastructure and equipment barriers.

**KEYWORDS:** Barriers, e-learning, students, physical education

#### INTRODUCTION

Emergence of communication networks such as the internet, along with advanced tools and educational facilities, caused the method of teaching to be changed. It enables a wide range of knowledge seekers, from near and far distances, to enjoy training network; and, with methods different from conventional types implement scientific programs. This new method of learning is called e- (virtual learning), today is known as the most advanced teaching methods and it is benefiting from variety of advanced technologies, such as networking, databases, and knowledge management, etc. (Galusha, 1997).

The international dimensions of education and the need for it is imminent, that is, while e-learning development is still serving his childhood, it sets universal and effective influence on the world of education. Despite the great discussion of this phenomenon, it still has a great impact on vocational training and its various international aspects (Jokar, 2007).

Ballard (2000) argues that Information deforms modern Technology Educational institutions through new methods of watching and learning; it teaches students new ways of teaching and knowledge transfer, and it teaches teachers and managers new ways of organizing educational systems. However, the universities will be successful in the information age which their changed structure for the integration of distance learning courses. Those institutions that do not alter the structure may be overlooked by educational planners (Scott, 2000). E-learning has been continuously introduced as an alternative way to enhance traditional approaches. E-learning uses network technologies for the creation, enrichment, provision and facilitating of learning at any time and place (Abdon et al, 2007).

The issue of quality education has always been considered and is gaining more importance day by day (Abdon et al, ibid). Since the dominant mode of teaching and learning is teaching in the classroom, today new communication methods and spaces are provided which would allow teaching - learning process outside the classroom. Recent advances in computer and information industry, entry of information networks and communication technologies has faced the designers, planners, managers and executives of educational programs with new methods and procedures. Penetration of new information technologies in educational institutions has changed the simple relationships between the teaching and learning. With the development of information and communication technology at the Universities, it is expected that learning models to be evolved and more attention should be paid to the revision of the curricula (Fathnejad and Mokhtari, 1386).

However, computer-assisted learning also has its own limitations, such as lack of a good substitute for the teacher, Human and emotional interactions as well as classroom face-to-face communication (Twomey, 2004). Other limitations in the use of computers in Iran higher education are: lack of proper understanding of virtual learning environments, lack of proper infrastructure and telecommunication, lack of enough bandwidth to transmit and receive information. Moniee (2004) in his article argued that system of supply and demand for higher education still does not have an accurate understanding of virtual spaces and it is not well acquainted with the features and functions; and, basic IT skills are not still well known (Moniee, 2004). In this system, the success of learner is associated with technical skills in the use of computers and networks (Shuster, 2003). In addition, high rate of received messages and sending the solutions is a time consuming activity

and it requires information management skills (Twomey, 2003).

Three different evolution waves have been identified in the history. The first wave, that included some enhancements in cities and developments in rural areas, continued till 17th century. Then, the second evolution wave, which is termed 'industrial revolution', came into existence as the second great transformation that history ever had. And thus, for nearly three centuries ago, the evolution of these two waves with different velocities simultaneously continued till now (Toffler, 2002).

Today, with the incredible advances in information technology, preparation and distribution of information has become a new trend. As the second wave expanded and strengthened the human power, the third wave, by making the best use of computer, enhanced intellectual power and it gradually replaced hand workers with knowledge workers. The third wave, as the fundamental principle of the second wave, is moving toward greater diversity. In the first wave of civilization, people were not so dependent on the time because the works did not have a lot of continuity but in the second wave of civilization, delay of an employee or a worker could impede the work of many others. The third wave has personal and particular timing not public and general timing (Toffler, 2002).

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The international dimensions of education and the need for it is imminent, that is, while e-learning development is still serving his childhood, it sets universal and effective influence on the world of education. Despite the great discussion of this phenomenon, it still has a great impact on vocational training and its various international aspects (Shuster, 2003).

Esmaeeli Salumahaleh (2013) discusses the issues and obstacles of e-learning implementation in cultural, educational and technology dimensions in higher education. Analysis of this study shows that, in scholars and students' view, the problems related to telecommunication infrastructure and lack of access of students to computers and communication lines, are matters that cause e-learning not to be implemented successfully in Iran. According to experts, it covers a broader range of issues; they mention other obstacles and challenges for e-learning implementation such as: stakeholders' reaction to e-learning approach, inability of this approach in the transfer of university culture, particular challenges of implementing the first time, the issues facing electronic writing lesson plans, problems of telecommunications infrastructure, failure of proper facilities, as well as software and hardware costs, the social deficiencies of this type of distance learning and inadequate access of students to facilities.

Naghavi (2007), in his study, discussed about 'the Attitudes of Faculty and Graduate Students of Agricultural Extension and Education toward Distance Learning via the Internet'. Additionally, he considered the proficiency level of Information Technology of faculty and graduate students as a necessary element of e-learning development; moreover, he investigated the barriers of the expansion of this type of education (Naghavi, 2007).

In another study on the barriers to the development of the e-learning on the educational system in Iran, these barriers were divided into six categories:

- technological;
- Cultural and social;
- Pedagogical;
- Legal and administrative;
- Strategic; and,
- Economic (Houseinilorgani et al, 1387).

In other studies, including Frazeen (2004), it has been shown that implementing e-learning would be merely successful when the courses are theoretical.

Mirzayi (2013), in his study entitled the barriers of e-learning development in higher education in students view, has stated that the new information technology has an extraordinary ability to change or adjust teaching and learning activities in all educational institutions and it provides facilities for developing scientific environments that were not possible before. For this reason, many of the universities tend to start using the electronic courses by information technology for e-learning and online learning. However, several studies indicate that the development of e-learning in the educational system is faced with many problems; and unfamiliarity of policy makers and educational planners with these systems can impose a lot of costs for educational institutions.

Esmaeeli Salumahaleh (2013) in his paper entitled "Barriers to the development of e-learning in the teachers' service training" came to the conclusion that technical factors have the highest contribution to the development of e-learning barriers in teachers' service training educational, and respectively cultural, social, educational, economic, legal, administrative and strategic factors are in the next priorities.

Research results by Mirzayi (2013) showed that agents like evaluation, resources management, program management, means of communication and dialogue, learner-centered agent and flexibility, respectively, affect the pedagogical barriers of e-learning.

The major issues, problems and serious challenges in the higher education system are growing demand to enter into this system, entering the information age, the need to achieve information literacy, production rate and the need to design a system of continuous and lifelong education, User-centered education, expansion of educational justice, to stay ahead of fast caravan of dramatic changes in the global education system and finally potential to attract students from other countries which the development of e-learning is an appropriate response to address these challenges (Musakhani, 2005).

Iran, in terms of population, is the world's youngest country in which 70% of the population is under 30 years of age. On the other hand, young people have a higher tendency to continue academic education. Due to recent developments in this world and entering the information age in which knowledge provides the highest value, we are faced with a challenge that utilizing e-learning can be overcome it (Montazer, 1388).

Distance learning has its roots in ancient times and some experts believe it is related to the time of Plato and his student Dionysius, but since the evidence shows the first distance education methods has been performed by making the use of mailing a question and answer exchange by post in the years since 1728 have. Since then education has performed many forms like extensive, academic guidance, through

correspondence, tape recorder, television programs, and recently, video and satellite. But new forms of distance education, with the use of modern computer technology and, more importantly, the Internet were a new phenomenon (Angle, 2000).

Kurtus (2000) and Beneke (2001) have mentioned that the main issues of virtual learning are lack of social interaction and the interval between students and faculty members' activities. According to them, students can't interact with friends and classmates when faced with possible problems and images and texts may not satisfy the learners. Some researchers asserted cases such as illiteracy in Educational Technology, lack of training in this area, inexperienced faculty members in the effective use of new technologies, and their resistance for virtual courses as the main issues of e-learning (Anstead et al, 2004; Alston et al, 2003; Kelsey et al, 2002; Dillon and Walsh, 1992).

Oliver (2002) in a study entitled 'quality assurance of E-learning in Australian higher education' discusses the factors leading to successful adaptation and sustainable use of virtual learning in higher education in Australia.

In some studies, lack of social participation and social interaction between students and professors have been considered and their results suggested that students, in e-learning, do not possess the possibility of interacting with friends and classmates and getting help when they are faced with problems and then, probably images and texts may not be satisfying for them (the students). So, the students are deprived of the sense of community in e-learning; and, the students' sense of resentment and despair in e-learning courses is more in comparison to traditional courses (Kurtus 2000; Beneke 2001; Lieblein 2000).

Frazeen (2006), in his final dissertation, entitled 'effective factors in quality of web-supported learning' considers the relationship and impact of several basic factors. He divided these elements in following six groups: organizational and educational factors, instructor, students, technology and educational designing (Frazeen, 2005).

Howard (2009) in his study entitled 'investigation of ICT infrastructure and human resource capacity in Liberia' concluded that the development of ICT in this country is depended on the improvement of the following factors: telecommunication infrastructure, human resources, economic, social and information-technology-based curriculum planning.

Kurtus (2000) in his researches, about Development, establishment and application of E-learning, stated that in the E-learning readiness of human resources, these items are essential and effective: physical, cognitive, emotional, social and cultural factors. A glance at the recent changes in educational system shows that most of these changes in the phase of educational technology utilization have focused on acquiring early technology skills.

Panitz (2008) in his study, about the advantages of electronic and participatory learning about motivating the learners, stated that working students, had less interest in face to face education (Panitz, 2008).

Chahill (2008), based on Duderstat (2001), in this regard, stated that the higher education must meet these changes and they should invest in capacities which make the new types of learning, independent of time and place limitation, possible, in order to create a persuasive view in their future in the next millennium (Chahill, 2008). Gamble (2009) in his research entitled 'The learning effects in a multicultural environment' compared and investigated the impacts of an E-learning course that was held in China and the US (Gamble, 2009).

## **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Are infrastructure and equipment barriers, credit and financial barriers, educational and administrative barriers and human barriers of physical education students involved in e-learning?

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### ***Research instruments***

This research is a descriptive survey. The most common approach for collecting data in the survey is questionnaire (Kurlindger, 1997).

### ***Research Participants***

In the present study, the population is all the students of physical education at the Azad University of Hamedan and Bu-Ali Sina University in the bachelor and master degrees levels that some of them are selected by sampling and their comments were utilized. To determine the sample size in this study Farmers and Morgan formula were used. Based on population, physical education students of Islamic Azad University, Hamedan were a total of 290 subjects which 165 were selected as the sample based on Morgan and Farmers formula. Physical education students of Bu Ali Sina University were a total of 267 cases which 155 subjects were selected. Finally, the questionnaires were distributed and collected and 150 questionnaires from Azad University students and 120 questionnaires were collected from Bu-Ali Sina University which, totally, 270 patients were considered as the sample size.

### ***Data Collection Method***

According to the research objectives, the best possible way to collect data was using questionnaires to examine physical education students' attitudes and views about e-learning barriers. The questionnaire was researcher-made and they are composed of two parts: the first part was on the individual characteristics including age, gender, educational level, GPA and university education and the second part contains barriers in e-learning consisting of 35 questions. The questionnaire is divided into four categories including barriers to infrastructure and equipment (technical) with 12 items (questions 1 to 12), credit constraints (financial) including 8 questions (from 13 to 20), educational and administrative barriers with 6 items (from questions 21 to 26) and, human barriers with 9 items consisting questions 27 to 35. Responses based on a Likert scale have five values including very low, low, medium, high, very high, which is graded in the order of importance from 1 (very low) ... to 5 (very high).

### ***Research Procedure***

To evaluate the accuracy of the indicators, criteria, and items in the survey formal validation and experimental validation method were used. Therefore, the research instrument (questionnaire) was given to 15 physical education experts and computer science experts. Then points were collected, evaluated and finally, used in the modified questionnaire. The experimental validation of the collected data was compared with solid and uncertain data in the pre-test stage.

In this method, for determining the reliability of the questionnaire Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used, so that the alpha coefficient derived from a total of 30 questionnaires by SPSS equals to 0.92 indicating the reliability of the survey instrument to measure the variables.

In this study, the analysis of the obtained data was used using descriptive and inferential statistics. For data analysis, the descriptive statistics such as the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, variance, minimum and maximum are used and inferential statistics, such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (KS), one-sample t-test and independent t-test were used.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

As is shown in table 1, the highest frequency goes to the students who are aged between 20 to 30 years (67 percent) and the lowest frequency goes to the students who are 41 to 50 (4.8 percent).

*Table 1: Statistical description of the students' age*

age	frequency	percentage
20 - 30	181	67.0
31 - 40	76	28.2
41 - 50	13	4.8
Total	270	100

Median: 28                      Mode: 25                      Maximum: 46                      Minimum: 20

Characteristics related to gender have been shown in table 2 which 39.6% are male students and 60.4 percent of them are female.

*Table 2: Statistical description of student gender*

gender	frequency	percentage
Male	107	39.6
female	163	60.4
Total	270	100

In table 3 it can be seen that 39.3 percent of students are studying in bachelor and 60.7 in MA degree in physical education.

*Table 3: Degree statistical description*

degree	frequency	percentage
Bachelor	106	39.3
Master	164	60.7
Total	270	100

In table 4 it can be seen that 55.6% of the students are from Azad University and 44.4% of them are enrolled in Bu-Ali Sina University.

*Table 4: University statistical description*

University	frequency	percentage
Azad	150	55.6
Bu Ali Sina	120	44.4
Total	270	100

**E-learning barriers**

Table 5 shows the survey data related to e-learning barriers in physical education students perspective. In the table, the mean and standard deviation of the e-learning barriers are also mentioned.

*Table 5: useful markers of different e-learning barriers*

e-learning barriers	mean	SD
Azad	3.51	0.628
Bu Ali Sina	3.6	0.479
Total	3.56	0.568

Before examining research hypotheses, it is necessary to check the normality of research variables by using Kolmogorov-Smirnov. Table 6 presents the study of normal variables.

*Table 6: the study of normal variables*

variables	Z test	Sig.
E-learning barriers	0.874	0.429
Infrastructure and equipment barriers	1.435	0.063
Credit and financial barriers	1.346	0.054
Educational and administrative barriers	1.367	0.056
Human barriers	1.026	0.243

According to the above table, it is concluded that the significance levels of all variables is more than 0.05. Therefore, the data are normalized variables and the normality of the variables justifies the use of parametric test in order to deduce the research hypotheses.

**First Research Hypothesis**

$H_0$  : Infrastructure and equipment barriers play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

$H_1$  : Infrastructure and equipment barriers do not play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

To test the above hypothesis, the parametric one-sample t test was used. This test was used for quantitative variables and to assess the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a variable in the evaluated condition. Table 7 shows the descriptive statistics related to the first research hypothesis.

*Table 7: Descriptive statistics of infrastructural barriers*

Mean	SD	Standard error mean
3.58	0.665	0.04

The table above shows that the mean range of questions relating to the above hypothesis is 3.58 and standard deviation is 0.665. This shows that the mean is higher than average. Table 8 presents the confirmation of the first research hypothesis.

*Table 8: Results of one sample t-test to evaluate the role of infrastructure and equipment barriers in e-learning*

Up	down	Mean difference	Sig.	Freedom rate	T test	Result
0.668	0.509	0.589	0.001	269	14.549	$H_1$ is confirmed

Test value = 3

Obviously, the obtained significance level is much smaller than the 0.05 which shows that there are significant differences between the mean values. On the other hand, since the mean of samples in table 8 is somewhat higher scores Value (mean = 0.589), so, the infrastructural barriers and equipment are involved in e-learning of physical education students. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study is confirmed and the null hypothesis is rejected.

**Second Research Hypothesis**

$H_0$  : Credit and financial barriers play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

$H_1$  : Credit and financial barriers do not play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

To test the above hypothesis, the parametric one-sample t test was used. This test was used for quantitative variables and to assess the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a variable in the evaluated condition. Table 9 shows the descriptive statistics related to the second research hypothesis.

*Table 9: Descriptive statistics of credit and financial barriers*

Mean	SD	Standard error mean
3.69	0.669	0.04

The table above shows that the mean range of questions relating to the above hypothesis is 3.69 and standard deviation is 0.669. This shows that the mean is higher than average. Table 10 presents the confirmation of the first research hypothesis.

*Table 10: Results of one sample t-test to evaluate the role of credit and financial barriers in e-learning*

Up	down	Mean difference	Sig.	Freedom rate	T test	Result
0.779	0.618	0.669	0.001	269	17.153	$H_1$ is confirmed

Test value = 3

Obviously, the obtained significance level is much smaller than the 0.05 which shows that there are significant differences between the

mean values. On the other hand, since the mean of samples in table 10 is somewhat higher scores Value (mean = 0.669), so, credit and financial barriers are involved in e-learning of physical education students. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study is confirmed and the null hypothesis is rejected.

**Third Research Hypothesis**

$H_0$  : Administrative and educational barriers play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

$H_1$  : Administrative and educational barriers do not play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

To test the above hypothesis, the parametric one-sample t test was used. This test was used for quantitative variables and to assess the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a variable in the evaluated condition. Table 11 shows the descriptive statistics related to the third research hypothesis.

*Table 11: Descriptive statistics of administrative and educational barriers*

Mean	SD	Standard error mean
3.53	0.835	0.05

The table above shows that the mean range of questions relating to the above hypothesis is 3.53 and standard deviation is 0.835. This shows that the mean is higher than average. Table 12 presents the confirmation of the first research hypothesis.

*Table 12: Results of one sample t-test to evaluate the role of administrative and educational barriers in e-learning*

Up	down	Mean difference	Sig.	Freedom rate	T test	Result
0.633	0.433	0.533	0.001	269	10.491	$H_1$ is confirmed

Test value = 3

Obviously, the obtained significance level is much smaller than the 0.05 which shows that there are significant differences between the mean values. On the other hand, since the mean of samples in table 12 is somewhat higher scores Value (mean = 0.533), so, administrative and educational barriers are involved in e-learning of physical education students. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study is confirmed and the null hypothesis is rejected.

**Forth Research Hypothesis**

$H_0$  : Human barriers play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

$H_1$  : Human barriers do not play a role in physical education students' e- learning.

To test the above hypothesis, the parametric one-sample t test was used. This test was used for quantitative variables and to assess the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a variable in the evaluated condition. Table 13 shows the descriptive statistics related to the fourth research hypothesis.

*Table 13: Descriptive statistics of human barriers*

Mean	SD	Standard error mean
3.42	0.69	0.04

The table above shows that the mean range of questions relating to the above hypothesis is 3.42 and standard deviation is 0.69. This shows that the mean is higher than average. Table 14 presents the confirmation of the first research hypothesis.

*Table 14: Results of one sample t-test to evaluate the role of human barriers in e-learning*

Up	down	Mean difference	Sig.	Freedom rate	T test	Result
0.507	0.342	0.424	0.001	269	10.109	$H_1$ is confirmed

Test value = 3

Obviously, the obtained significance level is much smaller than the 0.05 which shows that there are significant differences between the mean values. On the other hand, since the mean of samples in table 14 is somewhat higher scores Value (mean = 0.533), so, human

barriers are involved in e-learning of physical education students. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study is confirmed and the null hypothesis is rejected.

#### Fifth Research Hypothesis

$H_0$  : There is not any significance between e-learning in Azad University and Bu Ali Sina University students.

$H_1$  : There is significance between e-learning in Azad University and Bu Ali Sina University students.

To test the above hypothesis, the parametric independent T test was used. Table 15 investigates the differences related to the e-learning barriers among these two groups.

Table 15: Differences between two independent groups of the fifth research hypotheses

variables		Loon Test		T-test			
		F test	Sig.	T-test	Freedom Level	Sig.	Mean Difference
Learning barriers	variances equality	7.047	0.008	- 1.52	268	0.129	- 0.105
	Lack of variances equality			-1.57	267.41	0.118	- 0.105
Infrastructure and equipment	variances equality	8.25	0.004	- 2.86	268	0.004	- 0.23
	Lack of variances equality			- 2.95	267.34	0.003	- 0.23
Credit and financial	variances equality	0.264	0.608	- 1.21	268	0.227	- 0.099
	Lack of variances equality			- 1.22	262.76	0.223	- 0.099
Administrative and educational	variances equality	3.95	0.048	- 0.24	268	0.807	- 0.025
	Lack of variances equality			- 0.24	265.65	0.805	- 0.025
human	variances equality	11.326	0.001	- 0.81	268	0.416	- 0.068
	Lack of variances equality			- 0.83	267.63	0.403	- 0.068

Table 15 shows that significance levels of Loon test for all variables except credit and financial variables is less than 0.05 indicating the lack of equality of variances between the two populations of the studies (Azad University and Bu-Ali Sina University). Thus one of the conditions of independent parametric t-test, except in the case of credit and financial variables, are not observed, whereas in credit and financial variables, the equality of variances must be reported. However, the significance level of the t-test in the bottom row in all variables apart from the infrastructure and equipment barriers is more than 0.05, which shows that with 95% confidence there is no difference in the field of e-learning barriers among and Bu-Ali Sina University students. However, there are differences regarding infrastructure and equipment barriers among Azad and Bu-Ali Sina University students' perception.

#### CONCLUSION

New information technologies have great ability to change or reform teaching and learning activities in all higher education institutions and provide opportunities for the design of new media which have not been possible before. For this reason, many universities in Iran want to set up electronic courses using information technology capabilities in the form of e-learning or online learning. However, the review of researches shows that e-learning development in educational systems is faced with many problems that policy makers and planners' unfamiliarity with their education can impose heavy costs on educational institutions. This paper aims to familiarize planners, policymakers, students and faculty on issues ahead of physical education students' use of e-learning.

The first hypothesis results showed that barriers of infrastructure and equipment are involved in physical education students' e-learning. Strengthening and developing telecommunications infrastructure in educational institutions and to provide access to the networks in mentioned institutions is one of the important steps in the development of electronic learning, because the effectiveness of e-learning depends on the availability and reliability of the software and hardware and lack of good telecommunication infrastructure strongly affects the relationship between the learner and the educational system.

The results of the second hypothesis showed that credit and financial barriers are involved in physical education students' e-learning. Zhang et al (2002) and Wilson and Moore (2004) considered the cost of internet access development of virtual training as problematic. They believe the price of internet access is still high; so many students cannot easily use method as a low-cost method. Providing sufficient funds for facilities and e-learning tools is a serious need for universities.

The results of the third hypothesis showed that administrative and educational barriers are involved in physical education students' e-learning. The nature of academic disciplines in planning for the use of e-learning is important. E-learning can be an alternative to traditional training and should be focused on courses and subjects that traditional education system is not able to meet their troubles.

The results of the fourth hypothesis showed that human barriers are involved in physical education students' e-learning. Investing in the education of manpower and training of skilled manpower is another important issue the development of e-learning. The development of e-learning will fail without a skilled and capable workforce and the traditional system resistance will increase and entry to higher education information technology will make be harder. The difference between traditional classroom training and e-learning is like the difference between driving a car and flying a helicopter, while some of the skills acquired but these skills are not enough.

#### Implication of the Study

Finally we can say that universities and educational institutions cannot overcome obstacles to the development of e-learning without

adopting a holistic and integrated approach; and, policies for directing and providing the necessary resources to facilitate the development of e-learning should be determined. The present study deals with barriers and limitations in the commissioning and development of e-learning course in Hamadan Universities and more research should be done in this area.

#### Recommendations

1. The users' skills and technical knowledge of the English language and mastering of software, hardware and networking are necessary factors for the development of web-based training in Iran. Before planning for the development of e-learning, students' familiarity and mastery of computer skills and attending in workshops will be indispensable.
2. Since the shortage of qualified, proficient and competent teachers and experts in the field of e-learning and electronic content production is obvious, it seems training interested teachers and experts is essential.
3. Now, software and educational content and material for the development of e-learning in many academic disciplines have not been developed yet. Necessary steps should be taken in this regard.
4. Based on the research findings, low speed and inappropriate connection are the main problems in the development of e-learning. Accordingly, improved communication infrastructures in Iran to increase internet speed are essential in Iran. Although effective actions have been done in this regard, it's not enough for the development of e-learning and investment is need.
5. In Iran, training the teachers for optimal use of e-learning software is a must. Many professors are both distrustful of e-learning and novice of the necessary software.
6. Given the practical nature of academic fields, holding troubleshooting classes alongside electronic-training sessions is a necessity.
7. Strengthening the Internet Security Systems Network to increase safety and protect the content, material and tests is a necessity in the E-learning network. Currently, e-learning applications and software can easily be penetrated.
8. Currently, many of the students do not have access to high speed Internet at home. It is necessary to provide facilities to access electronic education.
9. Since Most of the agricultural fields and trends have a lot of practical and laboratory courses and the possibility of holding a full curriculum does not exist in electronic form, the future researchers should study on blended learning which, to a large extent, solved the electronic learning problems.
10. It is recommended that e-learning is used in colleges with purely theoretical courses like Literature College and researchers in the above fields investigate in the field of e-learning.
11. It is recommended that in future studies, in most aspects of the operation studies the research team should be composed of students, teachers, advisors and one of the faculty members of Computer and Information Technology to provide technical advice in the field of e-learning infrastructure and operational mechanism.

#### Research Limitations

This study was done in the context of Hamedan Province and it is limited to merely Hamedan universities. Additionally, since the issue of e-learning is a rather new challenging topic introduced by the government, some political limitations are standing against electronic education development. For instance, the high cost of developing enough infrastructures to develop any kind of electronic learning should be financed by the government and yearly budget which is considered another limitation in this research.

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**IDEOLOGICAL MANIPULATION IN TRANSLATION:  
A CASE STUDY OF JEAN WEBSTER'S "DADDY LONG LEGS"**

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**ABSTRACT**

Among other factors such as culture that have an impact on the minds of the translators when producing the Source Text are ideological and time-factors. The present study attempts to identify the ideological terms that were translated from English to Persian. This study also examines the strategies used by the translators. To this end, the translations of Webster's novel, which were translated before and after the Islamic Revolution in 1975 in Iran, are investigated. The data analysis is performed based on Fairclough's model (1989). The results show that to overcome cultural and-ideological misunderstandings, the translators adopted many strategies such as addition and omission, and they intentionally or-unintentionally ignored the needs of children who are the readers of the Target Text. Overall, it was found that the Islamic Revolution had a crucial impact on the nature of used strategy by translators of novels written for children.

**KEYWORDS:** Source Text, Ideological Words, Fairclough's Model, Translation, Target Text

**INTRODUCTION**

Book translation for children is not a straightforward matter. Beyond the forces of manipulation and profit, there exist several other problems connected with the actual translation process (Khawira, 2010). Because of the limited experience and background knowledge about children, translators encounter an array of problems adapting the target text to the level of children's understanding. Cultural differences between the Source Text (ST) and the Target Text (TT), which may even lead to censorship, should also be considered. Such cultural and ideological differences among Iranian and other cultures can result in mistranslations and likely breakdowns. In this regard, Sertkan (2007) points out that "the act of translation is not an innocent one since the translator is influenced by his/her own cultural values and his/her ideology, which causes him/her to 'manipulate' the source text by making some additions, omissions, adaptations (P. 6). However, the translated CHLT may cause breakdowns concerning morals, ideologies, and social customs, especially if the source and target cultures have little in common. To solve this problem, Puurtinen (2000) holds that Critical Discourse Analyses (CDA) aims at revealing how ideology affects linguistic choices made by a text producer and how language can be used to maintain, reinforce or challenge ideologies" (P.178).

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

***Ideology***

Ideology is one of the most frequently used notions in the academia, particularly in the social sciences. Mason (1994) defines ideology as a "set of beliefs and values which inform an individual's or institution's view of the world and assist their interpretation of events, facts, etc" (P. 25). Van Dijk (2000) also holds that ideology is mostly associated with "systems of ideas, especially with the social, political or religious ideas shared by a social group of movement" (P. 5). In addition, Hatim (2000) defines ideology as "a body of ideas which reflects the beliefs and interests of an individual, a group of individuals, a societal institution, etc., and which ultimately finds expression in language" (P. 218). Therefore, the term 'ideology' encompasses a range of beliefs, ideas, attitudes, and interests held by an individual, a group of individuals, institutions, and so on. An important point in Hatim's (2000) definition is the relationship between ideology and language in that the latter becomes a medium for the expression of the former.

***Ideology and Discourse***

It is worth noting that language has a crucial role in the expression of ideology. As far as language is concerned, the concept of discourse should not be overlooked. Language and discourse cannot be thought as separate areas, and it is through language and discourse that ideology finds expression. Discourse is a term that is widely used in the contemporary human sciences, and it is "used to describe any organized body or corpus of statements and utterances governed by rules and conventions of which the user is largely unconscious" (The Penguin Dictionary of Critical Theory 2000, P. 100). As it can be seen in these definitions, discourse embodies what is 'social'. This social aspect is emphasized by Fairclough (1989). Fairclough (1992) believes that "discourse *constitutes* the social. Three dimensions of the social are distinguished-knowledge, social relations, and social identity" (P. 8). In this respect, discourse as a discursive language has a crucial role in the expression of ideology. Therefore, many scholars highlight the relation of discourse and ideology (Fairclough, 1989; Van Dijk, 2000; Wodack, 2002).

***Ideology and Manipulation***

Lefevre (2004) is one of the representatives of the manipulation school in translation. He believes that translation consists of four systems: ideology, poetics, register and language, and points out that the translator should not only translate words and sentences but also the ideology, poetics, and register. After adopting the contributions to translation studies made by Even-Zohar (1990) and Foucault (1980), Lefevre (2004) tries to study translation in the context of politics, ideology, economy and culture, and discuss further factors that restrict the rewriting in the translation. In Lefevre's (2004) words, translation is a rewriting of the original text. All rewritings, whatever their intentions, show a certain ideology and poetics and as such manipulate the literature to function in a given society in a given way. In this regard, rewriting is manipulation, undertaken in the service of power, and in its positive aspect can help the evolution of literature and society. Beside, rewriting can introduce new concepts, new genres, new devices, and the history of translation is also the history of the literary innovation, of the shaping power of one culture upon another (Lefevre, 2004).

***Ideology and Translation***

Sertkan (2007) states that "The 'cultural turn' is a term used in Translation Studies to describe a shift of emphasis towards the analysis of translation from the perspective of cultural studies" (P.6). Baker and Saldanha (2009) also hold that the practice of translation was for a long

time, and in some cases remains, deeply implicated in the religious ideology, as it can be seen in the grim fate of translators such as Tyndale in Britain and Dolet in France. As Claramonte (2003) explains the interaction between ideology and translation, it is of interest to many contemporary authors who tackle it from different perspectives. Furthermore, Schäffner (2003) elucidates the relationship between ideology and translation. Schäffner (2003) argues that:

“The relationship between ideology and translation is *multifarious*. Any translation may be reproduced as ideological since the choice of a source text and the use to which the subsequent target text is put is determined by the *interests, aims, and objectives of social agents*. But ideological aspects can also be determined *within a text itself*, both at the lexical and grammatical level” (P. 23)

## METHODOLOGY

### *Theoretical framework*

The present study examined three different Persian translations of Jean Webster’s novel “*Daddy Long Legs*” before and after the Islamic Revolution in 1979 to find the breakdowns and to explore the strategies used by translators to translate the text using the method of Critical Discourse Analyses (CDA) as proposed by Fairclough (1989). To achieve the results, this paper employed three values of words such as experiential, relational, and expressive values.

### *Corpus of the Study*

This study focused on the ideological manipulation in the translation in general, and examined the ideological manipulation in the translation of children’s novels in particular. As the methodological tool for examining this factor, the researcher used the Fairclough’s (1989) model of CDA since it is more comprehensive with respect to Van Dijk and Wodak’s method for examining the ideology of the translator. The samples were extracted from the novel: Webster, J. (1912). *Daddy Long Legs*. Chales L. Webster Publisher.

### *Design of the Study*

The study aimed to identify the ideological terms used in English to Persian translations of children literary text. One of the major concerns of the translation studies was to examine the quality of a translation, especially the ideological manipulation. This study is a descriptive research and had a quantitative design. It dealt with the translation of CHL and compared three Persian translations (including Dana, 1340; Mahdavian, 1375; Solimani, 1388) with the novels written by Webster *Daddy Long Legs* as the original text to find the strategies used to translate the ideological terms before and after the Islamic Revolution in 1979. A method of CDA introduced by Fairclough (1989) was used to start the study. Afterward, the data sources were completely read to find the breakdowns and the strategies used by the translators to deal with such breakdowns.

### *Procedure of the study*

The steps used to perform the present study were as follows: First, the source text and then the translations were carefully read by the researcher and the other research aide with an eye on Fairclough’s (1989) three classes of word values namely experiential, relational, and expressive values. Afterward, lexical items (words, phrases, and expressions) that sounded ‘different’ were extracted from the translations text. Next, the collected data was compared with the corresponding terms in the ST.

### *Data analyses*

In the present study, CDA was used as a methodological tool for the identification of the ‘manipulations’ that appeared to have an ideological stance in the target texts. The analyses of the three different versions centered around three main word values introduced by Fairclough (1989) including *experiential, relational, and expressive* values.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the first question regarding whether the ideological terms are used in the translation of children literature texts from English into Persian text, the present study considered the “*Experiential values, Relational values, and Expressive value of words*” based on Fairclough’s (1989) model:

### *Experiential values:*

#### *Sample:*

“The only drawback to my perfect, utter absolute happiness was the fact Mr. Lippett couldn’t see me leading the **cotillion** with Jimmie McBride”(Webster, 1912, P. 200).

- 1- "تنها نگرانی من در این شادی و خوشی و لذت این بود که مادام لیبیت در آنجا حضور نداشت مرا با جیمی ماک براید ببیند که چگونه رقص را افتتاح کردم." (دانا، 1340: 155)
- 2- "تنها چیزی که شادی عمیق و فوقالعاده ام را خدشه دار می کرد این بود که خانم لیبیت در مجلس نبود که من و دوستانم را ببیند." (مه‌دویان، 1375: 110)
- 3- "تنها نقص این شادی کامل و بی نقص این بود که خانم لیبیت نمی توانست خوشحالی من و جیمی مک براید را ببیند." (سلیمانی، 1388: 145)

Through transliteration and gloss use the back translation to be easily understood, the above extract is from part ‘31<sup>st</sup> December’. In Mahdavian’s ideology for rendering the ST to the TT, he translated ‘**cotillion**’ to ‘مجلس نبود که من و دوستانم را ببیند’، his addition in the target text was an appropriate example of paraphrasing strategy. In this way, the story became closer to the target-language audience. In the Persian and Islamic culture, ‘**cotillion**’ is also not a lawful action, and has negative impact on the children’s belief. Therefore, Mahdavian’s strategy became closer to the target-language audience. Solimani’s manipulation to render the ST was similar to Mahdavian’s strategy, whereas in Dana’s strategy, she did not consider the Persian children’s needs. She should submit a better term that was closer to the TT culture and lacked the bad effect on the Persian children. As a result in the first question, the words ‘**dance**’, ‘**ballgame**’, ‘**Bless**’, ‘**cotillion**’, ‘**monkeys**’, ‘**مشروب**’, were the ideological terms that the translator manipulated. Such terms were summarized in Table 1. The following abbreviations used to describe the results:

EE: Euphemistic expression  
EV1: Experiential value  
EV2: Expressive value  
RV: Relational value  
TT1: Dana’s Target text

TT2: Mahdavian's Target text  
 TT3: Soleimani's Target text  
 OR: Original word

Table 1: Ideological terms according to Experiential value of Fairclough's (2001) model

OR (EV1)	TT1	TT2	TT3
Alcohol	مشروب	الکل	مشروب
Monkey	—	میمون	—
Cotillion	رقص	حذف	خوشحالی
Bless	خدا ترا حفظ کند	خدا پشت و پناهت	خدا پشت و پناهت
Dance ,ball game	در مجلس بال	ضیافت و بازی	جشن
Dance	رقصیدن	حذف	پیش آنها باشد

**Relational value:**

**Sample:**

"Jimmie McBride is going to have a college friend visiting him part of the summer, so you see we shall have plenty of men to **dance** with" (Webster, 1912, P. 90).

- 1- "جیمی مک براید یک نفر از رفقای دانشکده اش را دعوت کرده که بیشتر تابستان با آنها باشد بنابراین بقدر کافی مرد بر هست که با ما برقصد". (دانا، 1340: 195)  
 2- حذف(مهدویان، 1375: 180)  
 3- "جیمی مک براید هم قرار است از یک نفر از دوستان دانشکده اش بخواهد که مدتی از تابستان پیش آنها باشد". (سلیمانی، 1388: 191)

This example is from part "2<sup>nd</sup> June". Translator 1 strategy for ideological manipulation was literal translation. According to the Islamic culture and law, the word 'Dance' is not appropriate for children literature. She had to submit a word that considered Persian children's needs and had to make the translation closer to the target language culture, especially with regard to its bad effect on the Persian children. Translator 2 omitted this sentence and translator 3 omitted the word 'dance'. As a result in the first question, the words 'dance', 'ballgame', 'Bless', 'cotillion', 'monkeys', 'مشروب', were the ideological terms that the translator manipulated. These terms were summarized in Table 2. Therefore, in the first hypothesis, the words 'sauced', 'samples', 'naughty puppy', 'bottle of rum', 'dance' were manipulated since they were considered the ideological terms.

Table 2: Ideological terms according to relational value of Fairclough's(2001) model

OR (RV)	TT1	TT2	TT3
Dance	رقصیدن	حذف	پیش آنها باشد
Care-time	زندگی آزاد و بیقید	حذف	فارغ الیال
Bottle of rum	حذف	حذف	بطر رام
Naughty puppy	حذف	توله سگ	توله سگ شیطان
sauced	شاشیده	خیس کردن	حرف بی ادبانهای زدن
Samples	خانم سمپل	خانواده سمپل	خانم سمپل
Run away	قاجاق شویم	جیم شویم	فرار کنیم

**Expressive value:**

"Bless you my child"(Webster, 1912).

- 1- "خدا ترا حفظ کند". (دانا، 1340: 200)  
 2- "خدا پشت و پناهت دخترم!" (مهدویان، 1388: 180)  
 2- "خدا پشت و پناهت بچه جان" (سلیمانی، 1375: 193)

This portion was extracted from part "3<sup>rd</sup> August" the word 'Bless' had the religious connotation, and translated to 'خدا'. This word did not appear in the ST. In the present study, the expressive value was to do with the persuasive language pertaining to the constant emphasis

on the belief in God and the idea that God was the sole source of power and authority, and the three translators chose the addition strategy to translate this ST item. Table 3 shows the words that the translators manipulated:

Table 3: Ideological terms according to expressive value of Fairclough's (2001) model

OR (EV2)	TT1	TT2	TT3
Monkey	حذف	میمون	حذف
Bless you	خدا ترا حفظ کند	خدا پشت و پناهت	خدا پشت و پناهت

To answer the second question, the following table provides the descriptive statistics on the strategies used in the three translated version's of the English book.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of the translation strategies in the three translated versions

Strategy(EV1)	TT1	TT2	TT3
Addition	33.3 0/0	26.6 0/0	39.9 0/0
Omission	33.3 0/0	39.9 0/0	19.9 0/0
adaptation	0 0/0	0 0/0	19.9 0/0
Literal translation	33.3 0/0	33.3 0/0	19.9 0/0

In the version translated by translator 1(1340), the target text (TT1) strategies on addition, omission, and literal translation were identical. 33.3 percent of the 100 percent was related to addition, omission, and literal translation and TT1 did not use adaptation strategies, whereas in the version translated by translator 2 (1375) (TT2), the most used strategy was the literal translation with 39.9 percent out of 100. Similarly, there was no adaptation strategy such as translator 1 strategy. In the target text (TT3), translator 3 strategy, the strategy used most was addition. Therefore, the strategy of the ideological manipulation was different according to the period of time, i.e. before and after the Islamic Revolution in 1979. With respect to the third research question regarding whether a different strategy used in the ideological manipulation before and after the Islamic Revolution in 1979, this study considered the three word values in Fairclough's model, and analyzed the strategy of the ideological TT1 (Dana, 1345) before the Islamic Revolution with the strategy of TT2 (Mahdavian, 1375) after the Islamic Revolution.

Sample text:

"To Princeton, to attend a **dance** and a **ballgame**, if you pleased!"(Webster,1912, P. 101).

- 1- "برای اینکه در مجلس بال آنها استفاده کنیم". (دانا، 1340:250)
- 2- "برای شرکت در ضیافت و بازی". (مهدیان، 1375:200)
- 3- "تا با اجازه شما در جشن ان دانشگاه شرکت کنیم". (سلیمانی، 1388:210)

This extract was from part "24<sup>th</sup> April". The extracted words, **dance** and **ballgame** were kinds of dance that were popular in the foreign culture, unlike the Persian culture. According to the Iranian culture, men are not allowed to dance. Further, it is prohibited in Persian Islamic culture. Translator 3 translated the words '**dance** and **ballgame**' as ' جشن'; this addition in the TT was appropriate example of the paraphrasing strategy. In this way, the story became closer to the target-language culture. translator 2 translated it as ' ضیافت و بازی' and translator 1 translated it as ' مجلس بال', translator 2 strategy added the words ' جشن'; it seems that this was a sort of distortion that pointed to the intervention of the religious-conservative ideology. In this way, the story became closer to the target-language audience, especially for the Persian children. In Dana's strategy, Persian children's need was not considered; however, she submitted a word that was closer to the target language culture. This study compared the strategies used by three translators, whereas translating Webster's book "Daddy Long Legs". Therefore, once the study compared the translation by Dana (1340), before the Islamic Revolution, and the translation made by translator 2 (1375), after the Islamic Revolution. The strategies used by the translators for the ideological manipulation of the children's novel were addition, omission, adaptation, and literal translation.

CONCLUSIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Three different translated versions of a children's novel before and after the Islamic Revolution in 1979 indicated that during the time Dana (1340) translated this work, there was not so much prohibitions for people on dancing, even in children's novels, whereas during the time Mahdavian (1375) translated the work, the laws changed following the Islamic Revolution in 1979. New sort of power and law were put into effect (Islamic culture). Hence, people's beliefs and thinking that unconsciously affect the ideology of people, in general, and writers, publishers, and translator, in particular differ. Therefore, after lapse of time, some roles such as allowing dance between men and women changed in the Islamic culture. In the Mahdavian version, there was a high distortion of a ST; it was more omission on the ST. The translator omitted the whole term in order to deal with an ideological item or phrase that deviate the norms in the target culture. Furthermore, based on the analysis of fifteen sentences chosen based on three word values of Fairclough's (1989) method, the present study showed that lapse of time had an important impact on changing the ideology of the translators. It was found that the Islamic Revolution had a crucial impact on the nature of used strategy by translators of novels written for children. Therefore, the strategies were utilized by the translators for the ideological manipulation of children novel, and these strategies were consciously or unconsciously changed with the lapse of time and power of the government. Hence, a shift was observed in the application of the strategies before and after the Islamic Revolution. In this regard, the present study suggests some pedagogical implications. It is clear that the translators manipulated the source text because of conscious and unconscious factors. This study identified the ideological manipulation on children novel, in particular children literature in the lexical choices in three different translations' version of the Webster (1912) novel. It may emphasize that further research in the translated children's literature is needed. The researcher notes that very little has written about the theoretical aspect of translating children's literature into Persian, and the constraints that govern any literature entering the Iranian children's literature. In addition, the researcher

intends to highlight the point that requires further research on the translation of picture books and inter-textual references in children's literature. As a result, the present study shed some light on the translation of children literature. It also specifically shed light on the translation of the novel. Moreover, the translators can use the explored strategies for the ideological manipulation of children novel.

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#### ABSTRACT

There are many researches on thematic progression in English texts, but it is very limited research of the thematic progression in Sundanese texts. This article tries to describe the thematic progression in Sundanese texts which are written by Sundanese female writers. The data obtained from a collection of short stories in Sundanese language which is written by eleven Sundanese female writers. The employed method is descriptive method. The present researcher analyzes and describes the data from eleven paragraphs. The result shows that 27% the Sundanese female writers use simple thematic progression and 73% use multiple thematic progressions. There are three types of simple thematic progression; they are linear theme (9%), constant rheme (9%), or constant theme (9%). The multiple thematic progressions have three different types; two element thematic progression (36.50%), three element thematic progression (18.25%), and four thematic progression (18.25%). It is concluded that the dominant thematic progression used by Sundanese female writers is the two element thematic progressions as the part of multiple thematic progression.

**KEYWORDS:** Thematic progression, Sundanese Female Writers, Sundanese texts, simple thematic progression, multiple thematic progressions

#### INTRODUCTION

Indonesia is an island country that has many local languages. Referring to Summer Institute (SIL) International publication, based on the 2000 census, Indonesia has 719 local languages and thirteen of them have died as mentioned the following “*The number of individual languages listed for Indonesia is 719. Of these, 706 are living and 13 are extinct. Of the living languages, 21 are institutional, 97 are developing, 248 are vigorous, 265 are in trouble, and 75 are dying.*”

Sundanese as one of the living languages is the second rank of the speaker population, after Javanese. As the living language, Sundanese should be maintained well to avoid the extinction. That is why the present writer needs to do research on Sundanese language besides she is a native of Sundanese language.

Recently, many researches are on thematic progression in English texts as described by Zhu Yongsheng (1995), his research on *Patterns of thematic progression and text analysis* or Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna on *Thematic Progression in Business English Paragraphs* (2011).

This article tries to describe the thematic progression of Sundanese texts which are written by the Sundanese female writers. This research based on the two formulation of the study, they are 1) what thematic progression used by Sundanese female writers? and 2) what pattern of thematic progression used by Sundanese female writers?

The approach applied on this research is Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as found by Halliday. He introduces his approach on his well known book “*An Introduction to Functional Grammar*” which is being revised in 1994 and 2004 with Matthiessen.

This approach concern clause in three different metafunction of meanings, they are clause as message, clause as representation, and clause as exchange. This article observes clause as message in every clause in the Sundanese female writers’ paragraph to obtain the thematic progression.

Clause as exchange concerns mood and residue. Mood itself is represented by subject and finite while the residue is the rest of the mood. The mood type can be classified mainly into indicative and imperative, while the indicative itself classified into declarative and interrogative (Sujatna, 2013: 51).

Clause as representation or transitivity concerns three mainly things, they are process, participants, and circumstances. Processes in Sujatna (2013) which in line with Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2001) are six types. They are material process, mental process, verbal process, relational process, behavioural process, and existential process. Every process influenced the types of the participants.

Clause as message, as the main point of this research, concerns theme and rheme. Theme and rheme in a clause can help readers to understand the message or information in a clause. A theme in a clause comes first and followed by the rheme. It is still possible in English clauses there is only a rheme without a theme. In Sujatna (2013: 13), she argues that “*A writer puts the theme first and this orients the reader to what is about to be communicated.*” Theme can be identified as marked and unmarked theme. Unmarked theme is the theme that usually known as subject (grammatical subject). It can be pronouns, proper nouns, nominal group, or nominalization. The marked theme is classified into four types. They are complement as marked theme, adjunct as marked theme, predicator as marked theme, and prepositional phrase as marked theme. Based on the form, the theme can be identified as simple and multiple themes. The simple theme consists of one element while the multiple themes consist of more than one element.

A text can be said as cohesive and coherence text if they (the clauses) tight each other as Hasan mentioned in Paltridge (2000: 139) “*Cohesive devices help a text hang together, or be cohesive. That means they contribute to what Hasan terms a text’s ‘unity of texture’. The schematic structure of the text, in turn, provides a text with ‘unity of structure.’*”

Thematic progression is also known as schematic structure or method of development of a text as Hasan (1989) in Paltridge (2000: 140), “*The notions of theme and rheme are also employed in the examination of thematic progression, or method of development of a text. Thematic progression refers to the way in which the theme of a clause may pick up, or repeat, a meaning from a preceding theme or rheme.*” In other words, the thematic progression consists of theme and rheme that refers to the way in which the theme of a clause may pick up.

Deterding & Poedjosoedarmo (2001) in line with Paltridge (2000) divide the types of thematic progression into *constant*, *linear*, *split* and *zig-zag*. The constant, linear, and split thematic progression could be in theme and rheme so that it becomes constant theme and constant rheme, linear theme and linear rheme, and split theme and split rheme. In this article the present writer divides the thematic progression into seven types. They are: constant theme, constant rheme, linear theme, linear rheme, split theme, split rheme, and zigzag. The followings are the illustration of the thematic progression.

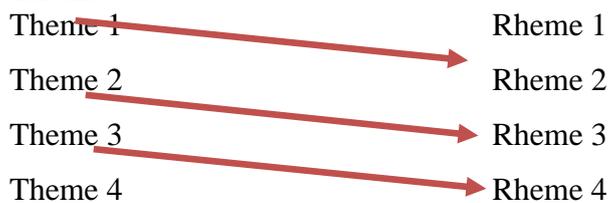
**Constant Theme:**



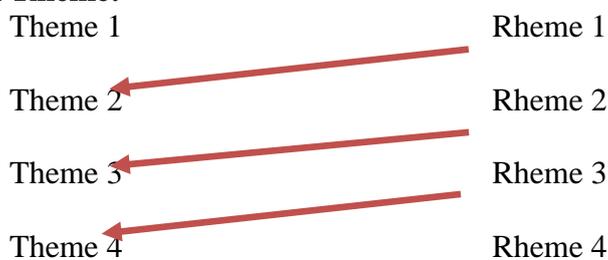
**Constant Rheme:**



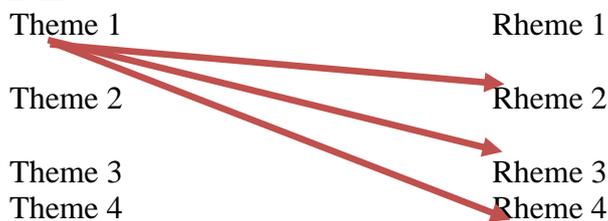
**Linear Theme:**



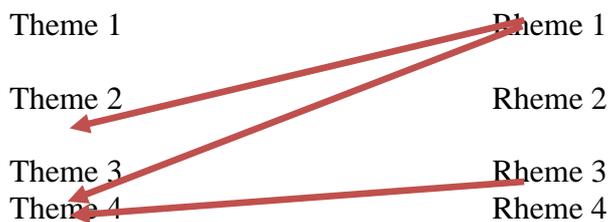
**Linear Rheme:**



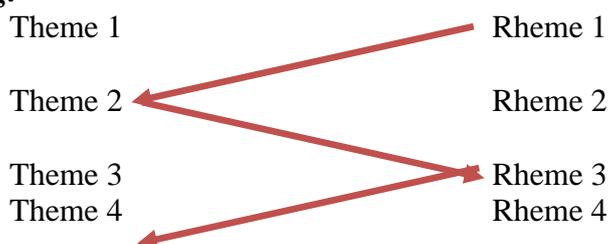
**Split Theme:**



**Split Rheme:**



**Zigzag:**



**METHODOLOGY**

The employed method is descriptive method. The present researcher analyzes and describes the data from eleven paragraphs. The paragraphs are taken randomly from the eleven Sundanese short stories which are written by eleven Sundanese female writers. The title of the collection of the short stories is *Berlian 11 Carpon Wanoja*. This book is published in 2013. Firstly, the present researcher, find a paragraph from every short story. Secondly, the present researcher analyzes the paragraph based on the thematic progression. Thirdly, the present researcher classifies them into the type of thematic progression whether they are simple or multiple thematic progressions. Finally, the present researcher can obtain the dominant thematic progression used by the Sundanese female writers.

**RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

As the present writer mentioned earlier, this article tries to describe the thematic progression of the Sundanese female writers in their short stories. The data collected are the paragraph obtained randomly, one paragraph from one writer, so that the data becomes eleven paragraphs.

Based on the research, from the eleven paragraphs, the present writer found that the thematic progressions of the Sundanese female writers mainly are simple and multiple thematic progressions as seen in following table.

*Table 1: Sundanese Female Writers' Thematic Progression Type*

No	Thematic Progression Type	Element of Thematic Progression
1	Simple	- Linear Theme - Constant Rheme - Constant Theme
2	Multiple	- Constant Theme and Linear Theme - Linear Rheme, Constant Theme, and Linear Theme - Constant Theme, Linear Rheme, Linear Theme, and Split Rheme - Constant Rheme, Zigzag, Linear Rheme, and Constant Theme

The table 1 shows that the thematic progression types used by the Sundanese female writers are simple and multiple. From the data, the simple thematic progression identified as linear theme, constant rheme, or constant theme. The multiple thematic progressions identified as two element thematic progressions, three element thematic progressions, and four element thematic progressions. The two element thematic progression found is constant theme and linear theme while the three element thematic progressions found is linear rheme, constant theme, and linear theme. The four element thematic progressions found are two groups. The first group is constant theme, linear rheme, linear theme, and split theme while the second group is constant rheme, zigzag, linear rheme, and constant theme. The following chart is the percentage of each type.

*Chart 1: The Sundanese Female Writers' Thematic Progression Type*

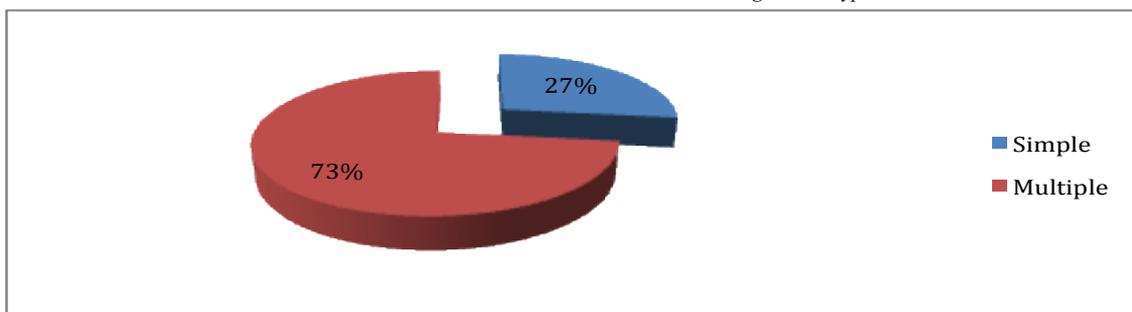


Chart 1 describes that the multiple thematic progression (73%) is the dominant used by the Sundanese female writers while the simple thematic progression is 27%. The data obtained from the eleven paragraphs. It means that the three types of simple thematic progression, each reaches to 9% as described in chart 2 while the multiple thematic progression which has three different groups is described in chart 3.

Chart 2: The Simple Thematic Progression

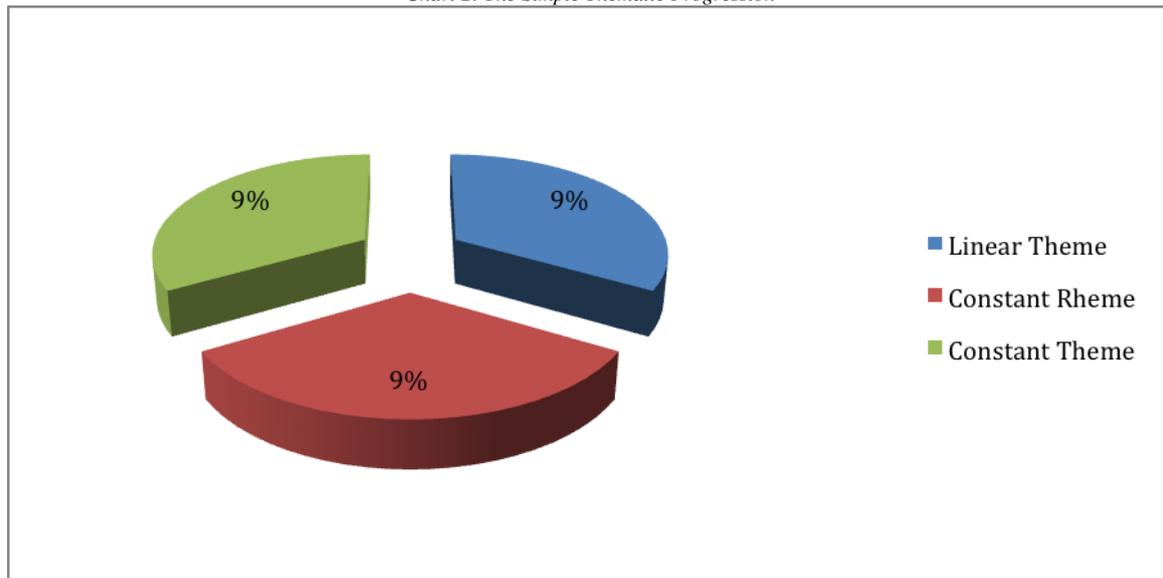


Chart 2 shows that the linear theme reaches 9%, constant rheme reaches 9%, and constant theme reaches 9% or one writer from the eleven Sundanese female writers. The following chart is the description of the multiple thematic progressions element chosen by the Sundanese female writers.

Chart 3: The Multiple Element of the Thematic Progression

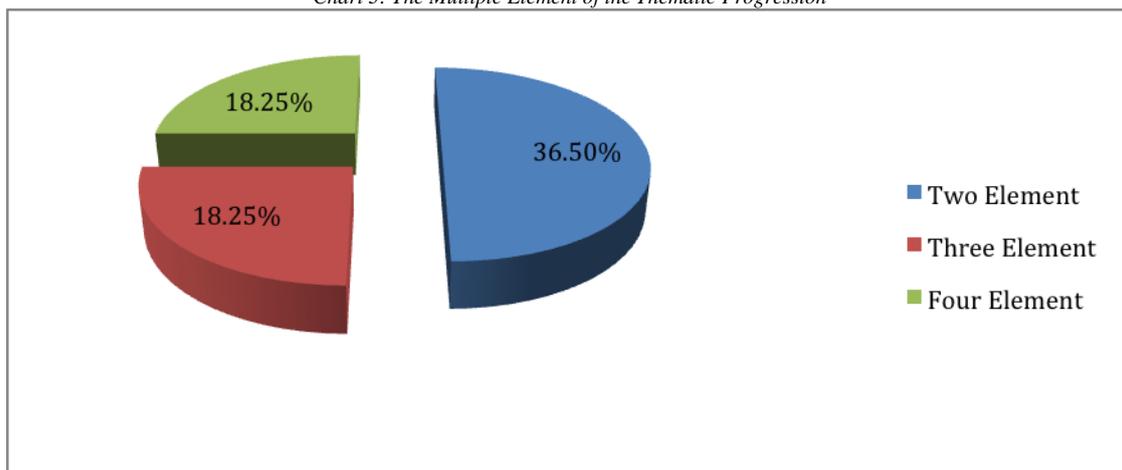


Chart 3 describes that the two element thematic progression is the dominant one (36.50%) or four writers from the eleven Sundanese female writers. The three and the four element thematic progression reach 18.25% or two writers of each from the eleven writers. The thematic progression chosen by the Sundanese female writer which has two elements are constant theme and linear theme (two writers from eleven writers) and linear rheme and constant theme (two writers from the eleven Sundanese female writers). Totally, the two element thematic progression is four writers (36.50%) from the eleven Sundanese female writers. The three element thematic progression is linear rheme, constant theme, and linear theme (two writers from the eleven Sundanese female writers). The four element thematic progression is two groups. The first group is constant theme, linear rheme, linear theme, and split rheme (one writer from the eleven Sundanese female writers) and the second group is constant rheme, zigzag, linear rheme, and constant theme (one writer from the eleven Sundanese female writers).

### CONCLUSION

Based on the result of the research of thematic progression of the Sundanese female writers, it is concluded that the Sundanese female writers use both simple and multiple thematic progression in their paragraphs. As the result, the dominant thematic progression used by the Sundanese female writers is the two element thematic progression as the part of multiple thematic progressions. As a preliminary study, the present researcher hopes this research can be a trigger for the next research in other languages.

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THE ROLE TOPIC FAMILIARITY IN DEVELOPING BILINGUALS AND MONOLINGUALS' VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

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**ABSTRACT**

Teaching vocabulary is one of the main components of any language teaching methods concerned with English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL). Therefore, this study investigated the role of topic familiarity in developing vocabulary retention and recall through incidental teaching of vocabulary among intermediate bilingual (i.e., Arabic/ Farsi) and monolingual (i.e., Farsi) students. Administering a homogeneity proficiency test (Fowler & Coe, 1975) at the intermediate level, 60 students (i.e., 30 bilinguals and 30 monolinguals) were randomly selected and divided into two groups as the participants of the study. They participated in six weeks of teaching vocabulary while both groups received the same instruction and materials. Two types of topics (i.e., familiar vs. unfamiliar) were adopted among the pool of topics and the participants were taught the intended vocabularies during the research period. Data analysis was administered through Independent Samples *t*-test at the end of treatment period to assess the learners' differences on the level of vocabulary retention and recall. The results showed the difference between the two groups was significant ( $p < .05$ ). In other words, the group who dealt with familiar topics outperformed the group who worked on unfamiliar topics concerned with vocabulary achievement post-test. The results also indicated that bilinguals outperformed monolinguals in vocabulary learning. In sum, it may be claimed that topic familiarity can enhance incidental vocabulary acquisition in reading comprehension skill, especially among bilinguals rather than monolinguals.

**KEYWORDS:** Topic familiarity, vocabulary, bilinguals, monolinguals

**INTRODUCTION**

Recently, there has been a spate of interest in how to teach vocabulary and why the rate of second language incidental vocabulary learning is lower for some learners as opposed to others (Widdowson, 1980). Moreover, some factors may contribute to the individual differences observed for vocabulary acquisition through reading, and some can affect language output (speaking and writing). According to Hulstijn (1993), these factors, likely to be involved in reading, are both interactive and compensatory. When a component of processing is deficient, it can be compensated for by other components of processing (Stonovich, 1980, p.65).

According to schema theory (Stonovich, 1980), the degree to which successful compensation may be achieved depends upon previous knowledge. Sometimes the level of reading skills becomes relevant to text processing and comprehension (e.g. when background knowledge is limited); and sometimes the level of background knowledge may be more significant (e.g. when reading skill is limited).

Pulido (2004b, p.37) pointed out that cultural familiarity has direct and positive relationship with vocabulary acquisition. In her work, Pulido (2007, p.14) proved that her students learning Spanish language could guess the meaning of nonsense Spanish vocabulary items better through reading with more familiar topics than less familiar ones.

Background knowledge has been known to influence text processing, comprehension and lexical inferencing during reading (Al-Shumairei, 2006; Othman, 2007; Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994). Thus, this factor should be determinant of vocabulary development through reading as well as reading and listening comprehension. On the other hand, background knowledge has been known to influence language output (speaking and writing) (Pulido, 2004a; 2007). However, this line of research has been scarcely investigated concerned with the impact of topic familiarity on vocabulary acquisition and language output through reading (Nation & Waring, 1997). To this end, the present study considers the impact of topic familiarity on language output and incidental vocabulary retention and recall through reading of familiar and unfamiliar topics (Lewis, 1993).

**Statement of the problem**

Developing vocabulary knowledge of second or foreign languages has always been the main concern of not only the learners of English but also those who want to learn English language outside the atmosphere for communicative contexts (Nation & Waring, 1997). On the other hand, developing vocabulary knowledge of the students has been the main concern of teachers who teach second or foreign language, and it is surprising for them why the rate of second language vocabulary learning is lower for some learners as opposed to others (Nation, 2001).

The teachers and researchers also wonder if there are any differences in vocabulary acquisition of bilingual and monolingual learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) through reading. Most of previous studies have been done on monolingual language learners (Carrell, 1987). Another point is that most of the studies (Johnson, 1981) were related to the effects of cultural familiarity, proficiency and sight vocabulary on vocabulary acquisition, and some studies (Pulido, 2004a) have focused on reading comprehension as dependent variable.

However, despite the research boom in the area of topic familiarity, on the one hand, and vocabulary acquisition on the other hand, no study has been done on both monolingual and bilingual English learners. This study aims at studying the role of topic familiarity in vocabulary acquisition among bilingual and monolingual EFL learners.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

According to Pulido (2007), the hypothesis that vocabulary gain and retention would be superior after reading stories that depicted more familiar as opposed to less familiar scenarios is not consistently supported. First, there was no effect of topic familiarity obtained on the translation measure. That is, for both models, gain and retention of new vocabulary were not affected by the conditions under which the new

vocabulary was encountered (i.e., more vs. less familiar scenarios). Second, on the more robust translation recognition measure, the effects due to topic familiarity were obtained only on the initial measure of gain, when tested concurrently with each of the L2 proficiency vocabularies. That is, at short-term intervals (i.e., 2 days after reading), learners at all proficiency levels demonstrated greater vocabulary gains after reading the texts for which they reported greater levels of familiarity. Thus, this finding provides partial support for schema-theoretic and knowledge-based views of learning and memory, wherein the possession of appropriate background knowledge is assumed to facilitate attention allocation, the construction of mental representation, and in her study, the forging of form-meaning connections for new words. Pulido concluded that at least at time intervals in the short term, it is assumed that greater familiarity (i.e., expertise with the topics depicted within the scenarios) provides a cognitive foothold from which to construct and integrate information about new words.

Ellis (1994) provides another perspective and additional information concerning the role of background knowledge in the process of incidental vocabulary acquisition. This is accomplished via an experimental design that (a) oriented learners to the more naturalistic task of reading for comprehension (as opposed to a task that oriented learners to guess the meaning of unfamiliar and/or target words) and (b) subsequently assessed participants' memory for specific new form-meaning connections that may have been established during reading.

However, in the light of the unexpected two-way interaction between topic familiarity and time obtained in both models when translation recognition served as the dependent measure, it appeared that any effects on vocabulary gain that may be due to topic familiarity are only short-lived. Contrary to her expectation, there was a significant decrease in memory over time (4 weeks) for the target words encountered within the more familiar stories. That is, if there was subsequent learning of the real words corresponding to the underlying concepts of the target words from the more familiar stories, learners may have experienced interference at the second testing interval. So, in her study the hypothesis could not be confirmed, however, as there was no measure administered to detect learner look up or learning strategies between testing intervals.

#### ***Text comprehension and second language vocabulary acquisition***

Mackey (2000) examined the relationship between text comprehension and second language vocabulary acquisition through reading more and less familiar texts. She found out whereas the role of passage comprehension in incidental vocabulary gain and retention through reading was in general robust, the nature of the relationship between passage comprehension and intake was inconsistent, instead fluctuating as function of the reader's background knowledge.

Level of comprehension achieved from reading the brief script-based narrative passage proved integral to incidental gain and retention of semantic feature of new L2 lexical items from the passages. Increases in passage comprehension as demonstrated by the recall of semantic propositions, were accompanied by increases in gain and retention of the target nonsense words that appeared in those passages (Hulstijn, 1992).

According to Pulido (2004a), it is assumed that with greater levels of comprehension contextually relevant passage information becomes and remains more available in working memory. This may have enhanced the potential for relevant background knowledge to be activated during the process of constructing a mental representation of the passage, which, in turn, would have increased the likelihood of successful lexical inferencing to resolve the meaning of any unfamiliar words deemed relevant or important during reading.

According to Koda (2005), the strategic explicit processes that are assumed to have contributed to these lexical gains through reading included, to some unknown degree, (a) noticing that certain words were unfamiliar and that there was a gap in existing knowledge; (b) inferring meaning from context using linguistic and extra linguistic, or background knowledge; and (c) elaborative rehearsal, or attending to the connections between the new lexical forms and their meanings and associating the new words with previous knowledge.

Furthermore, the above insights showed that topic familiarity affected text processing, comprehension, and lexical inferencing and gain, but it did not affect the role that text comprehension played in incidental vocabulary gain, and this was demonstrated by the lack of a significant correlation interaction between passage comprehension and topic familiarity. The greater the level of passage comprehension is, the greater is the gain, regardless of the reader's level of familiarity with the topic. On the other side, there is a direct relationship between passage comprehension and intake of new lexical forms encountered through reading (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Pulido (2004a) says, the level of passage comprehension is less closely related to the level of intake, when learners read within the more familiar scenarios than when they read within less familiar scenarios. And as comprehension improves, recognition memory for the target words from the less familiar conditions surpassed memory for the target words from the more familiar conditions. She adds the better comprehend pay less attention to the target words while reading within the more familiar and easier topics. Next, when vocabulary gain is considered, more target words were initially remembered from the more familiar stories.

Wode (1999) claims the construction of a coherent mental representation of a text involves the interaction between explicitly stated textual information and background knowledge. According to Paribakht and Wesche (1999), to the extent that the construction of mental representation of script-based texts improves, the accessibility of lexical form, but not meaning, from those texts also appears to be influenced by the interaction between explicitly stated textual information and background knowledge. The greater the level of comprehension, the greater the chances of making form-meaning connections for new lexical items encountered through reading.

#### ***Content familiarity and reading comprehension***

Al-Shumairei (2006) examined the relative effects of content familiarity and language ability on texts comprehension performance. Al-Shumairei found out, content familiarity was found to have significantly affected the students' overall comprehension performance.

According to Al-Shumairei (2006), the lack of prior knowledge (content familiarity) seems to affect to the low-ability students but not the high-ability students. One possibility is that background knowledge helps readers at a certain proficiency level but not those at other levels. The other possibility is related to language ability effects; that is, the lack of prior knowledge seems not to hinder the high-ability students' performance on the unfamiliar passages as their proficiency level compensates for this lack of familiarity and they perform better (Zimmerman, 1997). Therefore, the knowledge of language including vocabulary and reading skills may help the high-ability students to overcome the unfamiliarity of topic and content. The language knowledge frees the learners' cognitive resources to make effective use of the skills and strategies of their comprehension procedures.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The main questions to be pursued in this study are as follows:

1. To what extent does topic familiarity affect L2 incidental vocabulary retention and recall of intermediate EFL learners?
2. Is there any difference, in terms of vocabulary acquisition, between monolingual and bilingual learners?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The research was conducted with the help of 60 participants majoring in EFL. They were at the second year and enrolled in Reading Comprehension course. They included 30 monolingual Persian speakers and 30 bilingual Arabic–Persian speakers including 34 males and 26 females. The participants were selected on the basis of availability out of 120 students from Islamic Azad University of Ahvaz. The bilingual participants were selected out of a 50 bilingual population and monolingual participants were selected out of 70 monolingual population. The participants’ age ranged from 19 to 43 years old.

**Instrumentation**

*Translation recognition test:* The test was administrated to evaluate the recall process and vocabulary acquisition of the participants. In this 40-item test, the participants were asked to recognize the equivalent translation of the vocabulary items. In order to have a reliable test, they conducted a pilot study and calculated the reliability coefficient of the test. The test was administrated to fifteen students of the same level of the participants. Using KR–21 formula, the reliability of the test was met at ( $r=.76$ ).

**Materials**

1. *Passages:* The texts used for the present study were eight narrative passages, four pertaining to more familiar topics and four to less familiar topics. The texts were selected from Alexander (1967) “*Developing Reading Skills*” and Alexander and Vincent (1986) “*Make Your Point*”.

2. *Target words:* Forty lexical items (noun, verb, and adverb), representing concepts frequently associated with the stories, were chosen evenly from among the eight stories, that is, five per story.

**Procedure**

This study followed a pre–test and post–test design to evaluate the role of topic familiarity in language output and incidental vocabulary retention and recall through reading among monolingual and bilingual EFL learners in Ahvaz Islamic Azad University. To this end, the participants were divided into two groups of monolingual (Persian speaker) and bilingual (Arabic–Persian speaker) learners i.e. each comprised 30 learners. Then, the researchers examined the level of learners’ familiarity and their background knowledge of on the content of the passages through a questionnaire (Al-Shumairei, 2006). This made the researchers sure that the participants were unfamiliar (or less familiar) with four of the text book passages. As mentioned earlier, no participant was expected to know the meaning of any of target words. For this, before reading each text, the researcher derived the target words from the texts and asked the participants about the meaning of these words to know whether or not the participants knew anything about these words, because the researcher was going to study the acquisition of these target words, so these words must not be known before the study.

The study lasted about six weeks (five sessions). In the first phase, two passages (one familiar and one unfamiliar) were provided for participants to be studied and worked on. After studying the texts as reading comprehension activity, providing a 10–item translation–synonym production test (five for familiar and five for unfamiliar text), the researcher asked about the meaning of target words and assessed the vocabulary retention of the participants. Following the retention test, the participants were asked to rewrite the stories using every vocabulary item that they could remember. The researcher did this to evaluate how many of target words the participants could remember and use in the process of rewriting. In the second, third, and fourth weeks, the researcher did the same but on the other texts. During the last phase, in the sixth week (two weeks after the last session of treatment) the researcher administrated a forty–item translation recognition test (as a post– test) to assess the recall process of the participants. That is, all participants completed a measure of word recognition memory.

This procedure was piloted by Pulido (2004a, 2007) and Al-Shumairei (2006) in their researches. Before reading each passage, all participants were oriented to the task of reading for the purpose of answering comprehension questions of the passages.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

To test the research hypotheses, the researcher compared monolingual and bilingual students’ performance in using topic familiarity, a parametric technique for analyzing the quantitative data. In this study, the independent variable was topic familiarity with two levels including familiar and unfamiliar texts. In this way, the study investigated the role of the two independent variables through *t*–test, in order to find out, whether or not topic familiarity influences learning incidental vocabulary (i.e. , dependent variable) of monolingual and bilingual (i.e. moderate variables) Iranian EFL students at the intermediate level. To do so, the descriptive statistic compared the means of two monolingual and bilingual groups with each other and also presented means and standard deviations of the two groups who focused on familiar and unfamiliar topics in pairs for learning vocabulary achievement.

In this case, the hypothesis of mean equality of two groups was rejected ( $p<0.05$ ), and also the students’ mean in using familiar topics (Mean=14.18) was greater than the students’ mean in using unfamiliar topics (Mean=11.95). Too, the difference of the confidence interval showed these results based on which the topic familiarity had a significant effect on incidental learning vocabulary and the first null-hypothesis was rejected. The results are shown in Tables 1 and 2 as follows:

*Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Vocabulary Achievement(Pre-test vs. Post-test)*

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Familiar Topic	60	14.18	3.028	.391	
Unfamiliar Topic	60	11.95	3.175	.410	

*Table 2: Paired Samples t-test of Vocabulary Achievement (Pre-test vs. Post-test)*

	Groups	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Std. Error Mean
Familiar Topic vs. Unfamiliar Topic	3.998	59	.000	.559	

The paired Samples *t*-test was run on to compare the mean score of the bilingual group (A) and monolingual group(B) in using familiar topics in learning incidental vocabulary and it yielded statistically significant difference. The results of *t*-test for the effect of these familiar topics in learning vocabulary as independent variables statistically indicated mean differences. To evaluate the effects of familiar topics on learning vocabulary by bilingual and monolingual students, the sample means of bilingual and monolingual groups were compared.

*Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Vocabulary Achievement (Bilinguals vs. Monolinguals)*

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Monolinguals	30	13.17	2.601	.475	
Bilinguals	30	14.73	2.741	.500	

Tables 3 shows that bilingual students had a better performance in using familiar topics in learning incidental vocabulary than the monolingual group's and the second null hypothesis was also rejected. Table 4 indicates the results of *t*-test.

*Table 4: Independent Samples t-test on Vocabulary Achievement (Bilingual vs. Monolingual)*

	Groups	t	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Std. Error Mean
Monolinguals vs. Bilinguals	2.271	58	0.027	.690	

The results of Independent Samples *t*-test showed a significant difference between bilingual and monolingual groups in using familiar topics in learning incidental vocabulary. According to T-distribution table (Hatch & Farhady, 1999, p. 267), a ratio of observed *t* (-2.271) was calculated for a .05 level of probability. The ratio was much greater than the critical *t* (2.000); therefore, the differences between two groups were statically significant. The hypothesis of equality of means of two group was rejected, because the ( $p=0.027<0.05$ ) and also the mean of the bilingual group (Mean=14.73) was higher than the mean of the monolingual group (Mean=13.17).

### **Discussion**

In the present study, in order to measure the short term vocabulary retention of the EFL learners between familiar and unfamiliar texts, four quizzes were administered each session (one at the end of each session). Then they were asked to rewrite the stories (i .e. familiar and unfamiliar) using new vocabulary items (target words). The mean of vocabulary items used in rewriting activities showed that the learners' performance was better on familiar topics in both activities (quizzes and rewriting activities). This showed that all the participants stored vocabulary items of familiar text book contents better than those of unfamiliar texts book contents.

H01. Topic familiarity does not significantly affect L2 incidental vocabulary retention and recall of intermediate EFL learners.

The results appeared to support the schemata theory of reading and research on L2 reading. According to Anderson (1977), schema theory of reading, knowledge of text content can facilitate comprehension during encoding/decoding process by providing a knowledge structure to which readers can compare and fit pieces of incoming information. The results showed that the content familiarity on reading comprehension have significantly affected the learners' overall comprehension performance, and scored higher on the familiar passages, compared with their performance on unfamiliar passages. The findings of the present study are consistent with Al-Shumairei (2006) indicating that background knowledge increases receptive skills, such as passive vocabulary.

Othman (2007) also found that background knowledge and topic familiarity had a significant effect on listening comprehension. Providing the learners with background knowledge as well as systematic knowledge, equips learners with the necessary information to facilitate comprehension of an unfamiliar topic. The findings of this study are also consistent with those of Othman (2007).

Pulido (2003) compared the role of topic familiarity and proficiency on vocabulary acquisition. She got results inconsistent with those of the present study. She found that proficiency had greater effects on vocabulary acquisition, compared to topic familiarity. That is, topic familiarity, according to her results, has little effect on vocabulary retention and recall. But in another study, Pulido (2007) found that cultural and topic familiarity had greater effect on vocabulary acquisition, a finding consistent with those of the present study. As mentioned in the procedure section, every session the participants were asked to rewrite the stories using new vocabulary (target words). The mean of used vocabulary items indicated that they used more vocabulary items of familiar passages (Mean=9.5) than those of unfamiliar passages (M=8.8). These results indicated that topic familiarity has positive effects on elaboration and rewriting the stories using more newly learnt vocabulary items. Comparing the means of quizzes on both familiar and unfamiliar topics indicated that the learners' performance on quizzes (administered at the end of each session) gained higher scores on vocabulary retention and recall on familiar topics rather than unfamiliar topics.

H02: There is no significant difference, in terms of the level of vocabulary acquisition, between monolingual and bilingual learners.

Whether bilinguals or monolinguals are better in vocabulary acquisition is another concern of the present study. The results of *t*-test (Tables

3 and 4) showed that the mean score was higher for bilingual group than monolingual group's mean score. Therefore, bilingual learners used schema and other strategies better than monolingual learners on vocabulary acquisition. It can be implied from the results of this study that bilinguals and monolinguals have different degrees of background application. However, it is necessary to have an adequate explanation in mental factors and strategy use among bilingual and monolingual subjects in the performance of language and vocabulary test. Psychological factors may affect strategy use among bilinguals and monolinguals in the performance on the acquisition of vocabulary items as language element. Another reason may be due to the flexibility of bilinguals' mind which is concluded in Romaine's (1989) study. In discussing that bilingualism affects thought process and language learning Hakuta (1986, p. 15) has pointed out that research on bilingualism in general in the beginning of 20th century was guided by the question of whether bilingualism had a negative effect on intelligence. It was carried out largely on immigrant populations in the United States. More recent work, however, has been concerned to demonstrate a positive effect (Romaine, 1989, p. 99).

A brief glance at the two opposing viewpoints will give an idea of some of the issues on the differences between bilingual and monolingual EFL learners in vocabulary retention and recall. In summary, the results of this research showed that bilinguals outperformed monolinguals. This is consistent with the results of previous study performed by Romaine (1989). He concluded that bilingual persons who are equal in both languages are found to have slightly higher IQ scores than monolingual persons. He also found that bilingualism is associated positively with greater cognitive flexibility and awareness of language.

## CONCLUSION

Incidental or indirect vocabulary learning occurs without the specific intent to focus on vocabulary. During reading, new word meanings are derived and learned even though the reader's purpose for reading is not the learning of new vocabulary. Research on reading and vocabulary learning has identified several factors which contribute to the individual differences observed for incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading. Among these factors are reader's age, reading purpose, inferencing ability, the amount of exposure to unknown words, the amount of verbal ability, dictionary use, and several text and word characteristics (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Knight, 1994; Swanborn & De Glopper, 2002).

The results indicated that the background knowledge did affect the intermediate bilingual and monolingual EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition. At the end of the course, two sets of post-test from both familiar and unfamiliar texts were administered, and the results of the test were compared to find the effect of background knowledge. The results of the study confirmed that vocabulary acquisition could be improved through familiar topics.

It was discovered through the findings of this study that there is a significant positive relationship between topic familiarity and incidental vocabulary learning. That is to say, when topic familiarity increases, so does incidental gain of new vocabulary. More topic familiar learners demonstrated higher word learning through reading than less topic familiar readers.

Topic familiarity seems to have significantly affected the incidental vocabulary acquisition. While prior knowledge of content seems to have facilitated the reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition of the students, which was reflected in their performance, the lack of prior knowledge reduced the degrees of both comprehension and vocabulary acquisition.

## Implications

First, language educators need to take advantage of the significant effects of the content familiarity on learners' vocabulary acquisition. Therefore, they should provide low achievers, especially beginners and those at the elementary level, with familiar content in order to enable them to deploy the appropriate skills and strategies to understand the texts and consequently to learn new vocabulary items. Then, they can advance step by step, making the texts more challenging in terms of language difficulty, renewing vocabulary items, and in terms of unfamiliarity of the content as the learners' language ability improves. If the topics and texts are familiar to them, their memory and cognitive resources can be freed somewhat to concentrate on the language-processing aspects such as sentence patterns. They can guess and learn vocabulary items better and better during reading familiar topics. From a parallel viewpoint, the results of this study suggest EFL learners some points. The results indicated that topic familiarity and background knowledge can improve vocabulary acquisition. Thus they can benefit considerably from studying familiar texts and stories to enhance their vocabulary range. More important, bilingual learners benefit from two different languages and consequently they can benefit from two different cultures. So, they may be provided with more familiar texts.

Material designers are well counseled to design their vocabulary activities in such a way that necessitate the employment of background knowledge. Also, they should bear in mind that vocabulary items should be embedded in not only familiar texts but also in a right time and at a suitable level that conforms to the readers' actual potential in cognition, in order for them to comprehend and learn the reading passages and new vocabulary items respectively. That is, material designers should design their materials based on familiar topics for the EFL learners. For example, EFL teachers may use the passages which are familiar and famous for the majority of the learners. They can design the material based on the mother tongue of those bilingual readers for better understanding. Curriculum designers should be aware of some places of our country where there are a lot of bilingual residents who live there to design a complicated and comprehensive plan to aware and select those teachers who are bilingual and teach English in those areas such as Iran.

## Suggestions for Further Research

No experiment is without its limitations. The present study investigated the impact of one reader-based factor of topic familiarity on incidental vocabulary gain. However, other reader-based factors such as proficiency, passage sight vocabulary items, etc. are other variables whose effects on incidental vocabulary gain through reading and its relationship with background knowledge need to be explored.

This study described the gains in knowledge associated with new lexical items in terms of semantic features. Aside from semantic feature, the acquisition of lexical knowledge also consists of learning morphological syntactic, orthographic, and pragmatic features. It is an empirical issue whether or not the same effects associated with the variables of topic familiarity would be replicated when assessing gains of such additional components of lexical knowledge. This matter can be investigated in other studies focusing on incidental vocabulary learning during reading. The brief nature of the texts used in this study may have induced greater levels of use of micro-processing strategies, or more attention to surface structure than might have been the case with the employment of lengthier texts which tend to encourage greater use of macro-processing strategies, or reading to get gist (Swaffar, Arens, & Byrnes, 1991). Future research may also wish to consider the effects of passage length on incidental vocabulary acquisition.

Finally, this study compared Persian speakers as monolingual and Persian-Arabic speakers as bilingual learners. In the future studies, the researchers can compare the speakers of other languages (e. g., Turkish or Kurdish) and also consider the case of gender concerning vocabulary acquisition through reading familiar and unfamiliar topics.

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**STRONG EXPLETIVES, EMPTY ADJECTIVES AND TAG QUESTIONS USAGE AS A GENDER MARKER IN A SERIAL FILM “F.R.I.E.N.D.S”**

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**ABSTRACT**

This article examines the phenomenon of men and women’s language. This article focuses on three linguistic features of men and women’s language. They are expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions usage. These three linguistic features used by speakers in their utterances are believed to convey speakers’ feelings as well as their social meanings. This qualitative descriptive research socio-linguistically provides the insight of how men and women speak differently through these three linguistic features by Lakoff (1975) and Holmes (2001). The data are taken from a serial film *Friends*. Apparently, the present writer has found out that strong expletives words found in *Friends* characters’ utterances are used to show speaker’s expression of anger, frightening, start, until frustration and also sometimes to be the curse words to elicit humor. The founding empty adjectives words are to show speaker’s expression of joy, interest and also gratitude and speaker’s agreement of something. The tag questions are used by speakers not only to show speakers’ uncertainty but also to get information more detail, and to involve hearers to agree what speakers have stated before. Another founding mentions that men and women don’t speak differently but they just express their feelings in different way through different linguistic features depending on their hearers.

**KEYWORDS:** Expletives, Empty Adjectives, Tag Questions, Gender Marker, Serial Film.

**INTRODUCTION**

In a social interaction, we can find utterances. These utterances are used as a means for humans to express their feelings, besides by using gestures. Through utterances, we can study people’s feelings whether they are in sadness, happiness, certainty, or even in an uncertainty. It is because sometimes the utterances contain not only explicit meaning, but also implicit meaning.

In Sociolinguistics, the purpose of the language use as a tool for humans to express their feelings is linked with linguistic features in men and women’s language. This linguistic features term was first introduced by Lakoff on her research year 1975 to describe the speech characterization based on speakers’ gender. This speech characterization in linguistic features is varied. For example, there is empty adjectives use in people utterances to convey agreement, excitement, etc.

Linguistic features in Sociolinguistics are categorized by speakers’ gender. Gender is a system of meaning – a way of constructing notions of male and female – and language is the primary means through which we maintain or contest old meanings, and construct or resist new ones (Eckert & Ginet, 2003). Gender in Sociolinguistics refers to men and women’s behavior socially and culturally constructed. In other words, language can be distinguished based on the speakers’ gender through different linguistic features usage.

In Sociolinguistics, the different linguistic features usage as a kind of language use for expressing humans’ feeling connected to the language and gender issue is shown by the use of ‘strong expletives’ by men, ‘empty adjectives’, and ‘tag questions’ mostly used by women. Strong expletives refer to the language use uttered by the speakers when they curse something really bothering. Empty adjectives are usually found when women want to compliment something they like. Tag questions can be simply considered as yes-no question but, it is a unique one. This question is unique because it has to be preceded by a clause and has its own function in a social interaction.

In short, it is true that from childhood until adulthood or from males until females are believed that they have a different way of speaking from each other. The difference refers to the way of speaking that both reflects and produces a subordinate position in a society. Women’s language by Lakoff is rife with such devices as mitigators (*sort of, I think*) and inessential qualifiers (*really happy, so beautiful*). This language renders women’s speech tentative, powerless, and trivial; and as such, it disqualifies them from positions of power and authority. In this way, language itself is a tool – it is learned as a part of learning to be a woman, imposed on women by societal norms, and in turn it keeps women in their place. As a result of this argument by Lakoff, there are two most significant theories on social differences between males and females. They are “difference theory” and “dominance theory”.

The “difference theory” between men and women in the same group, living in different or separate cultural worlds resulted that it promotes different ways of speaking (Uchida, 1992). This theory is sometimes called “two-culture theory”. In simple terms, although men and women live in the same environment they establish different relations with society as if each belonged to a different environment and culture, the result of which is consequently reflected in the language of both genders as in other aspects of their lives. So, cross-gender communication is to be taken as cross-cultural or bi-cultural communication. In “dominance theory”, men and women are believed to inhabit a cultural and linguistic world, where power and status are unequally distributed. In this theory, also called power-based theory, the focus is on male dominance and gender division. Thus, this present writer is interested to conduct a mini research about three linguistic features; strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions usage based on speakers’ gender in the serial film *Friends* utterances (1994-2004). The present writer found a lot of data about these three linguistic features in the serial film *Friends*. Besides that, the movie doesn’t only have rich characters like in a daily life but also various episodes telling about daily issues in real life.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

The investigation and identification of differences between men's and women's speech date back across time until 1970s. Lakoff (1975) first introduced women's language to distinguish men and women's different speech. Lakoff (1975) proposed theories on the existence of women's language. Her book 'Language and Woman's Place' has served as a basis for much research on the subject. She mentions ten features for women's language. As cited in Holmes (1993, p. 314), these ten features are:

1. Lexical hedges or fillers, e.g. you know, sort of, ...
2. Tag questions, e.g. she is very nice, isn't she?
3. Rising intonation on declaratives, e.g. it's really good.
4. Empty adjectives, e.g. divine, charming, cute.
5. Precise color terms, e.g. magenta, acqamarine.
6. Intensifiers such as justand so.
7. Hypercorrect grammar, e.g. consistent use of standard verb forms.
8. Superpolite forms, e.g. indirect requests, euphemisms.
9. Avoidance of strong swear words, e.g. fudge, my goodness.
10. Emphatic stress, e.g. it was a BRILLIANT performance.

Lakoff's hypotheses have both pros and cons. These pros and cons are shown by some research responded men and women's difference in language. First reaction was made by Dubois and Crouch (1975) launching a critique on Lakoff's claims, especially on tag questions. They examined the use of tag questions within the context of a professional meeting and concluded that atleast in that context males used tag questions more than females did. Their conclusion was that Lakoff's hypothesis might be biased in favor of highly stereotyping beliefs or folk linguistics. Dubois and Crouch (1975) questioned Lakoff's findings as Lakoff had used introspective methods in her study. They argued that her conclusions were made on uncontrolled and unverifiable observation of others and were based on a highly skewed and non-random sample of people. Despite such and many other similar observations, Lakoff believes that the use of tag questions by women is the sign of uncertainty. Krammarae (1991) discussed the phenomenon of "stranger compliments" from men to women. It is reported that such street remarks are still heard, sometimes with racist as well as sexist overtones. There is, however, the occasional reversal, with women yelling out numbers as men walk by ("Hey, you're at least 9") or appreciative comments on the men's bodies ("Love those abs").

Another research distinguishing language based on gender was conducted by Elizabeth Kuhn (1992). Kuhn examined university professors' use of their authority on the first day of classes to get students to do what the professors wanted them to. Kuhn found male professors displaying more authority than women in both American and German universities at the highest levels in the academic hierarchy. And in both the US and Germany, men still predominate as the recognized authorities in academic and other domains. While analyzing the electronic mails of a number of men and women, Bunz and Campbell (2002) stated that social categories such as age, gender, etc. do not influence politeness accommodation in e-mail. Nemati and Bayer (2007) also studied the same issue about language and gender issue. Their article entitled "Gender Differences in the Use of Linguistic Forms in the Speech of Men and Women: A Comparative Study of Persian and English" was conducted to determine whether men and women were different with respect to the use of intensifiers, hedges and tag questions in English and Persian. To conduct the study, R. Lakoff's (1975) ideas concerning linguistic differences between males and females were taken into account. Their findings of the study did not confirm Lakoff's opinion regarding gender-bound language at least in the three areas and the corpus inspected in this research.

Many studies have been conducted about language and gender in the issue of men and women speak differently like mentioned above. However, there is only a little connected to how men and women speak differently by examining some similar relationship among the linguistic features used in their speech. Thus, to examine Lakoff's hypothesis, the present writer selected three linguistic features, from the list above, namely strong expletives, empty adjectives and tag questions used by speakers in a serial film "Friends" as a means to convey their feelings as the basis of analysis. This research examines whether the speakers based on their gender speak differently – in a way of speaking – or not.

#### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present research is carried out to study the utterances by speakers in the serial film "Friends" which contain three linguistic features; strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions. The present study, therefore, seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions are used by the speakers in a serial film "Friends"?
2. What are the functions of the strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions used by the speakers in a serial film "Friends"?
3. What are the similarities and differences strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions used by the speakers in a serial film "Friends"?

#### METHODOLOGY

The method used in this research is descriptive qualitative method. Qualitative approach is concerned with the process of certain phenomenon (Fanani, 2010). This method focuses on words and description rather than numbers (Maxwell, 2000). Descriptive research method is conducted by making a description systematically, knowing the characteristics and relationship among phenomena investigated. The data are taken from the utterances in a serial film Friends (1994-2004) created by David Crane and Marie Kauffman production. It is one of American blockbuster sitcoms. The film revolves around a circle of friends in Manhattan, a borough of New York City. The episodes provoke issues close to real life issues.

The focus of this study is to find the utterances containing strong expletives, empty adjectives and tag questions and their functions. Social dimension by Holmes (1992, 2001) and context by McManis et al. (1987) are mainly used in this research to examine their functions.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the research questions, the selected utterances containing strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions are firstly categorized and then analyzed based on speakers' gender and their context by using social dimension by Holmes (1992, 2001). There are four social dimensions used in this research. They are social distance, social status, formality scale, and two functional scales. The social distance is used to measure the relationship among participants. If the speakers are close to each other, the relationship will bear solidarity. If the speakers' relationship to each other is not close, it will result to the existence of power to one speaker in the social interaction. A status scale concerned with participant relationships causing high and low status by looking at the power of the speakers. A formality scale relates to the setting or type of interaction. And two functional scales refer to the purposes or topic of interaction.

To figure out the second research question finding the functions of the use of expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions, the present writer connects the social dimension to the context theory by McMannis et al. (1987) in order to examine the meanings explicitly and implicitly. There are 4 types of context by McMannis (1987) as follows:

1. *Physical context* includes *setting* and the object or topic that is discussed in the social interaction.
2. *Social context* is context that explains the social relationship and social background between speaker and hearer.
3. *Epistemic context* is context describing one schemata about something discussed in the social interaction owned by speaker and hearer like the similar schemata owned by speaker and hearer about one certain place or object of the discussion.
4. *Linguistic context*, this context explains the relationship between the discussed utterances and previous and also the next utterances as the intended meaning.

Epistemic context is the basic knowledge that shared by the speakers and listeners. Everything that the speakers and the listeners share is related to epistemic context. To answer the third question, the present writer then analyzed thoroughly the data found in the research to find out the similarities and differences between the use of strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions in men and women utterances. To answer the research questions in this paper, the present writer also refers to these two tables below as scales to help determine which expletives are strong or weak, and to classify the function of linguistic features used by speakers in the serial film Friends.

Table 1: expletives words scale (by Klerk in Johnson and Meinhof's article, year 1997: 157-158)

Value of Expletives	Expletives Words
Value of 1	<i>beggar, blinking, blooming, bother, brother, crikey, cripes, darn, dear, drat, flick, flip, fool, golly, gosh, grief, heck, hoender, jeepers, mother, Pete's sake, pluck off, rash, ruddy, Schweppes, shaving cream, sherbet, shirt, shivers, shize, shoot, shot, shucks, sugar, wow.</i>
Value of 2	<i>ass, blast, bull, buzz off, can it, clot, cork up, cow, creep, damn, dog, dozz, egghead, imbecile, gag it, GCM, geez, gits, heavens, holy mackerel, idiot, jis, jislaaik, jissus, jurrah, moron, shiff off, shut up, shut your trap, sow, tripe, twerp, twit, voetsek, vrek, wench</i>
Value of 3	<i>drop dead, 'f', faggot, Glory, god, hell, holy cow, holy mother, jerk, Lord, mess off, Mother Mary, scab.</i>
Value of 4	<i>bastard, bitch, bloody, bulldust, donder, dosball, go suck, slut, stuff you, tit, up yours.</i>
Value of 5	<i>bumface, Christ, crap, drol, dwat, dwax, fart, gwat, Jesus, kak, kaffir, shittoes, siffy.</i>
Value of 6	<i>bulldung, bullshit, moer, shit, shithouse, son of a bitch, wank a plank, wanker.</i>
Value of 7	<i>jerk yourself, piss off, screw yourself, wop.</i>
Value of 8	<i>arse, arsehole, bugger, cock, dick, dickface, dickhead, dildohead, doos, dushbag, fucket, poephol, prick, shitface, shittrap.</i>
Value of 9	<i>cunt, cuntface, cuntsucker, fuck, fucker, fucking, poes.</i>
Value of 10	<i>mother-fucking.</i>

Table 2: List of kinds and functions of tag questions (cited from Axelsson, 2011: 41-45)

Type of Tag	Function	Example
Informational (Algeo 1990: 445)	To get information.	You haven't got the ages of these other guys, have you?
Confirmatory (Roesle 2001: 32)	To get confirmation.	Q: Well I think you did see it, didn't you? no? A: No, well I can't remember. (Roesle 2001: 33)
Involving/facilitative (Roesle 2001: 33)	To involve the listener by them agreeing to a statement.	This is quite nice an anorak, isn't it? (Roesle 2001: 33)
Punctuational (Algeo 1990: 446)	To give emphasizes.	You classicists, you've probably not done Old English, have you? course you haven't. (Algeo 1990: 446)
Softening (Holmes, 1995: 81)	To be polite of to soft harsh statements.	You've got a new job Tom, haven't you? (Holmes 1995:81)
Challenging (Holmes, 1995: 81)	To force a response from a "reluctant hearer."	Q: Now you er fully understand, don't you? A: Yes, Sir, indeed, yeah.
Preemptory (Algeo 1990: 447)	To undermine the hearer by pointing out something they clearly should know.	I wasn't born yesterday, was I? (Algeo 1990: 447)
Aggressive (Algeo 1990: 447)	To undermine the listener by pointing out something they clearly could not know.	Q: I rang you up this morning, but you didn't answer. A: Well, I was having a bath, wasn't I? (Algeo 1990:447)

'Tag questions' are divided into two types (Eckert and Ginet, 2003: 167-168). They are tags containing an inverted auxiliary form,

called as *canonical* tags (Holmes, 1983) or *variant* tags and a pronoun that agrees with the subject of the main clause (anchor) and *invariant* tags. Canonical tags include the auxiliary form followed by the subject of the anchor such as “is it”, “don’t you”, etc. The invariant tags are simple tags like “no?”, “eh?”, “right”, “okay”, “innit?” and “weren’t it?” These tags are not affected by the clause or anchor preceded the tag.

Based on the data analysis, it is resulted that ‘strong expletives’ in the serial film ‘Friends’ are used by both men and women characters in their utterances. They use ‘strong expletives’ to curse, or insult. However, ‘strong expletives’ are mostly found in men’s utterances in the serial film ‘Friends’. So, it can be inferred that the use of ‘strong expletives’ as a means to curse or insult something annoyed the speakers is one of the characteristics in men’s linguistic features.

‘Empty adjectives’ use in the serial film ‘Friends’ shows that not only women use ‘empty adjectives’ but also men do it too. However, the most frequency of the ‘empty adjectives’ use is showed in women’s utterances. It can be said that ‘empty adjectives’ use is categorized as women’s linguistic features to signs agreement of the speakers to hearers. In addition, there is actually a difference between the uses of ‘empty adjectives’ in both speakers.

‘Tag questions’ use in the serial film ‘Friends’ shows that both genders; men and women use tag questions in their utterances. The ‘tag questions’ uses found in data include two types of ‘tag questions’; canonical and invariant tags. Yet, the number of the ‘tag questions’ as the data in this research shows that men use more ‘tag questions’ than women do (10 out of 17). So, it cannot be said that ‘tag questions’ is one of women’s linguistic features. The ‘tag questions’ uses in the data are mostly used as a means to get information and to involve the hearers by them agreeing the statements.

Here are the explanations of the result:

### **Strong Expletives**

#### **Strong Expletives used by men**

(1) Season 8, episode 04

[Scene: Joey and Rachel’s, Joey is standing at the counter as Ross enters.]

**Joey** : Whoa! What are you doing here? How did your date go?

**Ross** : Great! I’m across the street having sex with her right now. Your story **sucks!**

**Joey** : Hey! Look, if it didn’t work it’s because you didn’t tell it right! Show me how you did it.

**Ross** : No! No, I don’t...don’t want to.

(2) Season 10, episode 10

[Scene: Monica’s apartment. Monica is cleaning with a vacuum and then she cleans it with a dust buster. The guys enter the room.]

**Chandler**: Hey!

**Joey**: (to Chandler) **You son of a bitch!**

**Chandler**: Is it me, or have the greetings gone downhill around here?

**Monica**: (goes to Chandler) Phoebe and Rachel saw you with Nancy today and... em... they think you’re having an affair.

**Rachel**: Who’s Nancy?

**Ross**: What’s going on?

**Monica**: (turns to them) Ok, alright, you guys, you’d better sit down, this is pretty big.

(3) Season 10, episode 07

[Scene: Monica’s apartment. Somebody knocks the door]

**Laura**: Oh, it’s nothing. I went on a date with a guy who lived in this building and it didn’t end very well.

**Monica**: Ohh... that wouldn’t by any chance be... Joey Tribbiani?

**Laura**: Yes!

**Chandler**: Of course it was!

**Laura**: Yeah, we had a really great night and in the morning he promised he would call me and he didn’t.

**Chandler**: **RAT BASTARD!**

**Laura**: So you’re not friends with him?

**Monica and Chandler**: **OH GOD NO! Nope, no, no, no. No! No, no. Nope! No, no, no, no, no, no, no, no, no. NO!** (finally Monica concludes) **No!**

From the data above, ‘strong expletives’ are used by men speakers in (1), (2), and (3). They are *sucks*, *son of a bitch*, and *rat bastard*. They are uttered by men speakers to deliver their anger to insult to hearers (other men). Besides to express speakers’ anger, ‘strong expletives’ are also used to express solidarity (3).

#### **Strong Expletives used by women**

(4) Season 10, episode 01

[Scene: Mike’s apartment]

**Precious**: He proposed to you? This is the worst birthday ever. (she starts to cry again)

**Phoebe**: Look, Precious... Mike’s not worth this. You’re an attractive, intelligent woman and let’s face it, Mike’s kind of a wang. I mean, he proposed to me while he was still seeing you... He was gonna break-up with you on your birthday? And, I don’t like to kiss-and-tell, but he cheated on you a lot this weekend.

**Precious**: Oh, my God, maybe you’re right. Maybe I don’t need him. I deserve to be treated with respect.

(Mike enters the apartment.)

**Precious**: **Screw you, Mike!** You’re a coward and a bastard, and I hope you rot in hell.

(she slaps him in the face, Mike looks like he doesn’t believe what just happened. Precious leaves, and he turns to Phoebe.)

In data (4) above, ‘strong expletives’ is used by a woman speaker delivered to a man hearer to convey her anger to him. The ‘strong

expletives' used above is *screw you*. The speaker is upset because the man, Mike, treated her previous girl bad. Besides to express anger, it can also be inferred that the use of 'strong expletives' there is to show speaker's solidarity uttered by a woman, Phoebe, about what happened to other woman, Precious.

#### **Empty Adjectives**

##### **Empty adjectives used by women**

(5) Season 3, episode 10

[Scene: Monica and Rachel's, Chandler is entering numbers on a calculator as Ross reads off how much he's sold.]

**Joey:** What? Rachel, listen, have you ever heard of Fortunata Fashions?

**Rachel:** No.

**Joey:** Well my old man is doing a plumbing job down there and he heard they have an opening. So, you want me to see if I can get you an interview?

**Rachel:** Oh my God! Yes, I would love that, oh, that is so *sweet*, Joey.

**Joey:** Not a problem.

**Rachel:** Thanks.

(6) Season 8, episode 14

[Scene: Joey and Rachel's, Rachel is balancing an aluminum can on her stomach as Ross enters.]

**Rachel:** Hey Ross! Check it out! I learned a new trick!

**Ross:** Hey uh, I brought you some lunch.

**Rachel:** Ohh! That's so *sweet* of you! Oh yum! (Takes a bite out of the sandwich and starts to get sick.) Did you put pickles on this?

**Ross:** Well yeah!

(7) Season 10, episode 4

[Scene: Joey's Apartment. Joey is in charge to make sure that nobody (Monica, Chandler, Judy, or Joey) leaves the Emma's birthday party while Ros is picking up Rachel who forgot to bring her driving license]

**Judy:** Well, we better get going, it's late. Jack's not allowed to drive at night anymore. He has trouble staying in his lane.

**Jack:** Last winter I went up on a church lawn and drove right through a manger scene. The papers thought it was a hate crime.

**Judy:** Anyway, it was *lovely* seeing you.

**Joey:** Ok! (Opens the door for them)

**Judy:** Bye... Bye dear.

**Joey:** Nighty-night!

**Judy:** Nighty-night!

**Joey:** Bye, bye.

In (5), (6), and (7) the 'empty adjectives' used there are *sweet*, and *lovely*. They are used by women speakers to men and women hearers. The 'empty adjectives' use there is to express their agreement of something and that they are also happy about something offered by the hearers.

##### **Empty adjectives used by men**

(8) Season 3, episode 13

[Scene: Richard's apartment, Richard is giving an apartment tour to his date]

**Richard:** Ah well, this is the living room.

**Richard's Date:** Impressive.

**Richard:** All right. This is the kitchen.

**Richard's Date:** Oh, that's real pretty. Wait a minute, don't I get to see the bedroom?

**Richard:** The bedroom. Well it's pretty much your typical... (opens the door as Monica hides under the covers, and quickly closes the door before his date can see the room.) bedroom.

**Richard's Date:** We're still on this side of the door.

**Richard:** Um-hmm.

**Richard's Date:** Yeah, but I didn't get to see it.

**Richard:** Oh shoot! Maybe next time. (yawns) Thanks for a *lovely* evening. (shows her out)

In data (8) above, the 'empty adjectives' use is uttered by a man speaker to a woman hearer. The 'empty adjectives' used is *lovely*. The 'empty adjectives' use in the data above is to express speaker's feeling as a compliment or gratitude to the woman hearer and also to end of the social interaction.

#### **Tag Questions**

##### **Tag questions used by men**

(9) Season 1 Episode 1

[Scene: Central Perk, Chandler, Joey, Phoebe, and Monica are there.]

**Phoebe:** Ooh! Oh! (She starts to pluck at the air just in front of Ross.)

**Ross:** No, no don't! Stop cleansing my aura! No, just leave my aura alone, *okay*?

**Phoebe:** Fine! Be murky!

**Ross:** I'll be fine, *alright*? Really, everyone. I hope she'll be very happy.

**Monica:** No you don't.

**Ross:** No I don't, to hell with her, she left me!

**Joey:** And you never knew she was a lesbian...

(10) Season 1 Episode 1

(There's a knock on the door and it's Paul.)

**Monica:** Hi, come in! Paul, this is... (They are all lined up next to the door.)... everybody, everybody, this is Paul.

**All:** Hey! Paul! Hi! The Wine Guy! Hey!

**Chandler:** I'm sorry, I didn't catch your name. Paul, **was it?**

**Monica:** Okay, umm-umm, I'll just--I'll be right back, I just gotta go ah, go ah...

**Ross:** A wandering?

**Monica:** Change! Okay, sit down. (Shows Paul in) Two seconds.

**Phoebe:** Ooh, I just pulled out four eyelashes. That can't be good.

(Monica goes to change.)

**Joey:** Hey, Paul!

**Paul:** Yeah?

(11) Season 1 Episode 5

[Scene: Central Perk, all are there.]

**Chandler:** So, Saturday night, the big night, date night, Saturday night, Sat-ur-day night!

**Joey:** No plans, **huh?**

**Chandler:** Not a one.

**Ross:** Not even, say, breaking up with Janice?

**Chandler:** Oh, right, right, shut up.

**Monica:** Chandler, nobody likes breaking up with someone. You just gotta do it.

In (9), (10), and (11) above, there are 'tag questions' uses. They include canonical and invariant tags like 'was it', and 'huh', 'okay', 'alright'. The 'tag questions' are used by men speakers to express their feeling like confirmatory, and uncertainty to both men and women hearers.

#### Tag questions used by women

(12) Season 1 Episode 1

[Scene: Iridium, Monica is working as Frannie enters.]

**Frannie:** Hey, Monica!

**Monica:** Hey Frannie, welcome back! How was Florida?

**Frannie:** You had sex, **didn't you?**

**Monica:** How do you do that?

**Frannie:** Oh, I hate you, I'm pushing my Aunt Roz through Parrot Jungle and you're having sex! So? Who?

**Monica:** You know Paul?

**Frannie:** Paul the Wine Guy? Oh yeah, I know Paul.

(13) Season 1 Episode 13

[Scene: Central Perk, Phoebe is there with her boyfriend Roger, talking to Rachel and Monica.]

**Phoebe:** Thanks. Okay, now go away so we can talk about you.

**Roger:** Okay. I'll miss you.

**Phoebe:** Isn't he great?

**Rachel:** He's so cute! And he seems to like you so much.

**Phoebe:** I know, I know. So sweet... and so complicated. And for a shrink, he's not too shrinky, **y'know?**

**Monica:** So, you think you'll do it on his couch?

In data (12) and (13) above, the 'tag questions' use are uttered by women speakers other women hearers. The 'tag questions' uses there include canonical and invariant tags such as 'didn't you' and 'y'know'. In (12), the use of 'tag questions' is uttered by speaker to elicit information of something being discussed. In (13), the speaker uses the 'tag question' there is to involve the hearer by them agreeing to a statement.

#### CONCLUSION

This paper's goal is to examine the use of strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions based on the speakers' gender, their functions, and their similarities and differences.

It can be concluded that the findings of this research include three big points as the answer of the research questions. Firstly, 'strong expletives' found in the serial film 'Friends' include two categories. The first category is 'strong expletives' uttered by a man (as a speaker) to other man (as a hearer) such as *sucks*, and *son of a bitch* (uttered *face to face*), and *crap, stupid son of bitches, rat bastard*. The second one is 'strong expletives' directly uttered by a woman (as a speaker) to a man (as a hearer) such as *screw you*. Secondly, 'empty adjectives' are mostly found in women's utterances in the serial film "Friends". They are used by women (as the speakers) when they talked to both men and other women (as hearers). The 'empty adjectives' found in this research are *sweet, fantastic, adorable, and lovely* uttered by women speakers to both men and other women as hearers. But, the 'empty adjectives' uttered by men speakers to women hearers is *lovely*. Thirdly, 'tag questions' used by speakers include two types of 'tag questions'; canonical and invariant tags. They are *was it, is it, didn't you, okay, alright, y'know, and huh*. Men speakers use more 'tag questions' women do.

Based on linguistic features' function, it can be inferred that 'strong expletives' are used to express speakers' anger and show solidarity to the hearers that also upset speakers. 'The empty adjectives' used by speakers, mostly women, is to express speakers' joy and to agree something that makes them please. 'Tag questions' in this research are used by speakers to get more information and to involve hearers to agree with what speakers have stated before, as a facilitative.

Another finding in this research is that both men and women are actually use 'strong expletives', 'empty adjectives', and 'tag questions. However, they are used in different way. Men speakers use 'strong expletives' only to men hearers. Women speakers use

'strong expletives' only to men speakers. Men speakers use 'strong expletives' only to men hearers but, women speakers use 'strong expletives' only to men hearers. It can be said that 'strong expletives' is men's linguistic feature since it is used mostly by men speakers. In the 'empty adjective use', women use it more than men do. Women speakers use 'empty adjectives' to both men and women hearers, but men speakers use 'empty adjectives' only to women hearers. So, it can be said that 'empty adjectives' is women's linguistic feature. 'Tag questions' use in this research is also used by both men and women speakers. Yet, men speakers use it more often than women do. The invariant tags are used by speakers only to close hearers like best friends while canonical or variant tags are used by speakers to their acquaintances as the hearers and when speakers and hearers are in a formal situation like in a work place.

#### **Limitations of the study**

This study examines the men and women's language and focuses only on three linguistic features usage; strong expletives, empty adjectives, and tag questions. There are some limitations for this study related to the topic discussed in this article as follow:

1. This article considers only at three kinds of linguistic features by men and women in their utterances. And also this article only concerns on the reason of men and women's linguistic features usage seen from social factors. So, the future research is needed to be able to study this issue not only from social factors but also from other factors.
2. The data taken in this article are from a serial film "Friends" scripts. It is suggested the future research take the data from more natural sources by using recording technique and etc.
3. The data in this article mostly describe informal setting like conversation between friends at home, café, etc. So, a less informal setting like in a work place between participants' different social status is suggested to future research.

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#### ABSTRACT

To examine the impact of transitioning traditional reading comprehension assessments to computer-based, 66 male English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners aged 8 to 12 years were assigned to take two different twenty-minutes reading comprehension tests with the same level of difficulties on paper and computer screen using scrolling text to navigate through pages. They also completed an attitude questionnaire to reveal their attitudes towards computerized testing. The findings revealed that there are no significant differences in reading comprehension scores across testing modes. In addition, evaluating the Likert type questionnaire revealed that the majority of students prefer to take the test on computer. The findings also suggest that the amount of reading comprehension among children does not differ considerably while switching from paper/pencil-based assessment into computer-based assessment. Hence, schools with no or limited computers and the Internet facilities should not be concerned about the students' performance and their level of achievement.

**KEYWORDS:** computer-based assessment, paper/pencil-based assessment, attitude.

#### INTRODUCTION

Computerized testing began in the early 1970s (Drasgow, 2002; Wainer, 1990). Limited computer capability and high costs, however, used to limit the implementation of computerized testing. With the advent of new technologies, computerized testing has begun to be developed and implemented in large-scale testing programs such as licensure, certification, admissions, and psychological tests (Kim & Huynh, 2007). For example, the Graduate Record Examinations (GRE) has been administered in computer-adaptive format for several years. Likewise, in 1998, the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) began transitioning to computer-adaptive testing. Recently, the new TOEFL Internet-Based Test (IBT) began administration via the Internet in a non-adaptive format. Increased testing requirements and tight deadlines imposed by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) (Public Law No: 107-110) have led to new ways that states can measure student performance more efficiently (Kim, et al., 2007).

The advantages of computers are well known and apparent (Al-Amri, 2009). Computers offer test developers the opportunity to improve their productivity and lead to innovation in their fields. The standardization of test administration conditions is one of the benefits offered by Computer-Based Testing (CBT). No matter what the tests' population size is, CBT helps test developers to set the same test conditions for all participants. Al-Amri (2009) also believed that CBT improves all aspects of test security by storing questions and responses in encrypted databases and enables testers to create randomized questions and answers from vast question pools. Moreover, offering different test formats and the immediate presentation of different types of feedback, either to students or to testers, are other great advantages of CBT. Collecting different performance data such as latency information is a unique feature of CBT (Olsen, Maynes, Slawson, & Ho, 1989). On the examinees' side, they are able to receive greater measurement efficiency and the possibility to take the test at any time. On the other hand, there are some disadvantages that users have to be aware of before opting for computer-based testing, which led many scholars to suggest conducting systematic studies to check equivalency and comparability of paper-based tests and computer-based tests (Parshall, Spray, Kalohn, & Davey, 2002). For example, students need some degree of computer literacy in order to avoid the mode effect on computer-based testing (Alderson, 2000).

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

As there has been a growing interest in computer-based testing in large-scale assessments, several comparability studies have involved elementary and secondary students over the past few years. Russell and Haney (1997) investigated the mode effects on middle school students' performances on open-ended items in writing, science, math, and reading, as well as multiple-choice and short-answer items in language arts, science, and math from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), and extended writing test items. They found that the effect of administration mode was not significant for the multiple-choice items, but a substantial effect was found for the open-ended items. The results showed that students who were used to writing by the computer performed better when they responded to the open-ended test using a computer rather than using pencil and paper.

Similar findings were found in studies by Russell (1999) and Russell and Plati (2001), who reported that students who were accustomed to writing using a computer performed better on the open-ended tests when they wrote using a computer than when they wrote by hand. Pommerich (2004) investigated the item-level mode effects of English, reading, and science reasoning tests in grades 11 and 12 and found that examinees responded differently to some items under the various interface features, although the mode effect in general was small. Pommerich found that the paging condition group outperformed the scrolling condition group in the reading and science reasoning tests, and the automatic scrolling group performed slightly better than the semi-automatic scrolling group in the English test.

Two comparability studies on the online versions of the NAEP math and writing tests showed that the paper group significantly outperformed the computer group in the eighth-grade NAEP mathematics test, but no mode effect

was found for the eighth-grade NAEP essay test (Sandene, Horkay, Bennett, Allen, Braswell, Kaplan, 2005). The NAEP studies also found that students' familiarity with computers was related to their performance. Particularly, hands-on measures of keyboarding skill were found to be a significant predictor of students' performances on the NAEP online writing test (Sandene, et al., 2005). Although the NAEP studies have directly investigated administration mode effects in the K-12 large scale assessments, the NAEP is a low-stakes assessment and the lack of consequences for its results could affect student motivation to take the test seriously, and the results may not be generalized to high-stake statewide assessments.

Regarding the comparability of these two assessment modes on children as the participants, Barnes (2010) examined the feasibility of using CBA with children who have not yet started the first grade. Kindergarten children were able to perform the assessment nearly as well on the CBA as they did on the traditional paper version of the test. However, most children under four years of age were not able to complete a CBA independently. The children reacted positively to the CBA and seemed to enjoy using the computer, but the test results indicate that the CBA was more difficult and may be measuring something more than rhyme awareness for the preschoolers. In 2005, Sim examined the comparability of CBA and PPBA on 20 children, aged between 7 and 8 of mixed gender. The results showed that the majority of children performed better on paper than computer although there was no significant difference.

In fact, a lot of research works have been conducted to evaluate the comparability of computer based assessment and paper and pencil based assessment. Some studies revealed that there is a significant difference between the two testing modes on test scores (e.g. Scheuermann & Björnsson, 2009; Choi, Kim, & Boo, 2003), while other studies reported opposite or inconsistent results (e.g. Al-Amri, 2009; Boo, 1997). However, unlike the abundance of CBA research done with older or special needs students, there is a dearth of available research focusing on the issues of computer-based assessment with typically developing young children (Barnes, 2010). Therefore, a practical comparison between these two methods needs to be done in order to identify whether the testing mode has considerable influence on the performance of children when they sit for a reading comprehension assessment. In other words, due to the scarcity of empirical research concerning language assessment and use of technology in language assessment in Iran, this study hopes to raise awareness on the use of technology in language assessment in Iranian context.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Specifically, the research questions were:

1. Is there any significant difference between computer-based assessment and paper and pencil based assessment when assessing reading comprehension among primary school students?
2. What is the test takers' attitude towards computer-based assessment compared with traditional assessment?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

This study recruited 66 male EFL learners aged 8 to 12 years from one of the well-known language learning institutes to take part in PPBA and CBA as the participants. Since the numbers of students who were at the required level of proficiency and appropriate for this study were not high enough to employ random selection, all of the students who had the requisites to sit for the reading comprehension assessments were selected as the participants. They were chosen from among five different proficiency levels ranging from *High Beginning* to *Low Advanced*. The number of students per class ranged from 5 to 23. It is necessary to notify that every student sit for the required placement tests at the very beginning of his entry into the institute. Hence, there were no worries about the proficiency levels of the children.

### *Instruments*

Two reading comprehension tests as well as an attitude questionnaire were utilized in this study as the data collection instruments, which are described below in details.

### *Reading Comprehension Test*

Based on the proficiency levels of the participants, two different tests with the same level of difficulty containing a reading passage, a short story, and some associated multiple choice items were extracted directly from released *Read Theory* or *English for Every One* organizations. The tests for PPBA and CBA, different in terms of content but similar in terms of difficulty level as well as number of paragraphs and question items, were also checked by the institute teachers to ensure from their appropriateness.

With regard to the CBA, some points are necessary to be referred to in advance. Firstly, the reading comprehension tests were embedded in a dynamic web page with a submit button at the bottom of the page to send the students' entered answers to the website database. Secondly, in order to avoid building a separate website from scratch, the researchers preferred to benefit from the existing online form builders such as Google Drive, Adobe Acrobat Form Creator, and so on which not only allow to use their templates for creating the desired pages, but also offer facilities to the developer to analyze the entered data.

### *The Attitude Questionnaire*

After completing the web-based reading comprehension assessment, all students were asked to complete a web-based questionnaire that consisted of five question items. The purpose of this questionnaire was to measure students' attitude toward computer-based assessments. The questions were addressing the extent to which the use of computers has considerable influence on the amount of comprehension when children sit for the reading exams. Since the participants were children of eight to 12 years and there was a great fear about their perception and understanding of the question items, translating the items into their native language (Persian) would resolve this concern and prevent from any kinds of misinterpretation.

A good number of similar questionnaires from the previous studies (e.g. The National Assessment of Educational Progress, 2007; Documents & Resources for Small Businesses & Professionals, 2010; Melhado, 2010) were evaluated to extract the appropriate items for children. Then, the selected items were merged in a well-designed format and checked by the institute's teachers as well to ensure from their appropriateness and the validity of items. The questionnaire was designed according to the Likert scale with 5 question items and four possible answers for each one including *Strongly Agree*, *Agree*, *Disagree*, and *Strongly Disagree*. In other words, based on some researchers' idea (e.g. Chang, 1994; Cronbach, 1950; Adelson & McCoach, 2010; Kulas, Stachowski, & Haynes, 2008), the *Neutral* (*Neither Agree nor Disagree*) option was omitted from the middle of the scale in order to avoid children having spurious answers and instead, specify exactly their viewpoints towards the questions.

To ensure its reliability, the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was calculated. Based on Cronbach's formula, the researcher achieved an alpha value of 0.83, which indicates a very acceptable degree of reliability to be utilized in the study.

**Procedure**

The process of data collection for this study was done during May 2013. Students were given twenty minutes to complete the reading comprehension tests in two attempts of administration, one for PPBA and the other for CBA. At the end of CBA, the students were also given an additional 10 minutes to complete the attitude questionnaire. To control for effects that might result from differences in the computers available within each class, a set of MSI 11-inch laptops were brought into the classes with no external mice. The laptops were chosen among the small and light weighted sizes to be appropriate for children as the participants.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In order to answer the first and second research questions, a paired-samples t-test at 0.05 levels of significance was conducted and the frequencies of each item in the questionnaire were calculated respectively. The descriptive statistics for PPBA and CBA is depicted in Table 1.

*Table 1: Descriptive statistics for PPBA and CBA*

Assessments	Mean	N	SD
Paper/Pencil based Assessment	57.29	66	19.56
Computer based Assessment	63.33	66	23.70

*Note: N=Number of the students; SD=Standard Deviation*

Table 2 presents the output of Paired-Sample t-test.

*Table 2: Paired-Samples T-test Results of comparison between PPBA and CBA scores*

	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Paper – Computer	-6.03	26.78	-1.832	65	.072

*Note: SD=Standard Deviation; Sig. =Significance value; df stands for Degrees of freedom. \*P < .05, \*\*P < .01*

The results of Paired-Sample t-test suggest that the amount of reading comprehension among children does not differ considerably while switching from traditional mode of testing into the computerized one.

To analyze the questionnaire, the researcher made use of only the simple comparisons of frequency percentages related to the predefined answers for the questionnaire's questions, namely, *Strongly Agree*, *Agree*, *Disagree*, and *Strongly Disagree*. This measure identified that which item has the most frequency among the others and consequently determined the students' attitude toward CBA. Table 3 and figure 1 represent the descriptive statistics and the column chart associated with the questionnaire respectively.

*Table 3: Descriptive statistics for attitude*

Mean	SD	N
17.78	2.54	5

*Note: SD=Standard Deviation; N=Number of items*

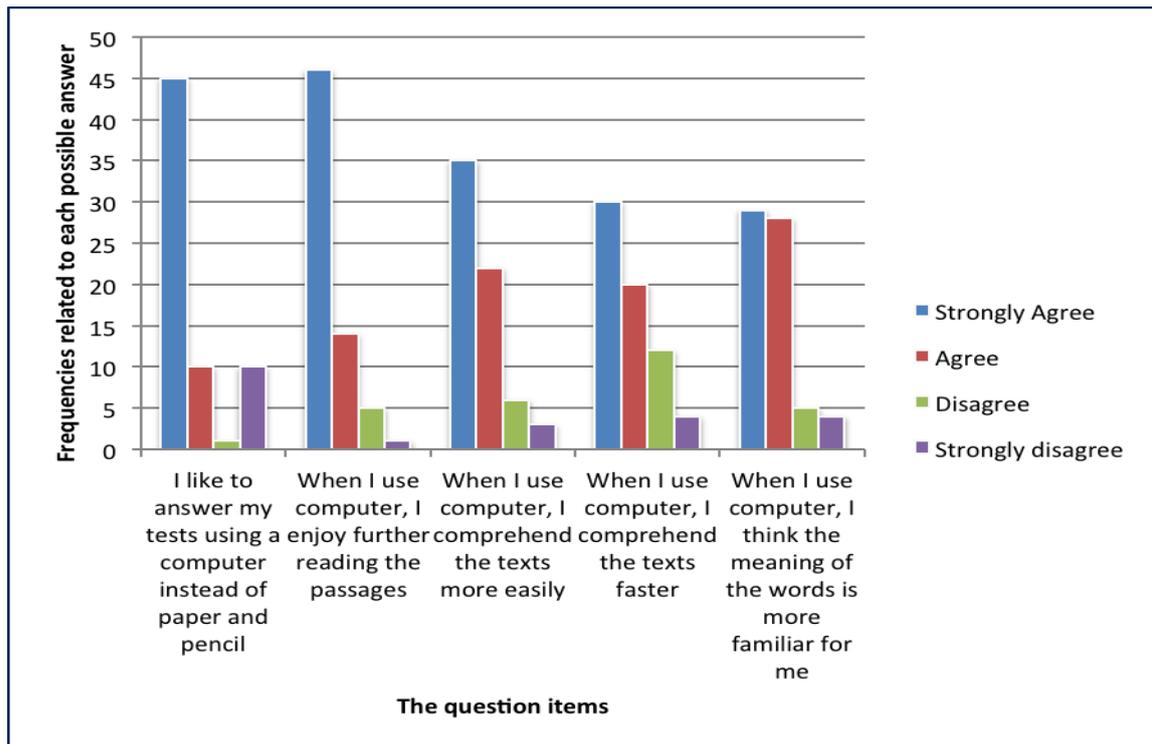


Figure 1: Column chart showing frequencies of each possible answer of the Likert-type questionnaire

Obviously, the first two possible answers, *Strongly Agree* and *Agree*, had the most frequencies in each question, so it is simply concluded that the participants had better feeling and attitude towards administering the assessments using computers. In addition, the researcher’s observation at the time of CBA is another evidence for this claim.

Regarding the first research question, the analysis of the results proved that the kind of administration either paper-based or computer-based will not significantly influence the participants’ performance in reading comprehension assessments and the existing differences are not considerable and salient but due to chance or other external factors.

This finding is in line with Higgins, Russell, and Hoffmann (2005)’s study who investigated the Effect of Computer-Based Passage Presentation on Reading Test Performance and found that there were no statistically significant differences in reading comprehension scores based on computer fluidity and computer literacy. Likewise, the study carried out by Baumer, Roded, and Gafni (2009) on the Equivalence of Internet-Based vs. Paper-and-Pencil Psychometric Tests, revealed that the modality of administration does not affect test performance. Pommerich (2004) also conducted a research on English, Reading, and Science passage-based tests and found that there were no significant differences in scores across modes for the Reading test. In addition, Al-Amri (2009) investigated the comparability of computer-based testing versus paper-based testing and found that testing mode has almost no significant effect on the overall validity and reliability of the tests. He also asserted that computer familiarity has no influence on students’ performance and the other factors such as computer attitude and prior testing mode preference do not have any critical impact on the overall students’ performance.

However, this finding may be at odds with some previous studies as well. For instance, Fitzpatrick and Triscari (2005) in their study found that item parameters and cut score results are comparable across administration modes. Likewise, the study performed by Choi and Tinkler (2002) revealed that the computerized Oregon statewide reading and mathematics tests were more difficult for third graders, but the paper version of the test was more difficult for tenth graders. They also found that mode effects were more pronounced in reading tests than in mathematics tests. Similar findings were reported in the study by Way, Davis, and Fitzpatrick (2006), who investigated the comparability of paper and online versions of the Texas statewide tests in mathematics, reading/English language arts, science and social studies at grades 8 and 11. The results showed that the tests were more difficult for the online group than for the paper group and the administration mode effects were more evident for ELA than for other subjects.

Regarding the second research question, the analyses of the attitude questionnaire as well as the researcher’s observation at the time of CBA administration identified that children had a better sense and attitude toward taking the examinations using computers.

This finding is consistent with the results of many previous related studies. For instance, Higgins, Russell, and Hoffmann (2005) in their study, which was referred to earlier, examined the attitude of the participants as well. They asked the participants whether they thought it was easier or harder to take the test on computer or paper. Of the 135 students who responded to this item, 82% reported that it was easier to take the test on computer. In addition, students were asked in a selected response format if they would have preferred to take the test on computer or on paper. Of the 161 students who responded to this item, 87% reported that they would prefer to take the test on computer. Likewise, Way, Davis & Fitzpatrick (2006) believed that according to recent surveys, students tested online feel comfortable with taking tests on the computer and tend to prefer it to traditional paper testing. Moreover, the research work done by Chua (2012) showed that the computer-based testing has effectively increased intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of the test takers in challenge, curiosity, self-efficacy, involvement, joyfulness, comprehension and social dimensions. However, answering the test in a shorter time with higher testing motivation level did not help a test taker to achieve a higher score.

The majority of previous studies are in agreement with the above finding. However, there are some other studies which are in contrast with the current study. For example, the results of the study done by Ward, Hooper, & Hannafin (1989) indicated a negative attitude toward computer testing so that seventy-five percent of the computer-tested group either strongly agreed or agreed that computer testing was more difficult than traditional methods. In addition, Durndell & Thompson (1997) and Whitley (1997) believed that females usually have more negative attitudes toward computers than males. Moreover, Sam, Othman & Nordin (2005) in their study found that the respondents had moderate computer anxiousness and medium attitudes toward the Internet. Yet, it is not extravagant to say that almost all of the recent studies have reached the same conclusion as that of the current study; because with the vast development of technology and its usage in the lives of people around the world, the students' positive attitudes towards computerized assessment is not unexpected.

## CONCLUSION

Based on the above-mentioned discussion, it can be concluded that although the mode of testing does not noticeably influence the amount of children's reading comprehension, the teachers, schools and institutes can benefit from technology particularly the computers and internet in their educational environments to promote and encourage students towards assessments. Furthermore, those schools and institutes, which do not have required facilities to bring technology in the classrooms, should not be worried about the students' performance and their level of achievement.

## Limitations and Implications

Due to the nature of the present research, which necessitated providing similar PCs or laptops for a number of students in order to carry out computer-based assessment, there were some limitations in some aspects of this study such as the small sample size, lack of female participation, low speed of internet, and so on. Hence, future research should be conducted on a larger and more diverse sample of students and should be expanded to include students in other grade levels. The number of passages and items should also be increased. The future study with a larger and more diverse sample and more items may show more subtle differences in the performance of participants particularly when female students are also taken part in the study.

The current research can be incorporated into regular classroom settings and English language learning institutes with the intention of improving the quality of learning, teaching, and testing. In the case of classroom scale assessment, teachers can make informed decisions of how they can measure children's reading comprehension especially using computers and technology, which have come to the lives of children around the world in the recent decades, as the alternative tools for traditional assessments. In the case of large-scale assessment, the study may provide a basis for test designers/developers especially in measurement organizations and English language institutes to act according to the results.

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#### ABSTRACT

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of two different types of learning modalities, namely cooperative and competitive, on English as a foreign language (EFL) impulsive and reflective learners' writing achievement. For this purpose, 120 learners from among a total number of 185 intermediate learners studying at Tac English Language School of Tehran, Iran, were chosen all taking a PET (Preliminary English Test) first, for homogenization prior to the study. They also filled out the Eysenck and Eysenck's (1991) Impulsiveness Questionnaire (EIQ), which in turn categorized them into two subgroups within each learning modality setting, consisting of impulsives and reflectives. All in all, there were four subgroups: 30 impulsives and 30 reflectives undergoing the cooperative learning treatment, and 30 impulsives and 30 reflectives experiencing the competitive learning treatment. Part three of the writing section of a PET was used as the posttest of this study, after each group was exposed to the treatment for 18 sessions in nine weeks. At the end of the instruction, the mean scores of all four groups on the posttest were computed and a two-way ANOVA was run to test all the five hypotheses raised in the study. The results showed that the effect of the teaching technique depends on the cognitive style of the learners. However, it was found out that each of the independent variables alone was significantly effective on writing ability of the learners. Specifically, cooperative learning technique was more effective both on reflective and impulsive learners compared with competitive technique. As for the cognitive style, it was revealed that reflective learners performed better both in cooperative and in competitive techniques in comparison with the impulsive learners.

**KEYWORDS:** Competitive Learning, Cooperative Learning, Impulsive Learners, Reflective Learners, Writing.

#### INTRODUCTION

In recent years many attempts have been made to improve the methods and techniques that enable language learners to achieve their goal which is communicating accurately and appropriately in a foreign language. In order to attain this goal, the learners must obtain necessary skills for communicating effectively. These skills are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among these four skills, writing is very important and needs considerable attention; it has taken a significant place in most language classes and it is often used as a testing device for teachers and sometimes a way of memorizing and learning for learners (Nunan, 1989). In addition to the importance of writing skill in language learning, gaining the ability to write in either the first or the second language is one of the most difficult tasks a learner encounters and one that few people can be said would fully master (Rivers, 1981).

Considering the significance and the difficulty of writing skill, language teachers should pay attention to all of the possible factors which contribute to the teaching of writing and among these factors teachers' awareness of their learners' characteristics and learning styles has a great value. According to Falk (1978), "in order to understand foreign language learning, it is necessary to examine not only the linguistic properties of the language, but also the physical, psychological and sociological characteristics of the learner" (p. 353).

As Celce-Murcia (2001) remarks, "learning styles are the general approaches that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subjects" (p. 359). One of the factors which can be related to learning style is the personality type of different individuals and among all different personality types and learning styles the one which requires more study is perhaps Reflectivity/Impulsivity learning style. Messer (as cited in Jamieson & Chapelle, 1987) believes that "Reflectivity/Impulsivity is the extent to which a person reflects on a solution to a problem for which several alternatives are possible" (p. 532).

In addition to different personality variables and cognitive styles which impact foreign language learning, one cannot ignore the role of the modality of learning. One established dichotomy in this regard is competitive and cooperative learning. Cooperative learning exists when students work together to accomplish shared learning goals (Johnson, Johnson, & Stanne, 2000). And each student can achieve his/her learning goal if the other group members achieve theirs (Deutsch, 1962, as cited in Johnson, Johnson & Stanne, 2000).

Cooperative learning is usually compared with competitive learning. Within competitive situations, individuals seek outcomes that are beneficial to themselves and detrimental to others. The students try to perform faster and better than their classmates and they realize that "they can obtain their goals if and only if the other students in the class fail to obtain their goals" (Johnson & Johnson, 1999, p. 5).

Taking the importance of all mentioned factors into consideration, the teacher should be aware of all possible differences among the learners and also know that, not all learners with different cognitive styles and characteristics benefit from the same way of teaching.

#### WRITING

There is not a complete consensus among researchers to give a clear definition of writing skill, and it has been defined in a variety of ways. Finocchiaro (1988) defined writing as written thinking since students are encouraged to express their ideas, experiences, thoughts, and feelings. Chastain (1988) views writing as "a basic communication skill and unique asset" (p. 244) in process of learning a second language. He further adds that writing with its unique features, contributes to overall language learning. According to Lado (1964), to write is to put down the graphic symbols that represent a language one understands, so that other can read these graphic symbols if they know the language and the graphic representation. Defining in another way, Celce-Murcia (1991) views writing as "the ability to express ones' idea with reasonable accuracy and coherence in written form in a second or foreign language" (p. 233).

This lack of consensus may reflect the complexity of writing skill, and its multidimensional aspects. Writing is so complex that one will not be able to give his/her students simple formula for good writing, and teachers should attract the students' attention to the complexity of the process to help them to pose a better piece of writing (McKay, 1984). According to Harris

(1969), "writing involves the simultaneous practice of a number of varieties of different abilities, some of which are never fully achieved by many students, even in their native language" (p. 68).

Regarding the difficulties of learning and teaching writing skill, the reason that makes the teachers and the learners concern about this skill is importance of it. Writing is a very important skill also for pedagogical purposes. Paulston (1972) asserts, "writing is used as a service activity in educational settings and the value of writing as a service activity is admired by many teachers" (p. 36). Chastain (1988) views writing as a "basic communication skill and a unique asset" (p. 244). In the process of learning a second language, he adds that, writing with its unique features, contributes to overall language learning.

#### *Cognitive Styles*

Of particular interest to personality researchers has been the concept of cognitive style. Cognitive style in Ausubel (1968) view is defined as "self-consistent and enduring individual differences in cognitive organization and to various self-consistent idiosyncratic tendencies, that are not reflective of human cognitive functioning in general" (p. 170).

Since "cognitive styles are usually defined as an 'individual's preferred' and 'habitual' modes of perceiving, remembering, organizing, processing and representing information" (Dornyei, 2005, p. 125), it differs from one person to another and different individuals manifest different dimensions of cognitive style. According to Fontana (1995), there are some dimensions of cognition that are related to education and one of them is the dimension of impulsivity/reflectivity.

#### *Impulsivity/Reflectivity Cognitive Styles*

dimension of reflectivity/impulsivity is concerned with the degree upon which people think about the accuracy of their responses or the speed of answering the questions. According to Srivastava (1997), "impulsive individuals tend to offer the first answer that occurs to them even though it is frequently incorrect, while the reflective individuals tend to ponder various possibilities before deciding" (p. 2).

According to Rashtchi and Keyvanfar (2002) "Reflectivity/ Impulsivity relates to one's degree of contemplation over decision-making and problem solving. In simple terms, a reflective person takes into account a variety of factors before making a calculated decision, while an impulsive person makes quick guesses and relies heavily on his/her hunches" (p.114).

Ehrman and Leaver (2003) view reflectives as the persons who prefer to first think and then respond. They often benefit from relatively complex thinking and tend to work accurately. However, their slowness can result in incomplete work on tests. On the other hand, impulsives respond very rapidly and tend to complete their work fast but often with less accuracy than do reflectives. "They reach decision and report them very quickly with little concern for accuracy" (Kagan, as cited in Jamieson, 1992, p. 492).

#### *Impulsivity/Reflectivity and Second Language Success*

Regarding all the information provided about impulsive and reflective cognitive style, one may conclude that one dimension is better than the other. In other words, reflective individuals perform better than the impulsive ones. But it is not true, since according to Fontana (1995), "all cognitive style theorists stress that ideally we should be able to operate at either end of a dimension, depending on the circumstances" (p. 206).

It is easy to see that there are some situations in which the individual is needed to act quickly, such as some tests with limited time. Consequently, if the individual spends too much time on a test to make sure about the accuracy of answer, s/he may lose the time as well as the chance to learn something through the process of answering quickly and relying on his hunches. In academic settings, a reflective learner might be labeled slow. A very reflective learner may have difficulty finishing a test on time; however, the completed portions are probably correct (Rozenchwajc & Corroyer, 2005).

On the other hand, according to Block and Harrington (1974), impulsives are anxious because stress is induced by the uncertain and ambiguous nature of the situation. Furthermore, impulsive behavior like routine actions and thought processes are sometimes inappropriate and erroneous. Therefore as Fontana (1995) points " there has to exist a means by which, routine behaviors and thoughts can be inhibited and replaced, situationally or long term, by appropriate behavior or thought" (p. 3).

From the above paragraphs it can be concluded that the hypothesis that one style is better than the other is not true, since, it is the individual's ability to change his/her style according to the situation that determines success.

#### *Cooperative Goal Structures*

According to Lin (1997), the cooperative goal structures (win-win orientation) invite the learners to assist each other in reaching the goal. Here, the learners share the same goal and put their effort in reaching that goal by helping each other in carrying out class activities. In this kind of goal structure, the learners are motivated and feel responsible for the outcome.

Johnson and Johnson (1991) emphasize that five basic elements are necessary for effective use of the method. These five elements are as below:

**1. Positive interdependence:** Positive interdependence means that pupils see themselves as linked to the others in the group in such a manner that they cannot succeed unless the other members of the group succeed. (Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

**2. Face-to-Face interaction:** According to Brown and Parker (2009), "face-to-face interaction is an element of cooperative learning by which learners can promote each other's success during discussions and cooperative tasks which includes:

- Orally explaining how to solve problems
- Teaching one's knowledge to others
- Checking for understanding
- Discussing concepts being learned
- Connecting present with past learning" (p. 507).

**3. Individual and Group Accountability:** Individual accountability exists when the performance of each individual pupil is assessed and the results are subsequently reported to both the individual and the group (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). According to Johnson and Johnson (1999), individual and group accountability is described as below:

- "Keeping the size of the group small. The smaller the size of the group, the greater the individual accountability may be.
- Giving an individual test to each student.
- Randomly examining students orally by calling on one student to present his or her group's work to the teacher (in the presence of the group) or to the entire class.
- Observing each group and recording the frequency with which each member-contributes to the group's work.
- Assigning one student in each group the role of checker. The checker asks other group members to explain the reasoning and rationale underlying group answers.
- Having students teach what they learned to someone else" (p. 4).

**4. Interpersonal & Small-Group Skills (Social Skills Training):** According to Brown and Parker (2009), Social skills which must be taught include "Leadership, Decision-making, Trust-building, Communication and Conflict-management skills" (p. 509).

**5. Group Processing:** As Brown and Parker (2009) states, Every so often groups must assess their effectiveness and decide how it can be improved based on the steps described below:

- Group members discuss how well they are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships.
- Describe which member actions are helpful and not helpful
- Make decisions about what behaviors to continue or change (p. 510).

#### *Merits and Demerits of Cooperative Learning*

A number of researchers identified a positive general trend in research examining the effects of cooperative learning on student achievement (Johnson & Johnson, 1989, 1991; Johnson, Johnson, & Stanne, 1986; Ravenscroft, Buckless, McCombs, & Zuckerman, 1995; Sharan, 1980; Slavin, 1995). According to Sharan (1980) some of the benefits of cooperative learning are briefly mentioned hereunder:

- **Celebration of diversity.** Students learn to work with all types of people. During small-group interactions, they find many opportunities to reflect upon and reply to the diverse responses fellow learners bring to the questions raised.
- **Acknowledgment of individual differences.** When questions are raised, different students will have a variety of responses. Each of these can help the group create a product that reflects a wide range of perspectives and is thus more complete and comprehensive.
- **Actively involving students in learning.** Each member has opportunities to contribute in small groups.
- **More opportunities for personal feedback.** Because there are more exchanges among students in small groups, students receive more personal feedback about their ideas and responses. Though cooperative learning had been widely accepted and has many advantages, it was by no means a panacea that could solve all the educational problems. There were, like all other teaching methods, limitations in cooperative learning.

Most of the limitations of cooperative learning came from not being able to implement the cooperative structure carefully. If the teachers just put the students into groups to learn and didn't structure the positive interdependence and individual accountability, then it would not be unusual to find groups where one person did most (or all) of the work and the others signed off as if they had learned it or had done the work.

It was also considered time-consuming to teach materials in a cooperative way, although more students might have learned and retained better of the material. This might be true, especially in the beginning when cooperative learning was new to the teacher and to the students (Kagan, 1994).

#### *Competitive Goal Structures*

Competitive situations are ones in which students work against each other to achieve a goal that only one or a few can attain. In competition, students perceive that they can obtain their goals if and only if other students in the class fail to obtain their goals (Deutsch, 1962; Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

The competitive goal structures, according to Lin (1997), require the learners to act against each other in order to achieve the desired goal which is learning. This kind of goal structure invites the learners to compete against each other. It consequently leaves the participants with a win-lose situation.

Based on Walters (2000), since it is probable in the process of using competitive goal structures to ignore some students unintentionally, some factors are nice to be mentioned such as:

- Competition is better to be used for those learners who enjoy competing.
- Competition is better to be formed in a way that all students have the same chance of winning.
- It is better to teach them how to compete against themselves more than each other.
- Reward should be provided for the learners to encourage them in the process of learning (p.98).

#### *Merits and Demerits of competitive Learning*

Competition is not without its advocates, and several reasons for this are offered in the literature. First, competition may generate interest and excitement in topics or tasks that would otherwise be of limited interest to students. Team-based competitive approaches (e.g., class-wide games) may be especially effective at making instructional material more enjoyable and engaging.

Good and Brophy (2008) suggest that competitive classroom activities may be appropriate if all students have a chance to win, and when a team approach is used rather than individually based evaluations. These practices may reduce the likelihood that the same students are always the winners and losers, in which the losers become embarrassed and demoralized. Further, competition between groups (using a team-based approach) may increase cooperation within groups, as students are unified in working towards a common goal (i.e., outperforming the other teams).

Second, competitive approaches may be appropriate within the context of behavior management, such as when the teacher is attempting to

reduce disruptive behaviors and increase positive behaviors. For example, interventions such as the Good Behavior Game and its variations (Tingstrom, Sterling-Turner, & Wilczynski, 2006) use team-based competition to motivate students and modify their behaviors.

Third, some (e.g., Good & Brophy, 2008) argue that competition in the classroom will prepare students for competition in their lives beyond school (i.e., the workplace). The reasoning behind this argument is that if all classroom tasks are cooperative, students may become overly dependent on their classmates when completing academic tasks and may be unable to perform in competitive or individual contexts in the future.

Although competitive learning has some advantages it has its own demerits too. Good and Brophy (2008) summarize several ways in which classroom competition may negatively impact students' development, learning, and motivation. For example, if students become preoccupied with winning or losing the competitive activity, they may lose sight of important instructional objectives and content. From the student's perspective, performance takes precedence over learning.

Further, according to Good and Brophy (2008), inherent in the practice of competition is the necessity for someone to lose. If the same students lose over and over despite their best efforts, they may come to see the world as unfair and are likely to give up when faced with challenging academic tasks, as they have learned that failure will be the outcome no matter how hard they try to succeed.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To fulfill the purpose of the present study the following questions were raised:

- Q<sub>1</sub>. Is there any significant interaction between teaching technique and cognitive type in their effect on EFL learners' writing achievement?
- Q<sub>2</sub>. Is there any significant difference between the effect of cooperative and competitive learning on impulsive EFL learners' writing achievement?
- Q<sub>3</sub>. Is there any significant difference between the effect of cooperative and competitive learning on reflective EFL learners' writing achievement?
- Q<sub>4</sub>. Does cooperative learning have a significantly different effect on impulsive and reflective EFL learners' writing achievement?
- Q<sub>5</sub>. Does competitive learning have a significantly different effect on impulsive and reflective EFL learners' writing achievement?

## METHODOLOGY

In order to find appropriate answers to the posed questions, the researchers followed certain procedures and made use of certain instruments, which are reported in this section.

### *Participants*

To fulfill the objectives of this study, 120 female intermediate EFL learners with the age range of 15-25, studying in a language school of Tehran, Iran, participated in this research. These candidates were selected non-randomly from the total number of 185 students and among the learners whose scores on the Preliminary English Test (PET) fell one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the sample mean. It is worth mentioning that the sample PET was run to 30 students in the same language school with similar characteristics to the participants of this study first, and after doing item analyses and also calculating the reliability of the test, and excluding five malfunctioning items, PET was administered to the main candidates.

Also it is notable that in addition to one of the researchers, herself as a teacher and rater, another trained rater who was MA holder in TEFL with five years of teaching experience, participated in this research to correct and score the learners' writing and speaking based on the Akef and Hajhashemi (2012) rating scale for writing and predetermined official Cambridge General Mark Schemes for speaking.

### *Instrumentation*

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the researchers used the instructional materials and tests as described below.

Preliminary English Test (PET): This test is designed by Cambridge ESOL and is used as a proficiency test for selecting the intermediate sample among the whole participants. PET consists of three main sections: a 35-item reading comprehension test and an 8-item writing test in the first part (1 hour and 30 minutes), a 25-item listening comprehension test in the second part (35 minutes) and a speaking test consisting of four sections in the third part (10-12 minutes).

The Impulsivity sub-scale of Eysenck and Eysenck's Impulsiveness Questionnaire: Eysenck and Eysenck's (1991) Impulsiveness Questionnaire (EIQ) contains 54 items and assesses Impulsiveness (19 items), Venturesomeness (16 items) and Empathy (19 items). A standardized Persian impulsivity sub-scale of the questionnaire consisting of 19 likert scale items was used in this study. Salimi (2001) prepared a Persian version of this questionnaire, and its Impulsiveness sub-scale was validated with 1820 subjects from Tarbiat Modarres University of Iran. It is worth mentioning that the instrument reliability was estimated through Cronbach alpha to be as high as 0.8.

The range of Impulsiveness scores is from 19 to 95. The candidates who got scores from 60 to 95 were considered impulsive, and those who got scores from 19 to 40 were considered reflectives. It should be mentioned that scores from 41 to 59, which show medium impulsivity, were excluded from this study and the needed time for answering the questions of this questionnaire was 10 minutes.

Writing posttest: Part three of the writing section of a PET was used as the posttest of this study. This part contains two questions in which the learners were supposed to write about 200 words that were scored according to the rating scale described below. The needed time for answering the two questions of this part was approximately 45 minutes.

Writing rating scale: In order to rate all the writings used in this study, the researchers used *the Analytic rating scale* selected from what has been designed by Akef and Hajhashemi (2012, p. 243). This rating scale was applied to evaluate learners' general writing ability through assessing different aspects of written scripts such as fluency, structural accuracy, vocabulary (range and appropriateness of vocabulary choices), coherence, cohesion, relevance, organization, and mechanics of writing.

Speaking rating scale: The rating scale used to rate the oral proficiency of the subjects was the predetermined official Cambridge General Mark Schemes for speaking. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale including the range of scores from 0 to 5.

American English File student book 3: The main textbook in this study was "American English File" by Oxenden and Latham-Koenig (2011). This book consists of seven files and each of them is divided into three lessons of A, B, and C and contains different tasks and exercises for all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In this study, in each term, the first two chapters of this book were covered and covering each chapter lasted about seven sessions.

American English File workbook 3: American English File workbook by Oxenden and Latham-Koenig (2011), was also utilized in this study. According to the student book, work book has also seven files, including three lessons of A, B, and C. In this study the first two chapters of the workbook were covered during each term.

Oxford word skills book: Oxford Word Skills by Gairns and Redman (2008) was used in this research. Oxford Word Skills is a series of three books for students to learn, practice, and revise new vocabularies in basic, intermediate, and advanced level. Each book contains 80 units of vocabulary presentation and practice. In this study, eight units of this book were covered during one term in each class.

Story book: Oxford Bookworms Story books are the story-telling series used in this study. These books include original and adapted texts in seven carefully graded language stages, which take learners from beginner to advanced level. In this study, "Robinson Crusoe" story book by Defoe (1993) was used. This story book contains nine sub-titles, which the teacher and the learners usually worked on each section every two sessions.

#### **Procedure**

Before conducting this study, the researchers piloted the sample PET and after calculating the reliability of the test and running item analysis, the researchers omitted five items which were malfunctioning and again calculated the reliability of the test. Consequently, this time the test showed the acceptable reliability of 0.82.

As the treatments were conducted in two terms, the participant selection procedures were also done at the beginning of each term meaning that, in the first term, the researchers administered the already piloted PET to 95 intermediate EFL learners and 76 participants who scored one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the sample mean were chosen for the next step.

Afterward, the researchers conducted EIQ among the learners and thereby, selected 30 most impulsive and 30 most reflective learners from the 76 learners as the main candidates for the first phase of this study. All these candidates received the same treatment of cooperative learning during the term.

At the beginning of the second term, like the first term, the above procedures were conducted among 90 learners, 72 learners whose scores fell one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected, and finally after conducting EIQ, 30 most impulsive and 30 most reflective candidates were chosen as the main candidates of the second term and received the same treatment of competitive learning.

It is worth mentioning that in addition to check the homogeneity of the two groups' (cooperative and competitive) writing mean scores across the two terms through a *t*-test, the researchers ran another *t*-test on the mean scores of impulsives and reflectives on the writing part of the PET at the outset of each term to make sure that both of the groups of impulsives and reflectives were the same in their writing ability.

In the cooperative group, the students experienced being in different groups during one term, and even sometimes the group members were changed in one single session in order for the students to learn to work cooperatively with different individuals rather than a specific group. During the whole term, in the first phase, group work was encouraged while competitiveness was de-emphasized and the students had to do the exercises and drills cooperatively and in group.

Also, in the cooperative group, all the time, the students' activities in the groups and their interactions were under the teacher's supervision and the learners knew that they had to do their best in assisting and cooperating with other students, since the teacher considered positive marks for the students' assistance and cooperation in the groups. Immediately after this treatment, the first group of this study which was practicing English in a cooperative way underwent the writing posttest.

In the competitive classes, for some activities, the teacher divided the learners into the groups which included both impulsives and reflectives. These students knew that even if they were in groups, they would be assessed based on their individual efforts and outcomes. Comparing to the previous treatment, this treatment included less group works.

In the competitive group the teacher's instruction method did not change at all; instead, the way the students practiced every single part changed in comparison with the previous treatment. In all of the activities of the competitive classes, each student was only responsible for her own activities and assignments even if she worked in the group, or asked for assistance from her group members; also all the time and in the process of doing all the activities, the teacher encouraged the students to try to be the best one and compete against each other. Being "the best" required the students to be both quicker and more accurate in comparison with their classmates. Each time that the students succeeded to answer the questions accurately and before others, the teacher put a positive mark for them and these marks were counted at the end of the term and affected the total class participation marks of the learners.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of two different types of learning modalities, namely cooperative and competitive, on impulsive and reflective EFL learners' writing achievement. The design of this study was quasi experimental posttest only, since the selection of the participants was done non-randomly and the groups were intact ones. The dependent variable was EFL learners' writing while the independent variable was teaching modality having two levels of competitive and cooperative learning. The control variables were gender (female) and the language proficiency (intermediate), whereas the moderator variable was the cognitive style (impulsiveness/reflectiveness).

#### **Descriptive Statistics of the PET Piloting**

In order to select the participants required in this study, the researchers used a sample of the general English Proficiency Test (PET). Prior to the actual administration, the test was piloted among 30 students to make sure that it could be used confidently for this screening.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the PET Piloting

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratio
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
PET Piloting	30	48	72	60.87	6.771	-.064	.427	-0.149
Valid N (listwise)	30							

As the above table shows, the mean and standard deviation of the PET piloting scores were found to be 60.87 and 6.771, respectively.

As another step, since the writing and speaking parts of the proficiency piloting test were rated by two qualified raters, the researchers also conducted an inter-rater reliability on the scores given by the raters in this study to the 30 participants. The Pearson Product Correlation was run to make sure that the two raters enjoyed a significant degree of consistency in their scoring. Table 2 and Table 3 below show that the two raters demonstrated a significant correlation.

Table 2: Inter-Rater Reliability of the Two Raters for the Writing Part

	Rater 1	Rater 2
Rater 1		
Pearson Correlation	1	.735**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
N	30	30
Rater 2		
Pearson Correlation	.735**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
N	30	30

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

Table 3: Inter-Rater Reliability of the Two Raters for the Speaking Part

	Rater 1	Rater 2
Rater 1		
Pearson Correlation	1	.560**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.007
N	30	30
Rater 2		
Pearson Correlation	.560**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	
N	30	30

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

**Descriptive Statistics of the Cooperative Group's PET Scores**

As discussed earlier, prior to the selection of the participants, 95 students took a piloted PET at the outset of the first term from whom 60 were chosen for the two experimental groups of impulsives and reflectives undergoing the cooperative treatment. Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics of the scores related to the 95 students.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of the Scores Obtained by the 95 Students on the Piloted PET

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratio
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Pre-PET for the Cooperative Group	95	42	74	60.73	7.007	-.362	.247	-1.465
Valid N (listwise)	95							

Among the above 95 students, a total of 76 whose scores fell one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected. Next, the researchers administered the EIQ, through which she selected 30 most impulsive and 30 most reflective learners from the 76 participants as the main candidates of this study.

To make sure that these 30 impulsive and 30 reflective participants bore no significant difference in terms of the dependent variable of this study (i.e. writing) prior to the treatment, the researchers ran an independent samples t-test on the mean scores of the two groups on the writing part of the PET. The following table reports the result of the t-test.

Table 5: Independent Samples *t*-Test of the Impulsive and Reflective Participants in the Cooperative Group Prior to the Treatment

	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	.562	.465	-.372	58	.711	-.266	.717	-1.70202	1.168
Equal variances not assumed			-.372	57.351	.711	-.266	.717	-1.70237	1.169

According to Table 5, with the *F* value of 0.562 at the sig value of 0.465 being larger than 0.05, the variances of the two groups were not significantly different. Therefore, the results of the *t*-test with the assumption of homogeneity of the variances were reported here. As the results indicate ( $t = -0.372, p = 0.711 > 0.05$ ), there was no significant difference between impulsive and reflective learners' writing pretest scores. Therefore, the researchers could rest assured that any probable difference between the two groups at the end of the study could be attributed to the effect of the independent variable(s).

**Descriptive Statistics of the Competitive Group's PET Scores**

The procedure of participant selection for the competitive group was identical to that of the cooperative group. In this phase, a total number of 90 students took the same piloted PET. Table 6 below displays the descriptive statistics of the scores for these 90 students.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the Scores Obtained by the 90 Students on the Piloted PET

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratio
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Pre-PET for the Competitive Group	90	44	77	60.89	6.666	-.167	.254	-.657
Valid N (listwise)	90							

Among the above 90 students, a total of 72 whose scores fell one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. Again, the researchers administered the EIQ through which 30 most impulsive and 30 most reflective participants were identified within this sample of 72.

Again, to make sure that these 30 impulsive and 30 reflective participants bore no significant difference in terms of the dependent variable of this study (i.e. writing) prior to the treatment, the researchers ran an independent samples *t*-test on the mean scores of the two groups on the mean scores of the two groups on the writing part of the PET. The following table reports the result of the *t*-test.

Table 7: Independent Samples *t*-Test of the Impulsive and Reflective Participants in the Competitive Group Prior to the Treatment

	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	2.827	.098	.128	58	.898	.100	.780	-1.46162	1.66162
Equal variances not assumed			.128	56.268	.898	.100	.780	-1.46265	1.66265

According to Table 7, with the *F* value of 2.827 at the significant level of 0.098 being larger than 0.05, the variances of the two groups were not significantly different. Therefore, the results of the *t*-test with the assumption of homogeneity of the variances were reported here. As the results indicate ( $t = 0.128, p = 0.898 > 0.05$ ), there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups' writing prior to the treatment.

Therefore, the researchers could rest assured that any probable difference between the two groups at the end of the study could be attributed to the interaction of the relevant independent variables of the competitive learning or the cognitive type (being impulsive or reflective). Moreover, to show that the writing abilities of the two groups (cooperative and competitive) were the same, prior to the second term treatment, the researchers ran an independent samples *t*-test on the mean scores of the two groups on the writing part of the PET.

Table 8: Independent Samples t-Test of the Cooperative and Competitive Groups Prior to the Treatment

	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	.377	.540	-.150	118	.881	-.083	.555	-1.183	1.016
Equal variances not assumed			-.150	117.56	.881	-.083	.555	-1.183	1.017

According to Table 8, with the *F* value of 0.377 at the sig value of 0.540 being larger than 0.05, the variances of the two groups were not significantly different. Therefore, the results of the *t*-test with the assumption of homogeneity of the variances were reported here. As the results indicate ( $t = -0.150, p = 0.881 > 0.05$ ), two groups of cooperatives and competitiveness were not significantly different regarding their writing skill. Therefore, the researchers could rest assured that any probable difference between the two groups at the end of the study could be attributed to the effect of the independent variable(s).

**Posttest**

Once the treatment in each group was over, the posttest (a writing part of a PET as described in the previous chapter) was conducted. As there were two independent variables of teaching technique (cooperative and competitive) and cognitive type (impulsive and reflective), and one dependent variable (writing) in this study, a two-way ANOVA was needed for the posttest analysis. But firstly the assumptions of normality, and homogeneity of variances were met. The following table shows the descriptive statistics of the posttest scores belonging to the four subgroups.

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of All Four Subgroups on the PET Writing Posttest

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratio
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Reflective Cooperative	30	26	32	29.166	1.599	.034	.427	.08
Impulsive Cooperative	30	25	31	28.000	1.553	.177	.427	.42
Reflective Competitive	30	23	29	26.566	1.381	-.400	.427	.94
Impulsive Competitive	30	19	28	23.466	1.833	.291	.427	.69
Valid N (listwise)	30							

According to Table 9, all the distributions were normal as the skewness ratios of all the sets of scores fell within the normality range of  $\pm 1.96$ . Hence, the first assumption is met. The following figures depict the distribution of the scores. The next assumption was checking the homogeneity of variances. In this regard the Levene's test of equality of error variances was conducted. The following table shows the result of the Levene's test.

Table 10: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.719	3	116	.542

As Table 10 demonstrates, the variance of the dependent variable across the groups is equal ( $F = 0.71, p = 0.54 > 0.05$ ), hence, homogeneity of variances as the second assumption is also met. Accordingly, in order to test the hypotheses, running a two-way ANOVA was legitimized. The following table shows the result of the two-way ANOVA.

Table 11: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	546.200 <sup>a</sup>	3	182.067	71.110	.000	.648
Intercept	86188.800	1	86188.800	33662.966	.000	.997
Cognitive Technique	136.533	1	136.533	53.326	.000	.315
Cognitive * Technique	381.633	1	381.633	149.055	.000	.562
Error	28.033	1	28.033	10.949	.001	.086
Error	297.000	116	2.560			
Total	87032.000	120				
Corrected Total	843.200	119				

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Cognitive * Technique	28.033	1	28.033	10.949	.001	.086
Error	297.000	116	2.560			
Total	87032.000	120				
Corrected Total	843.200	119				

a. R Squared = .648 (Adjusted R Squared = .639)

Dependent Variable: writing scores

As shown above, the interaction between the two independent variables was significant ( $F = 10.94, p = 0.001 < 0.05$ ); therefore, the first null hypothesis stating that *there is no significant interaction between teaching technique and cognitive type in their effect on EFL learners' writing achievement* is rejected. This implies that there is a significant difference in the effect of teaching techniques for impulsive and reflective learners. In other words, the effect of the teaching techniques depends on being reflective or impulsive.

By virtue of this interaction and the main effect of technique, as shown in the fourth row of the above table ( $F = 149.05, p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ), the second hypothesis stating that *there is no significant difference between the effect of cooperative and competitive learning on impulsive EFL learners' writing achievement* is also rejected. Table 9 above depicts that the impulsive learners who received cooperative teaching technique outperformed those impulsive learners who received competitive learning practice (28.00 vs. 23.46 respectively). The last column of Table 11 above shows the effect size. (Partial Eta Squared) which has turned out to be 0.56. Expressed in percentage, 56 percent of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable. Using Cohen's (1988) criterion, this can be classified as large effect size (1%=small, 6%=medium, 13.8=large). The conclusion is that cooperative technique was significantly more effective for impulsive learners.

Likewise, as the teaching technique main effect turned out to be significant, the third hypothesis stating that *there is no significant difference between the effect of cooperative and competitive learning on reflective EFL learners' writing achievement* is rejected. By retrospect to table 9 above, it can be concluded that cooperative technique has been significantly more effective on reflective learners compared with competitive technique as the reflective learners who were exposed to the former outperformed those who were exposed to the latter (29.16 vs. 26.56 respectively). The effect size also is large based on the observed Partial Eta Squared value (0.56).

As Table 11, the third row exhibits, the main effect of cognitive type was significant ( $F = 53.32, p = 0.000 < 0.05$ ) too. This leads to the rejection of the fourth hypothesis stating that *Cooperative learning does not have a significantly different effect on impulsive and reflective EFL learners' writing achievement*. By comparing the writing mean scores of the two groups, impulsive cooperative versus reflective cooperative (28.00 vs. 29.16 respectively), it is concluded that between the two cognitive types who received cooperative teaching technique, reflective learners performed significantly better in the writing posttest. The effect size, (Partial Eta Squared) has turned out to be 0.315. In other words, 31.5 percent of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable. Using Cohen's (1988) criterion, this can be classified as large effect size.

By the same token (the significance of the cognitive main effect), the fifth hypothesis stating that *competitive learning does not have a significantly different effect on impulsive and reflective EFL learners' writing achievement* is rejected. Table 9 above shows that competitive technique was significantly more effective on reflective learners' writing compared with the impulsive learners (26.56 vs. 23.46). The effect size, (Partial Eta Squared) has turned out to be 0.315. In other words, 31.5 percent of the variation in the dependent variable writing scores) is explained by the independent variable (cognitive type), which is a large effect size according to Cohen's (1988) criterion.

## CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to investigate the effect of two different types of learning modalities, namely, cooperative and competitive learning on impulsive and reflective EFL learners' writing. Based on the data analyses, the researchers found that the interaction between the two independent variables was significant and cognitive style of reflectivity/impulsivity interacted significantly with the two modalities of learning. It can be concluded that, the effect of the teaching technique depends on the cognitive style of the learners. However, it was also revealed that each of the independent variables alone was significantly effective on writing ability of the learners.

Regarding modality of teaching, specifically, cooperative learning technique was shown to be more effective both on reflective and impulsive learners compared with competitive technique. In other words, both reflective and impulsive learners benefited more from cooperative technique than from competitive technique.

This result is supported by previous researches in the literature; many studies generally portray the higher effectiveness of cooperative learning (Deutsch, Coleman, & Marcus, 2006; Johnson, Johnson, & Stanne, 2000; Norman, 2005) and also certain studies in the context of Iran (e.g. Marashi & Baygzadeh, 2010) showed that cooperative learning led to better results (albeit the personality factor was not included and the dependent variable was overall achievement and not just one language skill).

On the other hand, in contrast with the result of this study, some other researches prove the advantages of competitive learning and claim that competition, in an educational setting, will improve academic achievement in students, motivating them to perform to the best of their ability and leads to better results than cooperation (Hayes, 1976; Michaels, 1978).

As for the cognitive style, it was shown that reflective learners performed better both in cooperative and in competitive techniques; this result is in agreement with some other researches about R/I cognitive style. In a little different research, inductive reasoning was discovered

to be more effective with reflective persons (Kagan, Pearson, & Welch, 1966), suggesting that generally reflective persons could benefit more from inductive learning situations. In another study, Katz (1980) found that reflectives are more attentive and have better short-term auditory and visual memory in different tasks.

#### Limitation of the study

Like any other studies, this study also faced a limitation. The rules and restrictions which exist in some language schools in Iran, did not allow the researcher/teacher, herself being a female, to have male learners in her classes. Hence, the result of this research cannot be necessarily generalized to male EFL learners.

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**THE EFFECT OF FORM-FOCUSED INSTRUCTION (FFI) ON TEACHING ENGLISH GRAMMAR TO IRANIAN LEARNERS AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL**

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**ABSTRACT**

The present study investigated the effects of form-focused instruction (FFI) on teaching English grammar to Iranian learners at the intermediate level. The design of the study was a pre and post-test which dealt with 40 participants at the intermediate level and comprised of two experimental groups. The pre-test on grammatical patterns was administered to assess the participants' knowledge on the patterns in the passages at the beginning of the course. Then they were taught through implicit and explicit Form-focused instruction (FFI) developed by R. Ellis (2004) and Spada and Lightbown (2008). Each group included 20 participants. The implicit FFI group received grammatical pattern instruction through indirect instruction which focused on the use of grammatical patterns in the contexts and reading passages discussion. The explicit FFI group received instructions on how to use the structural patterns and immediate feedback coming from the peers and the teacher in the classroom. The treatment took 10 sessions and ended in a post-test stage to evaluate the course effectiveness. Data were analyzed through Independent Samples *t*-test and results showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups. In other words, the explicit FFI group outperformed the implicit FFI one. Implications of the study for teachers who practice English grammar could be the use of explicit instruction on forms and then put them into practice contextually.

**KEYWORDS:** Form-focused instruction (FFI), English grammar, implicit, explicit

**INTRODUCTION**

It is generally agreed that some attention to grammatical form is fruitful, perhaps necessary, but many issues related to the teaching of grammar still need further research and more treatment. One of the most recent trends in applied linguistics is centered on the most effective forms of grammar teaching in the communicative classroom (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown, 1998). For many years, there was a dichotomy between Focus on Form (Long, 1991) in teaching grammatical structures of a language. Taken these concerns into account, in recent years much has been written, on both theoretical and empirical aspects of the form-focused instruction in second language learning and foreign language learning contexts.

Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) found that learners who engaged in communicative, focus-on-form activities improved their grammatical accuracy and their use of new forms. On the acquisition of a particular form through form-focused instruction, noticing, Celce-Murcia (2001, pp. 272-273) explains that through repeated conscious encounters with a particular form the learners' consciousness is raised. This helps the learners to notice that forming late activities and form and restructure her hypotheses about that, form, and this leads to its acquisition. Focus on form, in part, shows the inefficiency of the current communicative approaches in teaching a language. Celce-Murcia (2001) noted, "considerable research shows that when students receive only communicative lessons, with instruction on grammar points, their level of accuracy suffers" (p. 268). This, in part, shows the significance of grammar and the focus on it. Furthermore, Larsen-Freeman (cited in Brown, 2001) said, "grammar is one of the dimensions of language that are interconnected. Grammar gives the forms or the structures of language but those forms are literally meaningless without a second dimension that of semantics, and a third dimension, pragmatics" (p. 362).

Explicit FFI in instructing grammar means presenting and explaining a predetermined set of grammar rules, usually but not necessarily followed by practice during the teaching period immediately while implicit FFI deal with the correction feedback within the context without direct notice to FFI in a direct corrective feedback mode. The terms implicit and explicit FFIs may be used similarly to Spada and Lightbown's (2008) isolated and integrative FFIs.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Another category is focus on forms versus focus on form. In focus on forms, we teach language features based on a structural syllabus specifying the features to be taught and their sequence. Activities used in this criterion are mostly grammar translations, mimicry, or memorization. Focus on form, on the other hand, is in the instruction whose main emphasis remains on communicative activities or tasks, yet in these activities the teacher intervenes to make students more accurate in language use whenever needed.

The categories focused on this study are implicit FFI versus integrated FFI. Implicit FFI is provided in activities that are separated from the communicative use of language, but it occurs as part of a program that also includes CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) and CBI (Content Based Instruction). In explicit FFI learners' attention is drawn to language form during communicative or content-based instruction.

In English language teaching there has always been an argument among many scholars on the best and effective way to teach grammar. To date, many different methods and approaches have come into and gone out of existence. It is commonly assumed that grammar knowledge is consisted of two types: explicit and implicit knowledge. According to N. Ellis (2005), these two types of knowledge are distinct and exist in separate parts of the brain. Further, R. Ellis (2006) lists seven criteria that can be used to distinguish between explicit and implicit grammar knowledge. These criteria include, among others: level of awareness, accessibility and whether learners can verbalize the knowledge. The distinction between explicit and implicit needs to be considered in relation to another common distinction- isolated versus integrative FFI (Lightbown & Spada, 1990).

Recently, a plethora of studies and reviews on second language acquisition (SLA) research have shown that focus on form instruction (FFI) has potential for learners and develop learners' awareness of target language (Spada, 2006). Long (1991) distinguished "focus on forms" and "focus on form" instruction. Focus-on-forms is evident in the traditional approach to grammar teaching based on a synthetic syllabus. The underlying assumption is that language learning is a process of accumulating distinct entities. In such an approach, learners are required to treat language primarily as an "object" to be studied and practiced bit by bit and to function as "students" rather than as "users" of the

language (Ellis, 2006). In contrast, focus-on-form “draws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication” (Long, 1991, pp. 45-46). According to Long and Robinson (1998), such an approach is to be distinguished not only focus-on-form but also form focus-on-meaning, where there is no attempt to induce attention to induce attention to linguistic form at all. Implicit explicit FFI are differentiated in terms of a number of characteristics. Ellis (2010) presents these characteristics in Table 1 as follows.

*Table 1: Implicit and explicit forms of form-focused instruction*

<i>Implicit FFI</i>	<i>Explicit FFI</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• attracts attention to target form</li> <li>• is delivered <i>spontaneously</i> (e.g., in an otherwise communication-oriented activity)</li> <li>• is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning)</li> <li>• presents target forms in context</li> <li>• makes no use of metalanguage</li> <li>• encourages free use of the target form</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• directs attention to target form</li> <li>• is <i>predetermined</i> and <i>planned</i> (e.g., as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity)</li> <li>• is obtrusive (interruption of communication meaning)</li> <li>• present target forms in isolation</li> <li>• uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g., rule explanation)</li> <li>• involves controlled practice of target form</li> </ul>

Focus on form can be either explicit or implicit methods use it in line with their principles. In fact, explicitness and implicitness can be put at the two ends of a continuum with differing degrees along it some of the techniques that are usually used to focus on form in class: “recast”, “input enhancement”, and “consciousness raising task”. In recast, “the teacher reformulates what the student has said or written incorrectly in a more accurate, meaningful, or appropriate manner” (Celce-Murcia, 2001, p. 257). In this way, the learner is more likely to notice a particular form. Consciousness-raising task refers to the learners’ induction of a grammatical generalization from the examples data she has been given. According to Lyster (1998, p.187), among the techniques that focus on form, explicit techniques are more useful and productive. Karbalaei, Pourzargham and Kazemi (2013) studied the role of form focused instructions and noted that focus on form instruction through visual medium enhances grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. This instruction provides English as foreign language (EFL) learners with input enhancement as a technique to promote EFL reading proficiency.

Instructors can encourage learners to focus on form in several ways. Ellis (2001a) has distinguished two types within the category of “focus on form” and “focus on forms”. The distinction is Planned and Incidental. Focus on form may be planned and focused on pre-selected structures, or it may be incidental, arising spontaneously at any point in a communicative activity. Advocates of incidental FonF assume that classroom activity is based on communicative tasks and that attention to form should be paid only when grammatical difficulties arise which lead to (or are anticipated to lead to) a communicative breakdown (Barnard & Scampton, 2008). Planned FonF, on the other hand, involves the treatment of predetermined grammatical features, but differs from FonFs because it occurs when the learners’ attention is primarily engaged in processing meaning (Barnard & Scampton, 2008). Various empirical studies investigating FonF in some English as a Second Language context have been recently conducted, notably by Ellis and his associates (Ellis, 2001a and b; Ellis 2002, Karbalaei, Pourzargham & Kazemi, 2013). Moreover, FonF appears to be consistent with current Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories.

Teachers might design a task to encourage learners to notice forms in the input (e.g., prepositions of location such as in, on, under), or they might explicitly teach these forms and provide opportunities for meaningful practice. Focus on form may be reactive, including explicit corrections to student language, recasts, clarification requests, and other types of feedback. Focus on form is most frequently teacher-initiated, but it is also initiated by learners through questions and requests for explanation. Although second language acquisition research has not definitively answered many important questions regarding form-focused instruction, studies (e.g., Karbalaei, Pourzargham & Kazemi, 2013) have provided promising evidence that focus on form is correlated with more acquisition of new grammar and vocabulary than non-form-focused approaches.

**Teaching Grammar**

The topic of grammar teaching continues to be a controversial matter in the field of Applied Linguistics and SLA and teachers often take opposing views. On the other hand, the debate on the place of grammar in instruction has played a prominent part in the history of English language teaching. This debate revolved around the question of whether grammar instruction helped learners acquire proficiency in second language acquisition. Further, the study of how learners acquire a second language has helped us shape thinking about how to teach the grammar of a second language (Ellis, 2006). There are many answers to this question which could be placed along a continuum with extremes at either end. At one end are highly explicit approaches to grammar teaching, and at the other end lies implicit approaches that avoid mention of form. N. Ellis (2005) suggests that traditional grammar teaching is viewed as the presentation and practice of discrete grammatical structures. This is, according to him, the view promulgated in teacher handbooks. It contributed to learning but this was of limited value regarding development of communicative ability and fluency (Long, 1991). According to Nassaji and Fotos (2004), for the reevaluation of grammar, FFI is a necessary component of language instruction. It provides EFL/ESL learners with enough positive feedback coming from EFL/ESL teachers and peers. Moreover, the evidence comes from a large number of laboratory and classroom-based studies as well as extensive reviews of studies (e.g., R. Ellis, 2006) on the effects of instruction over the past 20 years.

**Form-Focused Instruction (FFI)**

The term “form” is used to refer to structural aspects of language, which includes phonological, lexical, grammatical and pragmalinguistic aspects of language (Ellis, 2001, p. 1). The meaning of the term “focus on form” is best understood when compared to and contrasted with that of the terms “focus on forms” and “form-focused instruction”. The treatment of grammar in second language teaching has received much attention over the years. In earlier approaches to second language teaching, such as the Grammar Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method, the Silent Way and Total Physical Response (TPR), syllabuses were designed around target language grammatical structures, lexis, and functions and notions. In these approaches grammar was typically taught overtly and often separately from meaning (Long & Robinson, 1998, pp. 15-16). This treatment of grammatical structure is known as focus on forms (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 3). In more recent approaches to second language teaching, such as Task-based Language Teaching, grammar is treated more covertly and is not taught separate from meaning. This treatment of grammatical form is known as focus on form, and is defined by Long and Robinson (1998, p. 23) as “...an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features-by the teacher and/or one or more students- triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production”. Doughty and Williams (1998, p. 211) points out that focus on forms and focus on

form are "not polar opposites". She further stresses that "focus on form entails a focus on formal elements of language, whereas focus on forms is limited to such a focus ...". Doughty and Williams (1998, p. 3) emphasize that the crucial distinction between focus on forms and focus on form is that "focus on form entails a prerequisite engagement in meaning before attention to linguistic features can be expected to be effective".

A further distinction is pointed out by Ellis (2001, p. 15) who states that with focus on form the attention to form must be "brief and unobtrusive". The term 'form-focused instruction' (FFI) is used by some authors as an umbrella term which includes both focus on form and focus on forms. Ellis (2001, p. 2) states that form-focused instruction is a cover term for terms such as "analytic teaching", 'focus on form', 'focus on forms', 'corrective feedback/error correction' and 'negotiation of form'. Ellis (2001, p. 1) defines form-focused instruction as "any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form". Klapper and Rees (2003, p. 287) cite a definition in which form-focused instruction is defined as "... any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form, either implicitly or explicitly". Doughty and Williams (1998, p. 4) point out that the term 'form-focused instruction' is also frequently used in literature to refer to instruction which is in fact focus on forms. They emphasize that "form-focused instruction" encompasses both focus on forms and focus on form.

A fundamental feature of focus on form is that at the time when learners' attention is focused on a linguistic form, they must already be familiar with the meaning and the appropriate usage of that form. If information about meaning and usage are lacking, the attention to form would be considered focus on forms. Ellis (2002, p. 420) use the term "form-based instruction" but do not offer a definition for this term. Based on their discussion of different kinds of treatment on forms in second language teaching, it is however assumed that they use this term to be similar in meaning to 'form-focused instruction'. Doughty and Williams (1998) define "focus on form", "focus on forms" and 'form focused instruction' schematically as follows: Sheen (2005) proposes that there is a fundamental difference between focus on form and focus on forms, as far as the theoretical underpinnings of these two approaches are concerned. According to Sheen, focus on forms is based on the assumption that when learners learn a second language in a classroom situation they are learning a skill, and that they are utilizing general cognitive processes to do so. As a skills-learning activity, the focus of forms approach is seen to take place in three stages:

- Learners are brought to understand the grammar, by means of overt grammar explanation, which often includes explanation in the first language and a comparison of the first and target language structures;
- Non-communicative and communicative exercises in which the targeted grammatical forms can be practiced;
- Learners are provided with plentiful opportunities for communication, in which they can use the targeted grammatical constructions, so that the use will eventually become automatic and accurate (Sheen, 2005, p. 304).

By contrast, focus on form, according to Sheen (2005, p. 303), derives from the assumption that first and second language acquisition are to a certain extent similar processes. Both these processes are seen to utilize "exposure to comprehensible input arising from natural interaction". Focus on form is, however, also based on the realization that there are significant differences between first and second language acquisition. Typically, learners' exposure to the target language is insufficient for them to acquire the grammar, and in order to make up for this lack of exposure learners' attention needs to be focused on structural elements of the target language, i.e. there needs to be some focus on form (Sheen, 2005). The above definitions and accompanying discussion of the terms "focus on form", "focus on forms" and "form-focused instruction" were presented in an attempt to point out all possible distinctions between these terms. It is important to note, however, that these distinctions are theoretical distinctions, and that the two approaches are not mutually exclusive in practice. Although it is important from a course design perspective to distinguish between focus on form and focus on forms, and to design materials and classroom methodology according to decisions informed by theory about how attention to linguistic form should catered for, both focus on form and focus on forms could be used in the same course and in the materials designed for it. As stated above, the two terms do not represent polar opposites, but should rather be seen as lying along a continuum.

In another investigation, Ellis (2002) investigated the effectiveness of FFI on learners' free production of target language (TL) and conducted the survey aimed to discover the role of FFI in developing learners' implicit knowledge of target language. He also concluded that effects of FFI were durable. Klapper and Rees (2003) also performed a longitudinal study about the effectiveness of FFI, lasting four years, involving two groups of whose second language was German. One group received focus on forms while the other received focus on form. At the end, the group receiving focus on forms was proved to gain greater proficiency. They concluded that there is still a role for formal (declarative) knowledge of language in contexts where naturalistic input is limited. Lyster (2004) also conducted a comparative analysis of five quasi-experimental studies on the effects of FFI on 49 French immersion classes in Canada, about the effects of FFI on some problematic features of French for English learners (Perfect and past tenses, the conditional, second-person pronouns and grammatical gender.) Overall FFI proves to be useful in learners' improvements. This shows that in cases where the target structure is non-existent in L1 explicit instruction may be very helpful. It is important to know that interpretation of FFI findings should be done cautiously. The reason is that findings are difficult to compare and often contradictory since there are many variables involved. Important factors in succeeding FFI are learners' developmental stage, the structure(s) to be taught, the instructional context and the material. This technique is not based on longitudinal research and the effects of input and output is not measured using automatically produced language and therefore they are not reliable. Also strange methods are used which seem to draw learners' attention deliberately to some forms and make them use them. Also some parallel factors, like the use of computer could facilitate results.

#### ***Implicit versus Explicit FFI***

Originally, the notions of isolated and integrated form focus instruction (FFI) introduced by Spada and Lightbown (2008) who have chosen to use the terms isolated and integrated to describe two approaches to drawing learners' attention to language form in L2 instruction. Accordingly, isolated FFI is provided in activities that are separate from the communicative use of language, but it occurs as part of a program that also includes communicative language teaching (CLT) and/or content based Instruction (CBI). In addition, isolated FFI may be taught in preparation for a communicative activity or after an activity in which students have experienced difficulty with a particular language feature (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). They state that in isolated FFI, the focus on language form is separated from the communicative or content-based activity. This approach differs from Long's focus on forms, which refers to language instruction and practice organized around predetermined points of grammar in a structural syllabus, that is, form-based instruction that is not directly tied to genuinely communicative practice. On the other hand, in integrated FFI, the learners' attention is drawn to language form during communicative or content-based instruction. This definition corresponds to focus on form (both planned and incidental) which is called by Ellis (2002) and by Doughty and Williams (1998). That is, although the form focus occurs within a communicative activity, the language features in focus may have been anticipated and planned for by the teacher or they may occur incidentally in the course of ongoing interaction.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**

This study was to investigate whether there was any difference between implicit and explicit FFI in teaching grammar to Iranian intermediate English as a foreign language (EFL) learners.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The participants were 40 adult male students, studying EFL at Iran Language Institute (ILI). Their age was ranging between 19 and 25, on average. Initially, the samples were chosen out of 100 students who were willing to take part in the research. They were given Nelson's proficiency test (Fowler & Coe, 1975) and those whose scores were one standard deviation above or below the mean were considered as the participants of the study. The participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups as isolated FFI group and integrated FFI group.

**Materials**

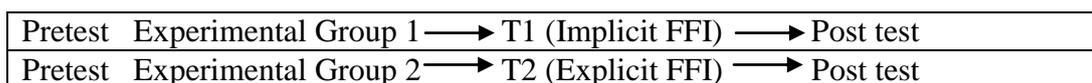
For this study, the text book entitled, "Active Reading 2" developed by Anderson (2007) was selected. The researchers' main criteria for choosing this material was that the text book is designed for the students at the intermediate level and its units included passages on grammatical points. The passages were taught to focus on their structural patterns through FFI.

**Instrumentation**

To have a homogeneous research sample, the researchers used a piloting Nelson's proficiency test (Fowler & Coe, 1975). It included 50 multiple choice items on grammatical patterns at the intermediate level. Its reliability index was calculated through KR-21 formula as ( $r=0.964$ ). The pre and the post-tests of this study were the same. This test was a 40-multiple choice items which cover grammatical patterns of the passages. Its reliability index was calculated through KR-21 formula as ( $r=0.865$ ). The content of the test included the structures chosen to be taught based on implicit and explicit FFI. Most of these structures were subordinate clauses like adjective clauses and noun clauses. Other structures such as subject-verb agreement and tenses were also incorporated in the treatment period.

**Procedure**

The nature of this study is a causal comparative one. Both comparison-contrast and experimental researches are done. The main purpose of this study is to find out whether isolated FFI or integrated FFI have any effect on grammar proficiency of intermediate Iranian EFL learners and if yes, which one of them is more effective. The diagram of the procedure is as follows:



*Figure 1: The Design of the Study*

In order to collect data from the participants, students of the two experimental groups took a general English proficiency test (Nelson 050 D) as a pre-test at the outset of the experiment in order to ascertain their homogeneity. A pre-test was administered and fifty language learners were selected based on their scores which were within the range of Standard Deviation (SD) around the mean or not. The language learners whose scores were within the following range were selected. The forty participants were categorized into two twenty person groups. In order to make these two groups homogeneous, they were chosen so that the frequency of each of their mark is the same or almost the same. The grammar teaching in the two classes differed according to Isolated and Integrated FFIs.

In implicit FFI class, first the researchers and participants discussed the main ideas and the content of each unit; then they went through the formal structures and grammatical rules. During this task, the researchers did not correct their errors. After the task, the researchers focused on the forms in which learners had problem to use and the forms they did not use at all. In this case the forms in the pre-test which they did not use at all. Their errors were reviewed, given explanations. And the other desired forms, the pre-test forms that learners did not use, were explained briefly and given examples. These techniques were based on Ellis (2006) recommendations.

In explicit FFI class, the learners' opinions regarding the topic were asked and discussed, just like the Isolated FFI one. However, FFI was performed during the task. While performing the activity, the researchers stopped the communication for a little while and introduced the structure and asked learners to use it. If they made errors in the use, the researchers corrected those using implicit recasts and/or some brief explanation of the rule. Nevertheless, the researchers made sure that grammar teaching does not hinder communicative activity for too long. The instruction lasted for 10 sessions in 5 weeks. After that both groups were given the post-test which was exactly a modified pre-test for determining the research hypotheses.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Results**

The descriptive statistics of the two experimental groups who were studying grammar through implicit and explicit FFI are presented in Table 2.

*Table 2: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)*

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Implicit FFI	20 14.1000		3.07622	.68786	
Explicit FFI	20 14.4000		2.92719	.65454	

Table 2 shows both implicit and explicit FFI groups gain homogeneous scores in taking grammar test at the pre-test stage. Since the mean of the scores cannot indicate the significant difference between the implicit and explicit FFI groups, Independent Samples *t*-test was run to clarify actual differences. Results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Independent Samples *t*-test (Pre-test)

Groups	df	<i>t</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Implicit FFI vs. Explicit FFI	38	-.316	.754	-.30000	.94952

Table 3 shows that there is not a significant difference between the implicit and explicit FFI groups since observed *t* ( $t_o = .316$ ) which is less than the critical *t* ( $t_c = 2.042$ ) with  $df = 38$ .

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics (Post-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Implicit FFI	20	15.1500	3.57292	.79893
Explicit FFI	20	17.4500	2.45967	.55000

Table 4 shows both implicit and explicit FFI groups gain different scores in taking grammar test at the post-test stage. Independent Samples *t*-test was used to measure the significant differences.

Table 5: Independent Samples *t*-test (Post-test)

Groups	df	<i>t</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Implicit FFI vs. Explicit FFI	38	2.371	.023	2.30000	.96994

Table 5 indicates that there is a significant difference between the implicit and explicit FFI groups since observed *t* ( $t_o = 2.371$ ) which is greater than the critical *t* ( $t_c = 2.042$ ) with  $df = 38$ .

### Discussion

Although both experimental groups of implicit and explicit FFI who received the same material and time of instruction, the results showed that the explicit group taught through FFI on grammatical patterns outperformed the implicit group receive FFI in indirect way. The result of the present study are matched with Spada and Lightbown (2008) and Karbalaee, Pourzargham and Kazemi (2013) who emphasized that explicit and integrative FFI are more effective than implicit or isolated FFI. They noted that FFI may learners to focus on communicative or content-based instruction of the target language that they may not acquire without guidance. Thus both activities either implicit or explicit are helpful; however, the role of explicit FFI may show the role of instruction that is provided in clear step by step activities followed by both the teacher and learners in the context of communicative activities.

The results of the present study shows that form-focused instruction (FFI) approach and especially explicit modality has been more effective than implicit FFI. This is matched with the results of several studies (e.g., Doughty & Williams, 1998). The findings of this study may be important in the area of second language acquisition that supports the need for pedagogical interventions in order to push L2 learners towards higher levels of proficiency (Ellis, 2006). Generally speaking, FFI includes the ones with incorrect usage, and the ones with incorrect usage, and the ones not used during the task performance but considered useful and natural to use in the selected task. He also states that whether focusing one form intensively or more than one form extensively is a crucial decision in this criterion (Ellis, 2006). MEQ (2002) introduces the task, the program, and students as sources of forms to focus on. Students' immediate needs and their order of acquisition are of utmost importance in choosing the forms to focus on. Also the programs of elementary, intermediate, and advanced learners in courses play a vital role here. In the case of errors, teachers can gather necessary data from learners and plan FFI based on errors they make. Questions regarding grammar should be answered since they reckon awareness and interest in English. Norris and Ortega (2000)'s study is one of the most important studies performed in this area. By comparing the results of forty nine studies to investigate the effectiveness of SL instruction performed between 1980-1988, they tried to figure out which categorization of FFI is more helpful and whether the FFI effects are durable or not. They found out that both focus on forms and focus on form were effective, there is no significant difference between their effectiveness and that explicit attention to grammar structures were more effective than the implicit one and that explicit attention was more effective in focus on forms. Also they found out that FFI effects are durable.

### CONCLUSION

Since the explicit FFI group outperformed the implicit FFI group, we may conclude that explicit FFI holds a wide range of classroom feedback that occurs as the need or opportunity arises, as well as the kind of planned interaction that requires the repeated, but natural, use of a particular language form (Spada & Lightbown, 2008). These activities are focusing of forms in the context of situation to provide enough feedback coming from both teachers and learners on the correction of ill-formed structures, especially, according to Spada and Lightbown (2008) "those for which there is a misleading similarity to the first language (L1), and those that are unlikely to cause communication breakdown" (p. 181).

In sum, the contribution of the present study is two-fold. Firstly, teaching grammar is a conscious activity with clear guidance and pattern practice in a context which is clarified and modified by the teacher. Secondly, the grammatical activities should be put in practice in a

meaningful and contextual manner. Thus the EFL learners learn sentence structures and then they use them in a real context created by the teacher or other peers. Feedback could be provided from three sources to check the correctness of the processes. First from the peers, then from the materials reviewed in the classroom, and finally by the teachers. Teachers should not involve in the process of learning to take the time of the class. They just facilitate the process with a minimum intervening. Teaching grammar through FFI may be a great help to the teachers in EFL contexts. Since in EFL contexts such as Iran language exposure outside the classroom is rare and the learners have to learn formal structures in the classroom and use it in their conversational activities just for pedagogical purposes. Further researches may focus on various areas of teaching language skills such as reading, listening and speaking. This study dealt with male participants; however, females could be participated in the future research to have a comparative study on FFI. The main limitations of the present research were that the small size of the population since the results could be more reliable if we work on the greater research sample.

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**THE EFFECT OF TEACHING PARAGRAPH WRITING RULES ON THE READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS**

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**ABSTRACT**

Reading comprehension ability is a fundamental competency expected from students learning a second language. Furthermore, it is suggested that L2 learners' difficulties in reading skill may be due to lack of ability to write rather than difficulties in reading and syntax. Thus, the current research attempts to investigate whether asking teaching paragraph writing rules prior to reading comprehension will improve the quality of students' comprehension. The participants were 60 Iranian secondary students studying in a school in Iran. The data were collected from 2 separate language institutes that were selected randomly. The findings from T-test showed that participants who received two weeks treatment demonstrated 23% improvement in their reading comprehension skill. Thus, the findings suggested that teaching paragraph writing is supposed to be an effective technique in provoking students to comprehend more easily.

**KEYWORDS:** Paragraph writing rules, teaching, reading comprehension, skills, essay, Iranian secondary learners

**INTRODUCTION**

Writing skill is deemed to be difficult for EFL students in the language teaching (Richards, 1990). According to Richard and Renandya (2002), the difficulties include those in (1) generating and organizing ideas using an appropriate choice of vocabulary, sentence and paragraph organization and (2) putting such ideas into an intelligible text. As for Vietnamese EFL students, besides these difficulties, they also have to face many other obstacles when learning to write compositions in English.

Writing is the most difficult language skill to master in both, the native language (L1) and the second/foreign language (L2). This is so because real effective writing requires that we be aware of a series of aspects essential to convey meaning: a high degree of accuracy to avoid ambiguity of meaning, the use of complex grammatical devices for focus and emphasis; a careful choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and sentence structures to create a style which is appropriate to the eventual readers (Hedge: 1988). Besides the linguistic knowledge, cognitive and socio-cultural (discourse and sociolinguistic knowledge) aspects also influence our capacity to produce good written texts. All this takes time, a good training in the writing process, lots of practice, and the writer's intuition and skillful perception to materialize his/her thoughts on paper—if not an innate talent.

Since the theory of "communicative competence" was advanced by Hymes, it has to a great extent encouraged and enlightened many linguists who are not satisfied with the analysis of language merely based on its structures and forms. So, communicative teaching approach gradually came into being. Nowadays, it has been generally admitted that the communicative teaching approach has some merits in the improvement of learners' communicative competence. As one aspect of the communicative competence, the ability of writing can also be greatly improved through this approach. However, the communicative approach is not the cure-all, and it also has some defects of its own.

***What is writing?***

Writing is a process, not a product which has been far from being new. Also, writing is a complex process of exploring one's thought, discovering ideas and generating meaning (Flower and Hayes, 1980). In this way, the writing process is a sharp tool to discover meaning, to perfect a piece of writing both in thoughts and in grammatical accuracy and to bring intelligence to the writing. Therefore, Byrne (1988) declares writing is a process of encoding (putting your message into words) carried out with the reader's expectations; or, as confirmed by Nunan (1999, p. 273), —a complex, cognitive process that required sustained intellectual effort over a considerable period of time.

The concept of writing has been widely discussed by many researchers and there is wide information on the topic. For the purpose of this article, I will briefly make reference to the differences between the spoken and the written language. Then, I will concentrate more on the definition of writing as a means and as an end. As in speaking, the writing ability draws on many of the same linguistic resources, but relies on distinctly different mental processes. While linguists and other scholars have held that speech is primary and writing is a reflection of spoken language, educators have contended that the written language is more correct than the spoken language. Recent studies, however, have tended to reconcile both views. "Neither oral nor written language is inherently superior to the other, but oral and written texts do vary across a number of dimensions, including (but not limited to) textual features, socio-cultural norms and patterns of use, and the cognitive processes involved in text production and comprehension" (Cushing Weige: 2002, 15).

***Influence of Writing on Reading***

The influence of writing on reading comprehension has been expressed through the concept in which reading is trying to discover what a piece of written text means by understanding the words a writer is using. When reading, —we don't just wait for the meaning to come to us, we go for it aggressively. We look deeply into the text hunting in certain specific ways searching for clues as to what the writer is trying to say (Peha, 2003:3).

Taking into consideration the effects of writing on reading comprehension, there are a number of studies that fail to show an apparent correlation between these ability with the intention of proving that writers must also be readers and vice versa. For instance, Battle (1986) concluded that freshmen did not appear to absorb reading skills as a function of learning to write. Or, several compositions themselves have not been without ambivalence toward the importance of reading in improving student writing (Tribble, 1996).

Nonetheless, reading can advance learners' ability to write since reading can aid the learners' process of writing as affirmed by Brown (1987, p. 331), —by reading and studying a variety of relevant types of text, students can gain important insights both about how they

should write and about subject matter that may become the topic of their writing. In other words, reading can provide models for writing. Murcia and Olshtain (2000, p. 158) state that:

Many writing course and certainly most autodidactic strategies in writing involve using well-written passages from literature, or passage written by others, as models for one's own writing. Thus, many writing classes begin with reading texts, analyze them, looking at them as models for writing or using them as a piece of communication to response to. For these reasons, reading playing a decisive role in the development of writing ability for reading appears to be an essential pre-condition to produce good writers.

#### ***Importance of teaching writing***

Of all the four language skills, ESL learners often find writing a daunting task owing to its complexity. This is because it does not simply require learners to memorize written symbols and put them on paper. According to Scarcella (1984), writing involves the writer to employ high-order thinking skills as well as communication skills which include conceptualization, inference, creativity, organization, and the summarization of sophisticated ideas. Hence, there is a growing need for teachers to come up with effective writing instruction for L2 learners. It remains crucial for three primary reasons: first, the ability to write well is a fundamental skill for academic or professional success but is a particularly difficult skill for ESL learners to master (National Commission on Writing, 2004). Second, writing can be especially effective in developing learners' academic language proficiency because they will be more eager to explore lexical or syntactic terms in their written work (Weissberg, 1999). The third reason being writing allows students to master various subject matters because it heightens learners' awareness towards knowledge gaps and apply problem-specific knowledge into other areas (Reeves, 2002).

Writing is widely acknowledged as an "intricate" and complex task as well as the "most difficult of the language abilities to acquire" (Allen & Corder, 1974, p. 177). As a means of communicating and a tool of learning a language" (Wolff, 2000), writing is a complex process even in the first language. Undoubtedly, it is more complicated to write in a foreign language.

This study aims to investigate the influence of teaching paragraph writing rules on the reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate students. Having to say this, a teaching design is taken into consideration in which paragraph writing is being taught.

#### ***The Present Situation of the Teaching Design of EFL Writing***

As an indispensable part of EFL, the teaching design of writing not only shares the common characteristic of FL, but also has its unique features (e.g. Li, 2000; Zhang et al, 1995): The phenomena such as general, abstract and scattered teaching content, poor practice, one-sided teaching concept and priority, stereotyped process are very common in teaching practice. Well designed teaching is very rare phenomena. Most classroom teaching of EFL writing turns into instruction of writing theory or mechanics, some even convert into literature appreciation. Many teachers follow the basic routine from "model analyzing → task assigning → composing by students → checking and assessing" which in this paper, this mentioned basic routine form is considered.

#### ***Design of Teaching Activity***

Previous research (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007; Cheon 2008; Mondada and Pekarek Doehler, 2004, p. 501) proves that language acquisition only happens during the practice. So the core of the design of teaching activity in EFL writing is to create and implement communicative task based on real situation.

#### ***Paragraph writing***

The main focus of this research is teaching opinions at the paragraph level and to consider its effects on reading comprehension. Therefore, paragraph writing or the organization of a paragraph is of primary importance. However, writing builds larger units from smaller ones; that is, writers use words to make sentences, sentences to make paragraphs, and paragraphs to make such compositions as letters, reports, and college themes (Hart & Reinking 1990:11). Rajatanun (1988:95) said that a paragraph is a unit of writing which expresses one central idea and consists of two kinds of sentences: a topic sentence and a number of supporting statements.

O'Donnell and Paiva (1993:2-4) provided more details about the essential parts for paragraph writing which include a topic sentence, supporting sentences, details, logical order, logical connectors, a concluding sentence, unity and coherence. The idea in the paragraph must be presented in logical order by using transition words or connecting words which indicate the relationship between the ideas (chronological, causal, etc.). A paragraph may have a concluding sentence, which restates the main idea in a different way. According to Reid (1994:42), the concluding sentence summarizes the material, offers a solution to the problem, predicts a situation, makes a recommendation, or states a conclusion.

Unity and coherence are also main components of a paragraph, together with the main idea and the supporting details. Even when a paragraph is unified, and the topic sentence is well supported, the paragraph can still "sound" choppy unless the writer uses coherence devices to make the paragraph smoother. Coherence means "to stick together." In writing, it means that one thought flows smoothly into the next. One way to achieve coherence is with the use of connectors called transition words or phrases that link one sentence to another (Wyrick 1999:211).

Therefore, to produce an effective piece of writing, students should focus on organization by 1) choosing an appropriate topic sentence 2) identifying general and specific statements 3) arranging sentences in order and 4) inserting or deleting some sentences and ending with a concluding sentence.

#### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Consequently, lots of researchers are constantly on the move to discover new ways and methods to teach language writing more effectively. According to Scarcella (1984), writing involves the writer's employing high-order thinking skills as well as communicative skills which include conceptualization, inference, creativity, organization, and summarization of sophisticated ideas. Although the reason for low efficiency in writing teaching is very complicated, previous studies have found that well-designed classroom-teaching plan is crucial in motivating and developing the writing skills of EFL learners and the implementation of scientific classroom-teaching design is a core element in enhancing the quality and efficiency of teaching practice (Melor Md Yunus et al, 2012).

For many years, the teaching of writing was neglected as a result of concentration on the aural approach (Brookes & Grundy, 2000). It is true that there was a specific demand for spoken language, but the importance of writing should be equally valued. "How to teach writing" in ESL classes is a question that has no definite answer.

Different teachers have different teaching styles and methods. Experts and teachers have stressed many features of ESL writing, and they

have developed a variety of approaches to the teaching of writing. Raimes (1983) presents six approaches to the teaching of writing: the controlled-to-free approach; the free-writing approach; the paragraph-pattern approach; the grammar-syntax-organization approach; the communicative approach; the process approach. Nunan (2003) firstly gives a brief comparison between process and product approaches to the teaching of writing, and then presents the functional grammar approach and the discourse-based approach for writing. He also gives some suggestions on teaching: a writing program should incorporate elements of process and product approaches; a teacher should create his own professional practice in the teaching of second language writing based on the related theories.

We can conclude that writing is of course, not easy and in some way, more difficult than speaking (Norrish 1983:63). Writing is more complex in that it tests a person's ability to use a language and the ability to express ideas. As a result, a person needs to write not only coherently but correctly, which requires more time and effort (Liu and Braine 2005:623-624).

Regarding many difficulties in the field of teaching writing, a proper teaching model of writing is selected by which language utilization was somehow facilitated. Since there are many studies done in the field of writing and reading comprehension, there is no study in which the correlation among teaching writing rules and the reading comprehension of intermediate is investigated. Reading comprehension improvement is closely connected to the knowledge of vocabulary, but the main research question in this study is whether writing knowledge and ability affects reading comprehension or not.

As far as we have concerned, reading and writing have a mutual effect. Reading builds the knowledge of diverse kinds to write on or to employ in writing; writing reinforces knowledge in a way that builds schemata to read with. Reading and writing interact with each other, possibly making use of the same cognitive structures to create a text world (Kucer, 1985). Thus, an integrated-skill classroom is an ideal environment to apply Steve Peha's —Read like a writer approach as an integration and reciprocal interaction of reading and writing.

Having the above-mentioned issues in mind, the researchers believe that investigating writing knowledge is a worthwhile enterprise in Iran, not only for pedagogical purposes but also for the insights it affords into the cognitive processes involved in reading and vocabulary acquisition. Any research that attempts to do so may advance our understanding of the nature of writing knowledge and its relation to reading comprehension.

## RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question of the study would be as follow:

Does teaching paragraph writing rules affect on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Study Design*

The design of this study was based on experimental research, in which the respondents were divided into two groups of 'experimental' and 'control'. Therefore, first, a pre-test was administered for checking participants' ability to write. Then, participants were divided into two groups; experimental and control. For the experimental group, students were taught the lesson by using paragraph teaching rules while the control group was given a lesson without using this treatment. After accomplishing the lesson, a post-test was given to both groups in order to evaluate their progress.

### *Participants*

60 (sixty) students were chosen as the participants of this research. The participants of this study were selected randomly among the language institutes in West of Iran. The students were picked from two classes consisting of high and lower achievement students in each class. However, the students were put through the research as a group without dividing or discriminating the students according to the race, gender or social background.

### *Instruments*

#### *Pre-test*

A pre-test of reading comprehension was used as the first instrument in this study. The aim of the pre-test was to determine the students' ability to comprehend a text or an essay. In the pre-test, both groups were given an essay where they had to respond to some comprehension questions driven from the essay in which the researcher provided as the pre-test. Based on the pre-test results, the experiments were conducted where teaching paragraph writing was used in the experimental group whereas for the control group, traditional methods such as traditional reading comprehension were used.

#### *Treatment*

For experimental group, participants received 2 treatments within 2 weeks. **In the first treatment**, teaching writing and paragraph essay rules were introduced to participants. **For the next treatment**, some comprehension questions were given to another group of participants together. Then, the teacher discussed the research procedure for them accordingly. However, for the control group, directed texts with questions were given to participants where they had to respond based on the content given. However, they had to respond everything on their own.

#### *Post-test*

After accomplishing the treatment, a post-test was given to both groups to evaluate their progress. In order to acknowledge the validity and the reliability of the pre-test and post-test as well as the treatments sessions, the materials that have been used by one of the teachers were selected as the instruments for this research.

### *Procedure of the study*

In this study, we are supposed deal with the effect of teaching paragraph writing rules on reading comprehension of the Iranian intermediate students. To do this, we decide to select two rather similar groups in the form of experimental and control groups in which a pre-test and post-test were administered in each group to examine the amount of reading comprehension progress in the case of teaching writing rules. In pre-test, the scores of each group was obtained rather the same (% 61 for each group). According our research hypothesis, we predicted that

experimental group will progress more in the case of reading comprehension only if it utilizes the treatment. In the next part the research findings will be depicted.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The major question addressed in this study was whether the use of teaching writing paragraph rules would improve students' reading comprehension or not. The result of the post-test indicated clearly that the respondents in the experimental group who were exposed to the treatment showed a remarkable improvement in post-test compared to control group who used the traditional method of responding to comprehension questions. Therefore, the result analysis have also answered the research question that teaching writing rules can be used to help students develop their critical thinking skills in reading compared to traditional method.

As the table shows, in pre-test both the control and experimental group obtained rather the same results (61%). In the treatment period, the participants experienced two stages in which guided practice and teaching writing rules were administered in the first stage and comprehension questions were released in the case of second stage of the treatment. Afterwards, a post-test was administered that the control group and experimental group obtained 61 % and 84 %, respectively. As it is depicted in the table 1, a very simple comparison of pre- and post-test results reveals that the post-test scores of control and experimental groups are 61 % and 84 % respectively indicating that the treatment accentuated the research hypothesis and a total of 23 % progress is observed in the case of experimental group scores. Therefore, teaching paragraph writing rules affects positively on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. The differences of the pretest and post-test were listed in the following table:

*Table 1: the results of pre- and post-test and the differences of each*

No	Group	Pre-test	Action taken	Action taken	Post-test	Differences
1	Control	61%	Guided practice	Comprehension questions	61%	-----
2	Experimental	61%	Teaching writing rules & Guided practice	Comprehension questions	84%	23%

Lastly, as the students came from the various level of proficiency, some of them could not communicate in the target language. However, with the help from the rest of their friends, they were able to engage in meaningful communicative language even though the main objective of the treatment was more on writing and reading skills. In addition, with the use of teaching writing, students were seemed to be actively involved in the classroom activity regardless their different level of proficiency.

**CONCLUSION**

Most of the students especially in Iran find reading as the most difficult skill compared to other skills i.e. listening, speaking and writing skills. Regardless of primary or secondary students, reading is the least proficient that most of the students are lacking of. The most common reasons given by the teachers based on their observation of their students are passive participation during interactive activities and lack of ideas. Due to these reasons, the technique of teaching writing was used to boost the students to think critically and actively participate in reading activity conducted in the classroom. This treatment plays a very important role in teaching which may arouse students' thinking skills.

As conclusion, the use of teaching writing had a good impact on students' writing, as it could change the students' perception toward reading from passive participation to actively participate in discussion session. Moreover, teaching writing helped them to improve their critical thinking through stages as they learnt how to organize and developed their existing ideas in writing and reading. It was also proven that to teach writing among Iranian students is more effective compared to traditional methods of writing, which are unable to improve students' interest in writing and reading and create critical thinking environment among the students.

**Study Limitation**

Since this is an experimental study and a treatment must be administered, learners may experience many changes during the treatment period. There are two tests, mostly, in experimental researches in which students can get familiar with the test format and general questions. Therefore, this can affect the post-test results which a rather pseudo-achievement may be observed in such cases.

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#### ABSTRACT

The present study was conducted to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary knowledge in undergraduate students. To fulfill the purpose of the study, 59 undergraduate English as a Foreign Language students took part in this study. The investigation was done through using two tests and one questionnaire including Vocabulary Size Test (VST) (Nation, 2007), the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) (Schutte et al., 1998), and the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) developed by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia and McKeachie (1991). Using the Vocabulary Size Test (VST), the participants were divided into three groups of high, mid, and low. To analyze the data, One-Way ANOVA and Multiple Comparisons (Scheffé) were used. To check the correlation, Pearson correlation coefficient was run. Considering the participants' levels, it was found that motivation had a positive and significant correlation with emotional intelligence in high, mid, and low groups. The findings, furthermore, indicated that all components of motivation had positive and meaningful correlation with all subscales of emotional intelligence in high, mid, and low groups. That is, by increasing vocabulary knowledge, students become motivated to use information consisted in emotion to make effective decisions. In other words, those who are more emotional intelligent and motivated can produce positive emotions in their own and others to ask their questions and expand their vocabulary knowledge.

**KEYWORDS:** Emotional intelligence, Motivation, Vocabulary Knowledge

#### INTRODUCTION

In today's educational system, learner is an active participant. In other words, Learners are being asked what they want to learn and are encouraged to set their own goals for pedagogical attainment. Even though these instructional methods add value to the student and his will, these methods may put students who are unable to function well at a disadvantage. That is the instructor's duty and art to handle the class in such a way that neither of the groups feel frustrated, and he should use different teaching methods which meet the needs of both groups of students. Thus, language instructors should apply more appropriate teaching methods by which learners of different styles and personalities benefit, and their self-esteem, self-confidence and motivation increase.

In the last decade or so, a tremendous amount of facts has been discovered on the role emotions play in our lives. Researchers have found that "even more than IQ, one's emotional awareness and abilities to deal with feelings will determine success and happiness in all walks of life, including family relationships" (Gottman & DeClaire, 1998, p. 20). In other words, Goleman (1995), and Salovey and Mayer (1990) asserted that research has demonstrated that EQ can explain success in education and life more than IQ. Salovey and Mayer (1990), also, introduced the term Emotional Intelligence (EI) as the ability to perceive, understand, and manage one's own and others' emotions. In the same year, they defined EI as a type of social intelligence including the ability to manage and control one's own and others' emotions and to make use of the information to lead thinking and acting. It is the potential to perceive and understand the feelings of others and create interpersonal interactions. Then, Goleman (1995) stated that emotional intelligence consists of "knowing what you are feeling, recognizing what others are feeling, managing the feelings in relationships, and using your feelings to motivate yourself--even in the face of frustrations" (p. 43).

In case of motivation, Gardner (1985) defined motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (p.10). Oxford and Shearin (1994, p. 12) stated that "motivation determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning", but Dörnyei (1998), Van Lier (1996), Crookes and Schmidt (1991) warn that it is a multifaceted factor and that "no available theory has yet managed to represent it in its total complexity" (Dörnyei, 1998, p. 131). Also, Tremblay and Gardner (1995) considered motivation in terms of effort, attention and persistence whereas Van Lier (1996) based on work by Vygotsky (1962, 1978) and Keller (1983), lists motivational intensity, affect, and cognition. Ford (1992) also identified three motivational factors which are personal goals, emotional arousal processes, and individual beliefs which direct, energize, and regulate goal-directed activity.

Vocabulary has long been considered as a prerequisite and strong determinant of reading achievement. In this regard, Hui (2004) stated that "without enlarging vocabulary size or breadth, students do not have real reading ability and communicative competence" (p. 477). "It is clear that a large and rich vocabulary is the hallmark of an educated individual. Indeed, a large vocabulary repertoire facilitates becoming an educated person to the extent that vocabulary knowledge is strongly related to reading proficiency in particular and school achievement in general" (Beck, McKeown & Kucan, 2002, p. 1).

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous study demonstrated that emotional intelligence is connected with success in many domains, including enhancing performance in interviewing (Fox & Spector, 2000), contextual performance, work settings (Carmeli, 2003), student learning (Brackett & Mayer, 2003), effective teaching (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2010), classrooms (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004), academic performance (Gil-Olarte, Palomera, & Brackett, 2006), and cognitive tasks (Schuttes, Schuetzle, & Malouff, 2001). The concept of intelligent was initially identified by Spearman (1904) as Dickens (2007) asserted:

Spearman (1904) first accounted for the observation that people who perform well on one type of mental ability also tend to do well on many others. For instance, individuals who are good at identifying patterns in chains of abstract drawings are also good at quickly sequencing and arranging pictures to tell a story, telling what three dimensional shapes drawn in two dimensions will resemble when

rotated, tend to have large vocabularies and are quick at arithmetic. This pattern of moderate to strong positive mutual relations across the whole spectrum of mental abilities led Spearman to hypothesize the existence of a general mental ability similar to the usual notion of intelligence (p. 1). Thus, vocabulary breadth of EFL learners might be a good predictor of their general intelligence.

Gardner (2001) studied the roles of the student, the teacher and the language researcher in understanding the motivation to learn another language. He highlighted the socio-educational model of second language acquisition. Vaezi (2008) in her research, *Language Learning Motivation among Iranian Undergraduate Students*, explored that Iranian EFL learners had very high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language and that they were more instrumentally motivated. Thus, she supported the idea of some researchers who believe that in a foreign language setting learners are instrumentally motivated. Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2010) investigated the relationship between EFL teachers' emotional quotient (EQ) and their pedagogical success in language institutes. In addition, the role played by their years of teaching experience in their EQ and the relationship between their age and EQ were also studied. Subsequent data analyses revealed that there was a credible and meaningful relationship between teachers' success and EQ. Furthermore, significant correlations were found between teachers' EQ, their teaching experience, and their age. The results also revealed the teacher's emotional intelligence to be a critical factor in the process of teaching. Skourdi and Rahimi (2010) compared two models of emotional intelligence based upon the ideas proposed in Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Saklofske, Austin, and Miniski (2003) to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, linguistic intelligence, and vocabulary learning, especially receptive breadth of vocabulary, among EFL learners. A correlational analysis revealed that there was an interesting pattern of significant relationship between emotional intelligence and first language, between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge and between first language and vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, emotional intelligence was found to be a potential predictor for first language acquisition. Parsa, Jahandar, and Khodabandehlou (2013) studied the effect of verbal intelligence on pre-intermediate learners' knowledge of lexicon. The correlation done on the data indicated a positive relationship between verbal intelligence and knowledge of lexicon. Besides, the analysis of the results revealed that participants who had higher verbal intelligence also had higher marks in vocabulary test, and the participants who had lower verbal intelligence had a lower mark in the vocabulary test.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As this review has demonstrated, there are a lot of interesting and challenging works on about emotional intelligence, motivation, and vocabulary knowledge. All in all, considering the aforementioned studies, this paper addresses the following research question:

Q. Is there any profound relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation at different levels of vocabulary knowledge for Iranian EFL learners?

## METHODOLOGY

### Participants

The participants in this study were 82 male and female senior students, majoring in English Teaching at Islamic Azad University. Two classes were randomly chosen at English Language Department of Shiraz University; in one selected class, there were 36 female and 13 male participants, and in the other one, there were 26 females and 7 males ranged from 21 to 29 years of age. Out of all of 82 tests and questionnaires distributed, 78 were returned. After being screened for usability, 59 responses were found to be complete and proper for analysis purposes. The respondents, finally, were 44 female and 15 male participants. Seniors who had passed all reading comprehension courses were selected for this study as it was assumed that they should enjoy some vocabulary knowledge.

### Instruments

Two tests and one questionnaire were employed in this research. The first test was the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) (Schutte et al., 1998), the first was the Vocabulary Size Test (VST) (Nation, 2007); the second one was Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia & McKeachie, 1991), and the last one was the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) (Schutte et al., 1998) consists of a 33 item self-report measure of emotional intelligence. The items in the SSEIT are prepared on a five-level Likert scale. In this kind of test, Petrides and Furnham (2000), Ciarrochi, Chan and Bajgar (2001), and Saklofske, Austin and Minski (2003) identified some factors. The factors are Perception of Emotions (PE), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES), Managing Other's Emotions (MOE) and Utilizing Emotions (UE). The reliability index of the test was calculated, and it was found to be 0.91.

### Procedure

First, Nation's Vocabulary size Test (2007) was given to subjects to determine their vocabulary size, and the level of their vocabulary knowledge. Second, the Schutte Self-report Emotional Intelligence Test was administered. They were asked to show the extent to which they agreed with the statements by checking one of the five responses in the answer sheet. The responses to this questionnaire ranged from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. Finally, the Motivation Strategies for Learning Questionnaire was used. In order to complete these tests and questionnaire, there was no time restriction.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Having a glance at the related literature in the area of EI, motivation and vocabulary knowledge, it was showed a clear need to undertake a study in this regard. Thus, the present study focused on the role of emotional intelligence, motivation, and the vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners. It was hypothesized that no relationship exists between emotional intelligence and vocabulary knowledge at different levels of vocabulary knowledge of EFL undergraduate students.

Based on the students' scores of the vocabulary knowledge test, they were divided into three groups of high, mid, and low. At first, the median was calculated to find two midpoints and the mid scores turned out to be 55 and 39. Then, they classified in three groups. Those who got scores 55 or higher were put in the high group, those whose scores were between 39 and 55 were considered as the mid group, and the students with the scores of 39 or lower were put in the low group. In order to see if the difference in the performance of all three groups was significant; in other words, if the cutoff scores for dividing the participants into three groups were appropriate, a One-Way ANOVA was run. Table 1 shows the results.

*Table 1: One-Way ANOVA to Compare the Participants' Vocabulary Mean Scores in the Three Groups*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Vocabulary Knowledge	Between Groups	10819.673	2	5409.836	109.037	.000
	Within Groups	2778.429	56	49.615		
	Total	13598.102	58			

According to Table 1, there was a significant difference in the performance of all the groups of high, mid, and low. Moreover, in order to observe the vocabulary mean scores between the performances of the three groups, a Scheffé test was carried out. The results are shown in Table 2.

*Table 2: Differences in Vocabulary Knowledge among the Three Groups  
Multiple Comparisons (Scheffé) on Vocabulary Breadth*

Vocabulary Knowledge (I)Vocabulary Levels	(J)Vocabulary Levels	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
High	Mid	21.718*	2.233	.000	16.10	27.33
Mid	Low	13.125*	2.196	.000	7.60	18.65
Low	High	-34.843*	2.382	.000	-40.83	-28.85

\* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

As shown in Table 2, the results indicate a significant difference in vocabulary knowledge scores among the high, mid, and low groups with the level of significance set at  $P < 0.05$ . Thus, it can be concluded that the three groups performed differently. In other words, the cut points to classify the participants into three groups were truly selected. Then, the correlational analysis was run for all these three groups. The results of the relationships among the different components of emotional intelligence and motivation in the high group are reported in Table 3.

*Table 3: Correlations among Different Components of EI and Motivation in the High Group*

		Intrinsic Goal Orientation	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Task Value	CLB	SELP	Test Anxiety
PE	Correlation	.774**	.609**	.525**	.757**	.322	.144
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.010	.031	.000	.208	.582
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17
MES	Correlation	.833**	.448	.680**	.798**	.319	-.034
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.071	.003	.000	.212	.898
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17
MOE	Correlation	.623**	.591*	.393	.602*	.533*	.176
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.013	.119	.011	.028	.499
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17
UE	Correlation	.840**	.493*	.655**	.773**	.546*	.186
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	0.45	.004	.000	.023	.476
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level      \*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

As it can be observed, the correlational findings of the above table indicate that in the high group, the correlation between two of six components of motivation including Intrinsic Goal Orientation and Control of Learning Beliefs, and all the emotional intelligence subscales is high and significant at the 0.01 and 0.05 levels. Moreover, there exists positive and significant correlation between the other components of motivation and all the emotional intelligence subscales. But Test Anxiety has no significant correlation with Managing Emotions in the Self (MES) (-.034). That is to say, with increasing the control of learning beliefs, learners become motivated to use information contained in emotion to make effective decisions. In other words, believing that they are capable to manage emotions in owns and others, and handle relationship, learners manifest more persistence in expanding their vocabulary knowledge.

*Table 4: Correlations among Different Components of EI and Motivation in the Mid Group*

		Intrinsic Goal Orientation	Extrinsic Goal Orientation	Task Value	CLB	SELP	Test Anxiety
PE	Correlation	.519**	.343	.355	.575**	.368	.402
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.101	.088	.003	.077	.051
	N	24	24	24	24	24	24
MES	Correlation	.386	.163	.432*	.428*	.425*	.313
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.062	.448	.035	.037	.039	.137
	N	24	24	24	24	24	24
MOE	Correlation	.527**	.282	.455*	.716**	.418*	.290
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.182	.026	.000	.042	.169
	N	24	24	24	24	24	24
UE	Correlation	.491*	.290	.527**	.627**	.316	.138
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.015	.169	.008	.001	.133	.520
	N	24	24	24	24	24	24

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level      \*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

According to Table 4, in the mid group, there exists positive significant correlation among all the components of motivation and all the emotional intelligence subscales. Moreover, there are moderate significant correlations between Control of Learning Beliefs and all the components of emotional intelligence in the 0.01 and 0.05 levels in this group. The results of the analysis in the low group are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Correlations among Different Components of EI and Motivation in the Low Group

		Intrinsic Orientation	Goal Orientation	Extrinsic Orientation	Goal Orientation	Task Value	CLB	SELP	Test Anxiety
PE	Correlation	.513*		.271		.525*	.630**	.320	-.194
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.030		.277		.025	.005	.196	.441
	N	18		18		18	18	18	18
MES	Correlation	.244		.169		.724**	.690**	.436	-.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.328		.503		.001	.002	.070	.753
	N	18		18		18	18	18	18
MOE	Correlation	.463		.332		.611**	.581*	.471*	0.16
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.053		.179		.007	.011	.048	.949
	N	18		18		18	18	18	18
UE	Correlation	.637**		.385		.268	.559*	.403	-.179
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005		.115		.282	.016	.098	.476
	N	18		18		18	18	18	18

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level \*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

The outcomes of correlational analyses in Table 5 show that in low group, there are positive and significant correlations among all components of motivation-except Test Anxiety-and all the components of emotional intelligence. Test Anxiety has no significant correlation with emotional intelligence subscales. The correlational analysis between total emotional intelligence and total motivation was also run. The results can be seen in Table 6.

Table 6: Correlation between Total EI and Total Motivation in the Three Groups of Vocabulary Knowledge

	Total Intelligence	Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	Total Motivation
High Group				.868**
			Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
			N	17
Mid Group			Pearson Correlation	.742**
			Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
			N	24
Low Group			Pearson Correlation	.707**
			Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
			N	18

\*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

As it can be observed in Table 6, the correlational findings revealed that in the high group, the correlation between total emotional intelligence and total motivation was high and significant at the 0.01 level ( $r= 0.86, P < 0.1$ ). It means that with an increase in emotional intelligence, students' motivation will be higher. Moreover, there existed a positive and significant correlation between total emotional intelligence and total motivation in the mid group ( $r= 0.74, P < 0.1$ ). In the low group, also, the correlation between total emotional intelligence and total motivation was high and significant at the 0.01 level ( $r= 0.70, P < 0.1$ ). Thus, the total emotional intelligence scores of the students in the three groups, high, mid and low correlated highly and significantly with the total motivation. That is to say, a credible and meaningful relationship between Iranian EFL university learners' emotional intelligence and motivation mean scores was observed, which implies that those who are more emotional intelligent and motivated can produce positive emotions in their own and others to ask their questions and expand their vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, the results rejected the hypothesis of the study, which assumed that there was no relationship between emotional intelligence and motivation at different levels of vocabulary knowledge. The findings of this study are in line with those of Aki (2006), who figured out that language learning is a concept that depends on both the learner and the instructor when it comes to human psychology and interpersonal communication. According to Aki (2006), "what is important in language learning is not high intelligence values; rather, it is being emotionally intelligent or at best, having the ability to recognize, employ, comprehend and manage emotions" (p. 66). On the other hand, these results are in conflict with what was reported by Vali-Mohammadi and Bagheri (2011). They reported that there was no significant and meaningful relationship between emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary size. But there existed some relationship between them when the students were divided into three groups of high, mid and low based on the scores of the vocabulary size test.

**CONCLUSION**

This study was an attempt to investigate the possible bond between emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary knowledge of EFL university students. Based on the results obtained in this study, one can conclude that there is a significant relationship between students' emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary knowledge which indicates that students with greater emotional intelligence and motivation have greater power of learning vocabulary. Specifically speaking, a profound relationship between EFL students' emotional intelligence and motivation was observed which indicates that those who are more emotional intelligent and motivated can produce positive emotions in their own and others to ask their questions and expand their knowledge. In addition, among all components of motivation, it was the Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB) which had the highest contribution. This may be due to the fact that those students, who have a greater control over themselves and their learning, benefit from a higher degree of motivation. They can easily motivate themselves to learn new materials. Besides, those students with a greater ability of managing their emotions have greater power of learning.

Since the outcome of the present study proves a significant relationship between EFL college students' emotional intelligence, motivation and their academic achievement in expanding vocabulary knowledge; therefore, more appropriate courses which aim at improving students' vocabulary knowledge in foreign language should be included in the curriculum so that students' academic achievement will promote as a result.

**Limitation of the Study**

Like many other studies, the present study had some limitations which could hinder the generalization of the results to other situations. First and foremost, if a larger sample size were considered, the obtained results could have been more significant and reasonable than they are now.

Second, the present study was conducted on the relationship between emotional intelligence, motivation and vocabulary knowledge, and the results of this study may not be applicable to the other language skills and sub-skills such as grammar, but it can be helpful in conducting other research to explore the relationship between other language skills and personality factors.

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## A CROSS-DISCIPLINARY MOVE ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

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### ABSTRACT

This paper seeks to analyze the research article abstracts across three disciplines: applied linguistics, applied economics, and mechanical engineering. The analysis mainly focuses on the rhetorical structure, i.e. the constituent moves and steps. In addition, self-mention of the author as well as the voice and tense of the verbs included in each move are examined. To this end, 21 published abstracts from each field (a total of 63 abstracts), all appearing in established, international journals, were selected. The model proposed by Hyland (2000), composed of 5 moves, was employed as a general guideline and the steps and moves were identified and studied in the three groups of abstracts. The results compared and contrasted the dominant move patterns of each field, their unique moves/steps, the typical voice and tense of verbs employed in each move, and the differences regarding the self-mention. All in all, the findings of this study had important pedagogical implications for the practitioners in ESP and EAP fields.

**KEYWORDS:** cross-disciplinary, research articles, abstract

### INTRODUCTION

The research article (RA) is the most important genre in the academic community. Its purpose, according to Hyland (2000), is two-fold: communicating new knowledge to members of the academic community and persuading them to accept the claims. As a pivotal section of RA, abstract seems to have received increasing attention specially in recent years with the explosion of information in the academic world. What renders abstract its high significance is the unique function it has, namely, "the gateway that leads readers to take up an article, journals to select contributions, or organizers of conferences to accept or reject papers" (Lorés, 2004, p. 281).

Body of research on abstracts includes studies focusing on the analysis of the organizational pattern in terms of its constituent moves (e.g. Lim, 2006) or/and the analysis of the grammatical and stylistic features that characterize these moves (e.g. Pho, 2008). Most of these studies are cross-linguistic, examining the structural variations of abstracts of a single discipline across different languages. Another possible direction of analysis, which has seemingly not received its due attention, is cross-disciplinary analysis which could make great pedagogic contributions particularly to the ESP and EAP classroom. Hence, employing the latter type of analysis, the present study attempts to compare the rhetorical structures and grammatical features of research article abstracts across three disciplines (applied linguistics, applied economics, and mechanical engineering) and discuss their similarities and differences.

### LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will begin by reviewing the most pertinent aspects to the study at hand, namely, genre analysis, research article as a genre, and RA abstract as a part genre. Next, the three most popular models for the rhetorical analysis of RA abstracts are presented. They are Swales (1981) three-move model, Bhatia's (1994) four-move model, and Hyland's (2000) five-move model. Finally, a brief account will be given of a number of studies analyzing RA abstracts.

#### *Genre analysis*

As one of the most significant approaches to text level analysis, genre analysis has aroused great interest, particularly in applied linguistics, where it has been defined as the "study of situated linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional settings" (Bhatia, 1997, p.181). The reason behind such popularity among applied linguists is perhaps its remarkable pedagogic implications for the practitioners in the communicative ESP and EAP classroom (Brett, 1994). Familiarizing students or novice researchers with appropriate disciplinary conventions like the proper linguistic aspects of communicative functions is an example of such implications.

A genre has been defined by Swales and Feak (2009) as "a type of text or discourse designed to achieve a set of communicative purposes" (p. 1). These communicative purposes, which are reflected in distinctive structural patterns, are both the most important common features shared by the texts belonging to the same genre and, at the same time, the most important unique features differentiating one genre from another (Holmes, 1997).

A genre is mainly described in terms of its rhetorical structure, i.e. its constituent moves. A pioneer in the application of this framework in genre analysis was Swales (1981, 1990). In his studies, he investigated research articles in academic discourse based on 'rhetorical movement' analysis. A move, according to Swales (2004) is "a discursive or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (p. 228- 9). Simply put, while having its own purpose, each move contributes to the overall communicative purpose of genre (Santos, 1996). Each rhetorical move can be realized through a number of smaller rhetorical elements referred to as 'steps' by Swales (1990) or 'strategies' by Bhatia (1994). Both moves and steps are functional units and can be optional or obligatory in a genre (Samraj, 2009).

#### *Research article abstracts*

As one of the most attended genres in academic writing, research article (RA), has been widely researched and has yielded fruitful pedagogical findings (Yearley, 1981). In early studies it was often confused with register and it was first labeled as a 'genre' by Crookes (1986). Research articles put forward a claim as an explicit, logical argument in a well-defined form of conventional style and format following an established method which has been approved by the academic community (Gilbert, 1976). This standard format includes different sections each of which is considered as a part-genre of the RA (Swales & Feak, 2009).

The abstract, as its primary part-genre, is a brief summary accompanying the RA whose main function is to help readers make a decision in selecting the readings. It has been defined by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI) as "an abbreviated, accurate representation of the contents of a document, preferably prepared by its author(s) for publication with it" (Lorés 2004, p. 281). The acceleration of the

exchange of information in recent years has directed noticeable amount of attention towards abstract. Such attention stems from the crucial role abstracts play in today's research world in which millions of RAs are being published every year. That is, according to Ventola (1994), abstracts have turned into "a tool of mastering and managing the ever increasing information flow in the scientific community" (p. 281).

#### **Models for RA abstracts**

In his pioneer study on move-analysis, Swales (1981) proposed a four-move structure for RA introductions: 1. Establishing the field; 2. Reporting previous research; 3. Preparing for the present research; 4. Introducing present research. In 1990, Swales posited a revised version of this framework called Create a Research Space (CARS), as a three-move pattern. The CARS model has influenced numerous later studies on the structure of the introduction as well as abstracts (Bhatia, 1997; Samraj, 2002, 2005). This model consists of three rhetorical moves, each of which is divided into several steps as follows:

- Move 1 Establishing a territory
  - Step 1 Claiming centrality
  - Step 2 Making topic generalization(s)
  - Step 3 Reviewing items of previous research
- Move 2 Establishing a niche
  - Step 1A Counter-claiming
  - Step 1B Indicating a gap
  - Step 1C Question-raising
  - Step 1D Continuing a tradition
- Move 3 Occupying the niche
  - Step 1A Outlining purposes
  - Step 1B Announcing present research
  - Step 2 Announcing principal findings
  - Step 3 Indicating article structure

Recognizing RA abstracts as a genre, Bhatia (1994) proposed a four-move model which has been accepted by many scholars (e.g. Swales, 1990; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Santos, 1996; Phantama, 2000; Promsin, 2006). An abstract, according to him, gives information on four aspects of the research article it is describing: 1. what the author did, 2. how the author did it, 3. what the author found, and 4. what the author concluded. Accordingly, his model consists of the four following moves:

1. Introducing the purpose;
2. Describing the methodology;
3. Summarizing the results;
4. Presenting the conclusions;

Finally, a more elaborate model which has been influential for lots of studies is Hyland's (2000) model of RA abstracts (Li, 2011). It includes five moves: Introduction, Purpose, Method, Product, and Conclusion. The functions of the moves and their constituent steps are indicated in the following:

1. Introduction (*Establishes context of the paper and motivates the research.*)
  - Step 1. Arguing for topic prominence.
  - Step 2. Making topic generalizations.
  - Step 3. Defining terms, objects, or processes.
  - Step 4. Identifying a gap in current knowledge.
2. Purpose (*Indicates purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper.*)
  - Step 1. Stating the purpose directly
3. Method (*Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.*)
  - Step 1. Describing the participants
  - Step 2. Describing the instruments or equipment
  - Step 3. Describing the procedure and conditions
4. Product (*States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.*)
  - Step 1. Describing the main features or properties of the solution or product
5. Conclusion (*Interprets or extends results beyond the scope of the paper, draws inferences, points to applications, or wider applications.*)
  - Step 1. Deducing conclusions from results.
  - Step 2. Evaluating value of the research.
  - Step 3. Presenting recommendations

Compared with the IMRD model, this framework distinguishes the abstract's purpose from the introduction, because it has a different role from the introduction's typical purpose of providing a justification for the research. In this framework, a product move is adopted instead of the result move, as Hyland (2000) clarified that this move can better account for abstracts from the social science fields, which sometimes include not only a statement of empirical results but also a statement of the argument.

#### **Previous studies**

Most studies analyzing any of the RA sections, including abstracts, have focused on the rhetorical structures of that section in terms of its constituent moves (e.g. Lim, 2006; Samraj, 2002; Yang & Allison, 2003). Apart from that, sometimes these studies have also investigated the grammatical and stylistic features that characterize the moves on the sentence level, such as the uses of hedging (Hyland, 1996), modality (Salager-Meyer, 1992), personal pronouns (Pho, 2008), and citations (Swales, 1990).

Generally, a brief examination of research on abstracts seems to reveal two trends. The first and more popular trend involves the employment of move-analysis in contrastive rhetoric, that is, studying cultural variation in discourse structure. Such cross-linguistic studies mainly compare English abstracts with those of other languages within a single discipline (e.g., Bonn & Swales, 2007; Busch-Lauer, 1995; and Martin, 2003). The second trend which has not been as much probed involves the cross-disciplinary analysis of abstracts. This trend investigates variations of the rhetorical or other features of abstracts from two or more disciplines written in the same language

(e.g., Melander, Swales & Fredrickson, 1997; Pho, 2008; and Samraj, 2005). Since the latter trend is followed by the present study two prominent examples of it are briefly presented.

Samraj (2005) compared RA abstracts from two closely related disciplines: conservation biology and wildlife behavior. Analyzing a total of 24 abstracts randomly selected from two journals, she found that the overall layout of the RA abstracts was similar: Purpose-Method-Results-Conclusion. However, when she examined aspects of the abstracts beyond the traditional moves, differences stood out. The rhetorical structure in conservative biology abstracts included some moves ascribed to RA introductions, for instance, centrality claims, but they were not present in wildlife behavior abstracts. She concluded that the rhetorical structures of even closely related disciplines could vary.

Similarly, Pho (2008) analyzed the rhetorical organization, the linguistic realization of moves and authorial stance in 30 abstracts from three journals in two disciplines: applied linguistics and educational technology. He noted that three moves were found in almost all the abstracts: presenting the research, summarizing the findings and describing the methodology. He also pointed out that the combination of certain linguistic features would help distinguish one move from the other moves, such as the grammatical subjects, verb tense and voice.

In the same vein, as an inter-disciplinary move analysis, this study intends to compare the rhetorical structure and certain grammatical features of abstracts from three different disciplines: applied linguistics, applied economics, and mechanical engineering.

**METHODOLOGY**

A total of 63 RA abstracts belonging to the three disciplines of applied linguistics (AL), applied economics (AE), and mechanical engineering (ME) constituted the data for the present study. This corpus consisted of three groups, each containing 21 abstracts which were randomly selected from three leading, internationally accredited journals of the corresponding discipline. Table 1 indicates the names of these journals and the number of abstracts taken from each. In addition, all the articles from which the abstracts were selected were published between 2010 and 2012 in order to control for time differences.

*Table 1: The journals from which the abstracts were taken.*

<b>Applied linguistic (21)</b>	<b>Applied economics (21)</b>	<b>Mechanical engineering (21)</b>
TESOL Quarterly (7)	Journal of Applied Economics (7)	Journal of Fluid Mechanics (7)
The Modern Language Journal (7)	The Journal of Applied Economic Research (7)	Journal of The Mechanics and Physics of Solids (7)
Applied Linguistics (7)	Applied Economics Journal (7)	Journal of Mechanical Engineering Research (7)

Prior to the analysis of the data, a pilot study was conducted on six abstracts (two from each discipline) as a result of which the researchers managed to decide on the model to be followed in their study, namely, Hyland’s (2000) five-move model. The reason was that it was found to be most appropriate for the structure of the examined abstracts especially due to the helpful distinction it offered between introducing the background research area and presenting the research purpose. The five moves are Introduction, Purpose, Method, Product, and Conclusion. A move unit can be composed of one or more sentences or at least clauses. The following example illustrates the linear order of these moves in an applied linguistics abstract:

This paper investigates whether any difference exists in the degree of second language attrition between two siblings in terms of grammatical complexity, grammatical accuracy, lexical complexity, and lexical productivity based on their storytelling [M2- Purpose] The subjects’ L1 and L2 are Japanese and English, respectively. The siblings (one male, one female) have similar L2 profiles with respect to attained proficiency, including literacy, but differ in age. Their storytelling data was collected over a period of 31 months. [M3- Method] The siblings showed similar attrition patterns with the exception of grammatical accuracy, but the difference surfaced only after the second year [M4- Product] It indicated that the period of disuse was differentially affected according to their ages. The younger sibling’s data also suggest that maturational factors may play a role in handling grammatical complexity and accuracy simultaneously. [M5- Conclusion]

All the abstracts were analyzed using this framework. As discussed by Ackland (2009), the identification of moves and consequently the setting of move boundaries in abstracts are usually accomplished through two approaches, one is based on the content of the abstract, called a “top down” approach, and the other is based on linguistic signals, called a “bottom-up” approach. In this study, the textual boundaries of these units were identified primarily on the basis of semantic criteria, that is, the top-down approach. Having identified the moves, steps, and the move pattern in each abstract, the next phase, namely, the grammatical analysis, was conducted. In this phase, the tense (present/past) and the voice (active/passive) of the verbs characterizing each move were identified. Finally, the self-mention of the author (use of personal pronouns) was marked in the abstracts.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In spite of their distinct features corresponding to the different disciplines they belong to, the three groups of abstracts interestingly showed a considerable degree of conformity. This section begins with discussing these commonalities. Taking a micro view, it then goes on to compare the three groups regarding each move and step in Hyland’s (2000) model. Finally, it is wrapped up by pointing out the overall differences between them.

*Commonalities*

Table 2: The number of abstracts including each move

	Applied linguistics	Applied economics	Mechanical engineering
Introduction (I)	6	10	8
Purpose (P)	21	20	21
Method (M)	17	14	17
Product (R)*	21	20	19
Conclusion (C)	16	17	13

\* In order to be distinguishable from the purpose move, the product move is shown by the letter R (standing for Result) in the move patterns

A number of noteworthy features were found to be shared by the abstracts of the three disciplines. One was that the least frequent move in all the disciplines was introduction. As evident in Table 2, it was included in only 6 AL, 10 AE, and 8 ME abstracts.

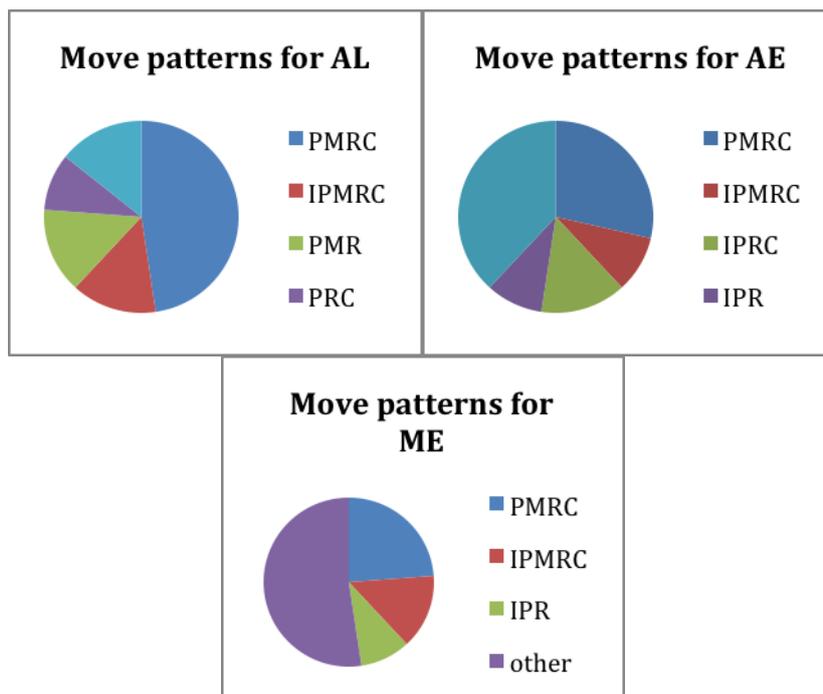


Figure 1: The most common move patterns

In addition, as illustrated in Figure 1, the pattern PMRC turned out to be the most frequent move pattern observed in all the three groups with 10 times of occurrence in AL, 6 in AE, and 5 times in ME abstracts. Another common feature was that the introduction move was, in all the disciplines, mainly embodied through its second step, namely, making topic generalizations. In the same vein, the conclusion move was most often realized through its first step, deducing conclusions from results. Finally, regarding the tense and voice of the verbs, present tense verbs in active voice constituted the dominant type of verbs in all the three sets of abstracts (see Table 3).

Table 3: The tense and voice of the verbs

	The voice of the verbs		The tense of the verbs	
	Active	Passive	Present	Past
Applied linguistics	79%	21%	69%	31%
Applied economics	76%	24%	81%	19%
Mechanical engineering	55%	45%	77%	23%

### Move analysis

#### Introduction

This move was present in 10 AE and 8 ME abstracts. Its occurrence, however, was not as much in AL where it was observed in only 6 abstracts. It is also worth mentioning that this move was commonly realized through one step and simultaneous use of more than two steps in the same abstract was hardly ever observed. Furthermore, out of the four steps embodying introduction – namely, arguing for topic prominence, making topic generalizations, identifying a gap in current knowledge, and defining terms, objects, or processes – the second one was most often employed to represent this move. In spite of the similarity of AL and AE in the rare application of other steps, ME abstracts employed them more considerably. Finally, no remarkable difference was witnessed between the three disciplines regarding the tense and voice of the verbs so that, in all the three, the present active verbs dominated this move.

*Purpose*

This move, which was realized through the direct statement of the purpose, was included in all AL and ME abstracts and in 20 AE abstracts. A striking point regarding this move was that in some cases it was integrated with method (P+M) and, in some others, with product (P+R) to form one single move. Following are examples of such hybrid moves.

P+M: Adopting the constructionist conception of research interviews, the current study introduces a comparative analysis of two interviews with a multilingual speaker of Korean, English, and Japanese conducted by two researchers who come from distinctive cultural, linguistic, and professional backgrounds.

P+R: Building on models of electoral competition with reputational mechanisms, I show that term limits decrease the vote share of candidates from parties less able to reward or punish candidates. Candidates suffer by not being able to credibly commit to policies far from their own preferences.

More interestingly, each discipline was unique in the application of these hybrid moves so that AL included three instances of P+M and no P+R. AE, on the contrary, had three instances of P+R with no P+M. And, ME abstracts included both moves with three occurrences of P+M and four occurrences of P+R. As for the common type of verbs in this move, present tense constituted the dominant tense in the three groups. However, such conformity did not exist for the voice of the verbs. While in AL and AE almost all verbs were active, in ME there was an equal share of both active and passive voices.

*Method*

While equal number of abstracts (17) in AL and ME contained the third move, it occurred in fewer AE abstracts (14). As mentioned earlier, in a few AL and ME abstracts this move was embedded within purpose move to form a single move but such integration was not observed in any AE abstracts. Furthermore, the three steps of this move were rather equally employed in AL corpus. In AE and ME abstracts, however, the application of the last step, i.e. description of the procedure, was much more salient. With regard to the tense of the verbs, in AL, past tense verbs existed almost twice as much as present ones. The case was, however, quite different in AE and ME. The present tense verbs were much more than past ones in these two disciplines. As for the voice of the verbs, active verbs outnumbered passive ones in AL and AE. In contrast, ME abstracts had far more passive verbs than active ones in this move.

*Product*

This move was included almost equally in the three disciplines, in 21 AL, 20 AE, and 19 ME abstracts. To reiterate, this move in a few AE and ME abstracts merged with purpose to form a single move but such integration was not observed in any AL abstracts. Furthermore, in all the three disciplines, the present active verbs dominated this move. Nonetheless, some degree of diversity was witnessed involving the intensity of the use of this tense and voice. The proportion of present to past tense was much higher in AE abstracts and that of active to passive voice was much greater in AL as compared to the other two disciplines.

*Conclusion*

Among the examined abstracts, 16 AL, 17 AE, and 13 ME abstracts ended with conclusion. There were three steps representing this move, namely, deducing conclusions from results, evaluating value of the research, and presenting recommendations. Interestingly, this move was, in all the three groups, mainly realized through the first step, in some cases through the second one, and rarely through the last one. Finally, no remarkable difference was witnessed between the three disciplines regarding the tense and voice of the verbs so that, in all the three, the present active verbs dominated this move.

*Overall differences*

The most significant difference between the three examined groups of abstracts involved the number of identified move patterns for each discipline. As a rule of thumb, the smaller the number of move patterns in a group, the more abstracts having the same pattern, and the more homogeneous that group is, in this respect. As evident in Table 4, the analysis of AL abstracts revealed only 7 move patterns whereas 12 and 14 different patterns were found out in the case of AE and ME respectively. Hence, while AL was relatively homogenous regarding the employed move patterns, AE and ME were more heterogeneous, in this regard.

Table 4: the move patterns identified in each discipline

	Applied linguistics	Applied economics	Mechanical engineering
1	PMRC (10)	PMRC (6)	PMRC (5)
2	IPMRC (3)	IPMRC (2)	IPMRC (3)
3	IPR	IPR (2)	IPR (2)
4	PRC (2)	PRC	PMRCPRC
5	PMR (3)	PRMC	PMR
6	IPMR	PMRCMRC	PMRCMRC
7	IPRC	IPRC (3)	IPMRPMRC
8		IPMR	IPMR
9		PRCM	PRCPR
10		IPMC	PRMR
11		PMRMR	PM
12		IRC	IP
13			PRC
14			PMRMR

The second difference was about the number of moves constituting each abstract, regardless of the repeated moves. As illustrated in Figure 2, most abstracts in AL and AE disciplines were composed of 4 moves. In ME corpus, however, the majority of abstracts included only three moves.

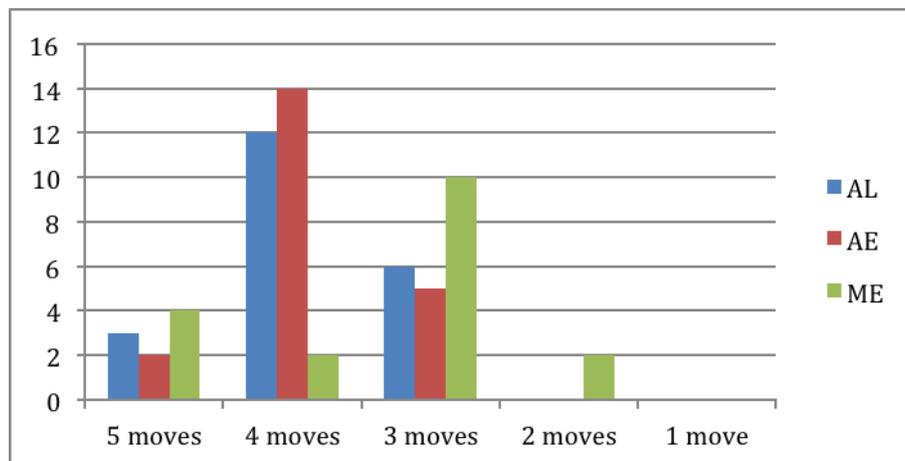


Figure 2: The number of moves included in the abstracts.

The third noteworthy difference dealt with the repetition of a move in the same abstract. This case was manifested in such patterns as PMRCMRC. One possible explanation for such repetition could be a stage-wise report of different phases of a study. This feature was observed in 6 ME, 2 AE, and no AL abstracts.

Next important difference was in the application of the hybrid moves discussed earlier. There were instances of P+M in AL abstracts with no occurrence of P+R. In contrast, instances of P+R were observed in AE with no P+M. And in ME abstracts, both these moves were identified.

Still, another difference which is worthy of attention is that, apart from introduction which was the least frequent move, method seemed to have been less emphasized in AE and conclusion seemed to have occupied this position in ME.

The sixth difference involves the proportion of the passive verbs to the total number of verbs. Although they were outnumbered by the active verbs in all the three disciplines, passive verbs had a relatively much more remarkable percentage in ME as compared to the other two groups. As indicated in Table 3, in ME the passive verbs were almost twice as much as the ones in AL and AE.

And the last but not the least, concerns the self mention of the authors. In both AL and AE, more than half of the abstracts (11) included pronouns such as I, we, our, etc. referring to the author whereas, in ME, less than one third of the abstracts (6) was marked by such self mention.

## CONCLUSION

As discussed in detail, the contrastive cross-disciplinary analysis of RA abstracts revealed the existence of both similarities and variations in the rhetorical structure as well as grammatical features between the abstracts of the three disciplines: applied linguistics (AL), applied economics (AE), and mechanical engineering (ME).

Based on the results of the rhetorical analysis, the main similarities were the position of introduction as the least frequent move and that of PMRC as the most frequent move pattern. This finding shows that, not surprisingly, most RA abstracts follow the pattern which, according to Hyland (2000), is the conventional structure set by the English academic discourse community. In addition, since almost all abstracts in the three groups included purpose and product, these two moves can be considered as obligatory moves in these disciplines.

The major rhetorical difference, on the other hand, was that AL had the least variety of move patterns and no cases of repetition of a move within the same abstract. ME had the opposite position, being relatively heterogeneous in this respect. And AE's position was somewhere in between closer to that of ME. This finding appears to be somehow contrary to the common belief that expects ME as a "hard discipline" (Hyland, 2000, p. 9) to follow more strict norms and conventions in RA writing.

The other important difference involved the use of hybrid moves. As indicated in the results, the method move was in some AL and ME abstracts embedded in the purpose move to form the hybrid move P+M. This was found to be quite in line with both Santos' (1996) and Pho's (2008) findings indicating that method could merge with purpose partially or totally in the RA abstracts of applied linguistics and educational technology. The other hybrid move found in this study was the integration of purpose with product (P+R) in some AE and ME abstracts. This was in line with Li's (2011) findings showing that in his English corpus the product move was sometimes foregrounded in the purpose move. In general, some scholars believe that the phenomena of move merging can be attributed to the condensed structure of the part-genre abstract (Santos, 1996; Pho, 2008).

The last noteworthy difference between the three sets of abstracts regarding the rhetorical analysis was that, apart from introduction, the method move had relatively fewer occurrences in AE corpus and the conclusion move had this position in ME corpus. This can allude to the less salient role of these moves in the corresponding disciplines as these disciplines place less emphasis on them. This finding, also, confirms Ge and Yang's (2005) claim on the existence of a significant difference in the frequency of moves in relation to disciplinary characteristics.

As for the linguistic analysis, the results indicated the dominance of present tense verbs with active voice in all the three disciplines. In spite

of this similarity, the percentage of passive verbs was much higher and the self-mention of the author considerably lower in ME corpus as compared to the other two groups. One justification could be the more intensive use of scientific language in ME discipline as a “hard science” to sound more objective through the greater application of passive structures and fewer cases of personal pronouns.

All in all, this study demonstrated that disciplinary variations could influence the textual organization of the abstract and that, as Melander, Swales, and Fredrick (1997) maintained, disciplinary factors may create preferences for certain rhetorical and linguistic features by members of different academic discourse communities. The findings of this study had important pedagogical implications for the practitioners in ESP and EAP fields. Genre analysis could expose students to and provide them with the explicit knowledge of genre conventions and the mastery of genre knowledge would help students become members of their disciplinary community, and also explore and produce more complex genres (Bhatia, 1997; Hyland, 2002; Loi & Evans, 2010). Moreover, awareness of genre practices would make students benefit from thorough understanding of specific texts and would guide them in producing academic discourse following the required norms and thus would increase their chances for publication and effectively participate in international academic discourse communities.

Finally, the present study was a cross-disciplinary genre analysis of RA abstracts. Future research could take language into account as well and as dual contrastive analysis investigate the effects of both discipline and language in the generic structure of the abstract. In addition, this study was conducted on 63 abstracts from three disciplines. Future research should be conducted on a bigger corpus including more disciplines. Also, while the current study included only written discourse analysis, future studies can take one step further by carrying out interviews with the authors so as to explore the socio-cultural factors more comprehensively.

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#### ABSTRACT

New word form in information technology is always getting appeared more and more, year by year along the rapid development in high technology in information and communication. The new words appear in many ways such as compounding and derivational. This paper analyzed the regularities from the old meaning to the new meaning related to the form of the words itself. It can be analyzed through source-oriented and product oriented. It will describe how far the old word form involved in making new words in Information Technology. The result shows that compounding take part much more than other process in new word form than derivations. In other hand, borrowing process of new words appeared because of the need for naming a product especially in information communication technology. The result shows that most of compounding words are categorized in product-oriented while derivational words are categorized as source-oriented. Those analyzing may conclude that the motivation of compounding form usually caused by the near concept look like with the two words in compounding. So, compounding become the simpler and easier process to describe the new meaning while derivational form, the words still have the root from the old word and it might be caused by the meaning which still has near meaning with the old word as the source.

**KEYWORDS:** Morphological Regularities, New word-form in IT, Source-oriented, Product-oriented, Meaning shift analysis.

#### INTRODUCTION

New words in IT are still being discussed in many theorists whether they have relationship to the old form or not. New word may enrich the vocabularies in such language however it involves the human cognition who made that new word. Some of the words formed by many ways based on the need and the conventional. In the other side, there are lots of new words appeared from joining two old words into compounding process or derivational process. Some has similar meaning but some has far from the former meaning. As stated by O'Grady (1997) that human language makes use of a variety of operations or processes that can modify the structure of a word, either by adding some element to it or by making an internal change to express a new meaning or to mark a grammatical contrast. It is interesting to find out the meaning shift and explore the reason why the new word from. New word appeared can be analyzed in many ways, such as grammatical, morphological, or semantics. This research, the writer wants to describe based on morphological regularities and describe the new meaning from the new word itself.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

##### Word-Formation

Formation in new words play important role to decide the meaning and the product or concept as the reference. According to Onysko and Michel (2010) the symbolic quality of language creates a conceptual distance between an utterance and what it stands for. New word appeared in many processes whether those are from the compounding by joining two old words and have relation with the former meaning or have no relationship with the former meaning itself. There are two forms which dominated in new word. Those are compounding and derivations. As stated by O'Grady (1997) that derivation and compounding are the two most common types of word formation in English.

##### Compounding

Many theorists stated that compounding are joining two or more words but has different or new meaning. Combining into one word, there are lots of variations, such as noun-noun, adjective-noun, etc.

Table 1: The example of new word form through compounding

New word	First word	Second word	Meaning shift
Firewall	Fire	Wall	Kind of protection to computer viruses.
Download	Down	Load	Pick or save file which shared in internet.

As we can see, in the table 1 shows new words are formed by compounding and basically the meaning is far from the meaning in each word, for example *firewall*. This new word from compounding clearly explained the meaning on the analogy of the function of *firewall* itself. As everyone knows, firewall used to protect or blocked computer from virus or bug while we connect to the internet. Although each word; *fire* and *wall* refer to different meaning to the new compounding word *firewall*. Therefore, it makes easier and shorter describing the meaning.

##### Derivations

The second form in new word formation based on Tamy's system of recombination is affixations or it usually also called derivations. In this process there is suffix or prefix in the new word form, but it is rarely appeared in a new word in information communication and technology. Take for example *adaptor*. *Adaptor* come from the general word *adapt+or* this combination appear with suffix *-or*. This makes change the meaning from old form and also the category of the word, *adapt* is a verb while *adaptor* is a noun. This process emerged because it is used as prototype or norm or probably the morphological idiom status.

##### Morphological Regularity

There are two schemes in morphological regularity according to Bybee (2001: 126), the two types schemas are source oriented and product oriented.

##### Source-Oriented

Source oriented is the scheme which describes the structural model from the old word to the new word. As stated by Onysko and Michel

(2010), Source oriented schemas are the generalizations over pairs of basic and derived form. Bybee (2003) also stated that a better candidate for source oriented generalization would be an affixation process. Bybee in Onysko and Michel (2010) gives the example of source oriented. From the word *believe* – *unbelievable*. *Unbelievable* emerges from the old word *believe*, it has basic meaning from the old word and model. Another examples are *adaptor*, *modulator*, and *projector*. Those new words formed from the source or old word.

Adaptor = *adapt* as the source word then *-or* as suffix

Adaptor is a charger for electronics such as laptop and it is used to change current AC to DC. This function is to adapt the current DC so that the electricity will get the current as they need. Suffix *-or* may appear because it was used for naming a thing.

*Product-Oriented*

Product oriented means generalization to sets of complex or derived forms. In Bybee (2003) proposal stated that product oriented has similarity with the other or old form. Similarity can be compared by form or meaning, but meaning has stronger influence than form. Bybee also divided similarity into three categories: Phonological connection, semantic connection, and symbolic connection. Bybee found that semantic connection usually used in innovation in language. The new word tried to make similarity to other form or meaning. It also does not mean that this case used to lead semantic change but make it semantically more similar to other word or form. For example; *motherboard*, it is a small tool in a board of computer which has similar function as a mother or has main function. This new word has similar meaning with *mother*.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH**

This paper aims to:

1. To classify the word formation and morphological regularities in new word formation in ICT.
2. To know what dominant process happen in new word-form in ICT.
3. To know what dominant type of morphological regularities to new word-form in ICT.

**METHODOLOGY**

*Data Collecting Technique*

In this paper, the writer used document in collecting new word in information, communication and technology. The data sources that the writer used are computer magazine entitled *Computer World* published by the YGS Group in Connecticut for three editions in 2013, *PC and Tech Authority* magazine published by *Hay Market Media* in Australia for three editions in 2013, and the others are from computer books.

*Analyzing Data Technique*

The writer clasifyes the data based on the category in word formation (compounding or derivation). Then, the writer classifies the data into the type of morphological regularities (source oriented or product oriented). Both classifying counted to find the dominant type and elaborate the reason based on the finding. At the end of analyzing, the writer describes the meaning shift to the each new word form by understanding the source in the contexts and also from the Cambridge learner’s dictionary, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition.

**RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

The result of this paper shows that most of the new word-form in ICT dominated by compounding. By compounding two words, it is quite easy to describe the meaning that people referred. The important of the new word-form may exist is when the word may represent the meaning in such concept and easy to understand or it might be to shortened the meaning or function of the thing itself. Such as *smartphone*, it will be too long to describe in a word for phone which are able to do so many things not only for calling and texting but also accessing the internet, playing games, and so on. Those functions can be shortened by the word *smart*. Below is the table of the word formation type. While in the derivational process, as the second dominant type in new word formation in ICT, most of the words are noun or name of the certain new things in ICT.

Tabel 2: New Word Form Type

No.	New words	Compounding	Derivational
1	Motherboard	✓	
2	Touchpad	✓	
3	Smartphone	✓	
4	Facebook	✓	
5	Keyboard	✓	
6	Bluetooth	✓	
7	Blackberry	✓	
8	Trackball	✓	
9	Touchscreen	✓	
10	Netbook	✓	
11	Internet	✓	
12	Intranet	✓	
13	Download	✓	
14	Upload	✓	
15	Password	✓	
16	Username	✓	
17	Firewall	✓	
18	Homepage	✓	
19	Processor		✓
20	Speaker		✓
21	Twitter		✓
22	Customize		✓
23	Overhead		✓
24	Adaptor		✓
25	Modulator		✓

Table 3: Classifying the Type of Morphological Regularities

No.	New words	Source oriented	Product oriented
1	Motherboard		✓
2	Touchpad		✓
3	Smartphone		✓
4	Facebook		✓
5	Keyboard		✓
6	Bluetooth		✓
7	Blackberry		✓
8	Trackball		✓
9	touchscreen		✓
10	Netbook		✓
11	Internet		✓
12	Intranet		✓
13	Download		✓
14	Upload		✓
15	Password		✓
16	Username		✓
17	Firewall		✓
18	Homepage		✓
19	Processor	✓	
20	Speaker	✓	
21	Twitter	✓	
22	Customize	✓	
23	Overhead	✓	
24	Adaptor	✓	
25	Modulator	✓	

This table shows that new words in ICT are forming from the meaning from the old word or near with the old word definition or function while the source oriented is usually happened in derivational type which still has the structure from the old word.

Table 4: Meaning Shift Analysis

No.	New words	First word	Second word	Meaning shift analysis
1	Motherboard	Mother	Board	Integrated PCB board to attach all component for computer (PC)
2	Touchpad	Touch	Pad	Place used as <i>mouse</i> in netbook or laptop.
3	Smartphone	Smart	Phone	New gadget which has touch screen picture, and use high technology such as internet.
4	Facebook	Face	Book	Kinds of social media
5	Keyboard	Key	Board	A board to type an alphabet or numeric
6	Bluetooth	Blue	Tooth	Near communication wireless device and may be used to send file each other
7	Blackberry	Black	Berry	Kind of smartphone
8	Trackball	Track	Ball	A tool formed like a ball and used as touchpad
9	Touchscreen	Touch	Screen	Screen in a gadget which is able to to control directly bt touching the screen
10	Netbook	Net	Book	Small laptop which has good performa in internet
11	Internet	Inter	Net	Data communication international network
12	Intranet	Intra	Net	Data communication local network
13	Download	Down	Load	Copy data from internet network
14	Upload	Up	Load	Share data to internet network
15	Password	Pass	Word	Sort of word used as keyword for computer or kind of tool
16	Username	User	Name	Identity of the user in certain tool
17	Firewall	Fire	Wall	Windows protector for viruses used in computer
18	Homepage	Home	Page	Main page in an application
	<b>Word</b>	<b>Base</b>	<b>Affix</b>	<b>Meaning Shift</b>
19	Processor	Process	-or	Mind in a computer to process the data
20	Speaker	Speak	-er	A tool as loud speaker to up volume speech
21	Twitter	Twit	-er	Kind of social media
22	Customize	Custom	-ize	Standard setting in a software
23	Overhead	Head	-over	Part of printer cartridge
24	Adaptor	Adapt	-or	Tool as charger to change current AC to DC
25	Modulator	Modul	-or	Tool used to send data in high frequency.

## CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis above, it can be concluded that people formed new word may have two process as majority, those are compounding

and derivations. Those used to make easy to remember or it already as schemata in our mind about that word from the old one, such as compounding which formed from two old words become one or derivations process which need suffix or prefix to form a new word. Both compounding and derivations process mostly refer to the product oriented scheme because it needed to naming a new word/ it can be adapt from logical cognitive perspective of human mind. We may conclude based on the analysis above that compounding forms are motivated by product-oriented. People will give the name for the thing based on concept that they want to describe and to make it simpler they just combine two words to memorize easily. In the other hand, source-oriented more often occur in derivational forms because the root still the same but it appear in new word which has similar and entail to the root meaning, process, or characters.

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#### ABSTRACT

The present study seeks to investigate the effect of the number of the academic achievement tests using a four-choice achievement test on Islamic theology. The tests were constructed by omitting the distracters, so two-choice or three-choice test formats were reproduced from the original. The test was administered to a population of 600 last-year high school students in Andimeshk, a southwest city in Iran. They were selected on a stratified random basis with equal ratio. The obtained results showed the reliability of four-choice, three-choice and two-choice tests items to be 0.77, 0.76 and 0.65 respectively. All of these three coefficients were significant with the probability of  $p \leq 0.001$ . The results of the present research suggested that there was no significant difference between the reliability coefficients of the four-choice, and three-choice tests with the probability of less than 0.05 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). It also showed that there is a significant difference between the reliability coefficient of the four-choice and two-choice test, and between the reliability coefficients of the three-choice and two-choice test items with the probability of less than 0.01 ( $p \leq 0.01$ ). The pedagogical implication of the study could be the point that instructors who are in some way concerned about the reliability of their tests should as far as possible avoid using two choice items e.g. true false items.

**KEYWORDS:** number of choices, reliability, multiple-choice tests, academic achievement.

#### INTRODUCTION

Nowadays tests are considered to be one of the methods for the quantification of the psychological and educational characteristics of individuals. Testing process has been engaged in two distinct aspects during its history of existence and evolution: a) from one hands, construction and development and b) from the other hand, the statistic theory for the analysis of tests (Homan, 1996).

Constructing multiple-choice items continues to be considered as a kind of art in spite of all the tremendous efforts to mechanize and computerize them. The innovativeness and skill required for including concepts in a problem, clarity and expressiveness in phraseology of questions, and finally insight and expertise for producing distracting choices which attract weak examinees all involve planning, and precise, direct analysis of questions (Thorndike qtd in Homan, 1996).

Multiple-choice items may generally include 3, 4, 5 and even 6 choices. But more than 70 years ago, measurement experts discovered that there was a quantitative, logical reasons for constructing four-choice or three-choice items. Although four-choice items are the most commonly used ones, sometimes a three-choice item constructed based on correct scientific and statistic approaches is better than a four-choice or five-choice item which contains some choices.

A variety of psychological tests are used in all aspects of modern life especially in the area of education which tends to employ tests, including academic achievement tests in order to measure any kind of educational changes. These tests include various types, including true-or-false, two-choices, matching, multiple-choice, and short-answer tests (Seif, 2007). Thus, it is important to scrutinize the criteria of a test before it is used to measure and evaluate the learners' aspects such as emotion, aptitude, and academic achievement so that the obtained results can be usable and reliable for the consequent, important planning and decision-making purposes.

Speaking so, some criteria have been developed for validating tests, two of which are by far more important (Pasha Sharifi, 1973): One is the test validity. It means that the score of the test should be consistent with the attribute which the test aims to measure (Pasha Sharifi, 1993). In other words, the appropriates of the test to measure the intended attribute is determined by several methods which include: a) formal validity, b) criterion validity, c) concurrent validity, d) predictive validity, and e) construct validity (Seif, 2007).

The second important criterion of test that should be considered is its reliability. It means the stability of a subject's score in the test a long time. It means that if a test is administered to a certain group of subjects several times, the score will be similar in all times (Pasha Sharifi, 1993). A test reliability can be determined by the following methods:

- 1) Scoring reliability
- 2) Test-retest reliability
- 3) Parallel forms reliability
- 4) Split-half method
- 5) Kudar and Richardson method
- 6) Cronbach's Alpha

The above methods can be used based on the question type and the intended goal, as well as the appropriateness of the method (Seif, 2005). Various studies have been carried out on the impact of the number of choices on the reliability of multiple-choice tests. Some of them are as follow:

Mattson (1952, qtd in Delavar, 1993) presented a theoretical model that could predict the reliability of two to five-choice tests. Based on this model, estimating the reliability of tests containing a higher number of choices was improved. Zimmerman (1953, qtd in Delavar, 1993) performed a study on five-choice tests, which did not support Mattson's model. William and Ebal (1957) performed a study on two, three

and four-choice tests, the results of which did not show any significant difference with their reliability coefficients.

Castin (1970/1972) made a comparison on a sample consisting 207 individuals regarding the test reliability. The results showed that three-choice tests enjoy a higher reliability compared to four-choice tests, but there is no significant difference between them. Stratton and Casts (1980) studied the reliability of 2-, 3-, and 4-choice tests using an economics test on a sample composed of 260 subjects. The results showed that three-choice tests enjoy a higher reliability composed to two-, and four-choice tests.

Steven et al. (1987, qtd in Beiraghi, 1997) carried out a study on 3-, and 5-choice tests regarding their reliability. The results suggested that there was a significant difference between their reliability coefficients. Hadian (1976) performed a study on 3-, 4-, and 5-choice tests. The results showed that three-choice test have a higher reliability coefficient. Beiraghi (1997) also studied a sample of 200 individuals. The results showed that the total score of the subjects on the three-choice tests was higher than that on the four-choice tests, and that there was no significant difference between the reliability coefficients of the three-choice and four-choice tests. Although multiple-choice tests have, undoubtedly, been the most commonly used tests in the past fifty years. This question has been always posed that what the appropriate number of choices in a multiple-choice test should be so that such tests could enjoy the highest possible reliability. Today, multiple-choice tests are used in the area of education more frequently than any other kind of tests for the following reasons:

Firstly, the subject is able to answer a large number of questions in a specified time. In other words, such tests can measure a large number of educational goals, and an important fraction of the subject content in a limited time. Secondly, multiple-choice tests give a lower chance to the examinee to make a blind guess compared to true-or-false tests. The third reason for the frequent use of multiple-choice tests is that they are easier to score, correct and interpret, so they result in economy on human force, time and cost.

It should be also noted that the results of such tests serve as a basis for educational promotion and for admission in university entrance exams, as well as for employment in the public sector organizations. Therefore, the validity and reliability of these tests are emphasized by, and much of interest to testing experts. Also, the condition for the validity of a test is that it can have a desired reliability (Seif, 2011). In spite of the fact that the test reliability is affected by numerous factors, including the difficulty index of the items, homogeneity or lack of the homogeneity among the responders. This question is always asked that how the number of choices can affect the test reliability especially on academic achievement tests.

Up to the present time, studies resulted in contradictory results. With respect to the importance of a test reliability which can lead to its usability or no usability, and the fact that multiple-choice tests are the most commonly used measurement instruments, the present research aims at finding answers to the following research questions and hypotheses:

#### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- 1) What is the reliability of four-choice tests?
- 2) What is the reliability of three-choice tests?
- 3) What is the reliability of two-choice tests?
- 4) Is there any significant difference among the reliability coefficients of the two-, three-, and four-choice tests?

#### **RESEARCH HYPOTHESES**

- 1) There is a significant difference between the reliability coefficients of the three-choice and four-choice tests.
- 2) There is a significant difference between the reliability coefficients of the two-choice and four-choice tests.
- 3) There is a significant difference between the reliability coefficients of the two-choice and three-choice tests.

#### **METHODOLOGY**

The present research is a correlational and comparative study. First, the reliability coefficient of each of the test formats was calculated. Then the correlation coefficients of different tests' reliability was compared using a significance test.

#### **Subjects**

The statistics population of the present research consists of all the male and female last -year high school students in Andimeshk, a southwest Iranian city, in the school year 2011-2012. Their age ranged between 17 and 19. Their fields of study were Mathematics, Experimental science, and Humanities. Out of this population which covered 600 individuals, a sample of 300 individuals -50% males and 50% females- was selected on a stratified and multiple-step sampling basis using the information delivered by the statistics Bureau of Andimeshk Education Office. Then, these individuals were placed in three groups of 200 on a random basis.

#### **Instrument**

The research instrument in the present research was a 35-item multiple-choice academic achievement test on Islamic theology administered in the Entrance Exam for the state-run Iranian universities. The content validity and formal reliability of the test were optimal according to the respective experts' assertions. The first reason for selecting this instrument was that the test had been constructed by the Iranian Organization for the Measurement of Education (IOME), and as a result, it is expected to display a comparatively high degree of psychometric criteria. Secondly, since it was a general test administered to the examinees of different fields in a nation-wide level, it was possible to choose a larger sample of subjects.

#### **Procedure**

Two-choice and three-choice tests were prepared by randomly omitting the distracting choices from this four-choice test. Then, each group resembled randomly to one of the test formats (two-choice, three-choice, and four-choice tests). Scoring the test was performed on a zero and one basis. The total score was determined to range from 0 to 20 (0-20). Each format was scored with respect to the distraction of the negative marks due to guesswork.

The data were analyzed using the SPSS software. The reliability coefficients of each format were calculated by the split-half method (odd-even). The correlation coefficients of difference between the reliability coefficients were calculated by a significance test.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The present research seeks to study the impact of the number of choices on the reliability of multiple-choice tests. The research was done using the two-choice, three-choice, and four-choice tests administered to a sample of 600 male and female students. The research findings are presented in the following tables:

*Table 1: The four-choice test results*

Statistic index/test splits	N	Mean	variance	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	reliability coefficient
Odd half	206	5.25	8.7	2.94	0.21	0.63
Even half	200	4.61	8.32	2.88	0.20	
whole test	200	9.86	26.13	5.11	0.36	0.77

Based on the results of the Table (1), the reliability of the four-choice test was 0.63 using the split-half method. The reliability of the test was calculated to be 0.77 according to Spearman-Brown's formula.

*Table 2: The summarized results of the three-choice test*

Statistic index/test splits	N	Mean	variance	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	reliability coefficient
Odd half	200	7.34	12.55	3.54	0.25	0.61
Even half	200	5.83	11.10	3.33	0.24	
whole test	200	13.17	37.1	6.09	0.43	0.76

Based on the results presented in Table (2), the reliability of the four-choice test is 0.61 using the split-half method, and the reliability of the whole test is 0.76.

*Table 3: The summarized results of the two-choice test*

Statistic index/test splits	N	Mean	variance	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	reliability coefficient
Odd half	200	8.25	7.7	2.77	0.2	0.48
Even half	200	9.25	7.2	2.68	0.19	
whole test	200	17.5	23.26	4.82	0.34	0.65

Based on the results presented in Table (3), the reliability coefficient of a half test is 0.48, and the total reliability of the test is 0.65 using Spearman-Brown's method.

*Table 4: A comparison of the statistic indices of the different formats of the multiple-choice test*

Statistic index/test splits	N	Mean	variance	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Odd half	200	10.1	26.13	2.77	0.21	16.98	p<0.001
Even half	200	13.41	37.1	2.68	0.20	16.45	p<0.001
whole test	200	17.8	23.26	4.82	0.36	12.03	p<0.001

The results of Table (4) show that the mean of four-choice tests equals 10.1, and that the means of three-choice and two-choice tests are 13.41 and 17.8 respectively. The results also show that the standard deviations of the four-choice, three-choice, and two-choice tests are 5.11, 6.09, and 4.82 respectively. Therefore, it shows that the mean of the two-choice test is greater than that of the three-choice test, and that the mean of three-choice test is greater than that of the four-choice test.

In this study, as shown by Table (4), the standard deviation of the three-choice test is greater than that of two-choice and four-choice tests. The Table (4) also shows that the reliability of the four-choice test (0.77) is greater than that of three-choice test (0.76) and two-choice test (0.65). The reliability of three-choice test (0.76) is also greater than that of the two-choice test. The findings presented in Table (4) show that

the “t” calculated for the four-choice test is 16.98. Three-choice and two-choice test have a calculated equaling 14.45 and 12.30 respectively. They are also significant with the probability of  $p \leq 0.001$ .

Table 5: A comparison of the reliability of coefficient of tests

Statistic index/ comparisons	df	r	t	$\alpha$
Three-, or four-choice test	197	0.77 or 0.76	0.31	$p > 0.05$
Two-, or four-choice test	197	0.77 or 0.65	3.85	$p \leq 0.01$
Two-, or three-choice test	197	0.76 or 0.65	3.54	$p \leq 0.01$

The results of Table (5) show that a significance test is performed between the reliability coefficients of the four-choice test (0.77) and three-choice test. The observed “t” was calculated to be 0.31, which is not significance with the probability of less than 0.05 ( $p \leq 0.05$ ). As a result, the first hypothesis of the research was not confirmed. Furthermore, the significance test of difference between the two reliability coefficients was done between the reliability coefficients of the four-choice test (0.77) and the two-choice test (0.65) in the respective samples. The observed “t” was calculated to be 3.85, which is significant with the probability of less than 0.01 ( $p \leq 0.01$ ). Thus, the second hypothesis of the research is confirmed.

Similarly, the significance test was done between the reliability coefficients of the three-choice test (0.76) and the two-choice test (0.65). The observed “t” was calculated to be 3.54, which is significant with the probability of less than 0.01 ( $p \leq 0.01$ ). So, the third hypothesis is confirmed, too.

As it was stated, the present research showed the reliability coefficients of two-, three-, and four-choice tests to be 0.65, 0.76, and 0.77. All the three reliability coefficients are significant with the probability of  $p \leq 0.001$ . In this study, there was no significant difference between the reliability coefficients of three-choice and four-choice tests, and between those of two-choice and three-choice tests. Thus, out of the three hypotheses of the research, the first hypothesis was not confirmed, but the second and third hypotheses were confirmed.

The results of the present research are in agreement with Mattson (1952, qtd in Delavar, 1973). Castin (1970/1972), Stratton and Castts (1980), Michel, Max, and William (1991, qtd in Hadian, 1996), Beiraghi (1997). In these studies, it is emphasized that the higher the number of choices is the greater the reliability coefficient of a test is. In addition, in these studies, there was no significant difference between the reliability coefficients of three-choice and four-choice tests. This results was also found in the present research, to some extent. Thus it seems that an increase in the number of choices is one of the factors which affect the reliability of multiple-choice tests, which is emphasized in the literature.

The results of present work is in disagreement with William and Ebal (1957), Zimmerman (1953, qtd in Delavar, 1973), Steven et al. (1987, qtd in Beiraghi, 1997) and Hadian (1996). In these studies, no significant difference was reported between the reliability coefficients of two-, three-, and four-choice tests, but in the present work, there was a significant difference between the reliability coefficients of four-choice tests and two-choice tests, and those of three-choice and two-choice tests.

The results of four-choice tests showed no significant with three-choice tests. A reason for the discrepancy between the results of the present research and the other studied may lie in the difference in methodology, sample size, the test length, use of negative mark, test type etc. Although, reliability is considered to be a psychometric criterion influenced by many factors such as test length, difficulty, index, homogeneity or heterogeneity of responders, it seems that in multiple-choice tests, the number of choices can influence the test reliability. Owing to this fact, test developers should give enough care to the number of choices and their efficacy when they intend to construct these tests. In this way, the test accuracy to measure the intended attribute will increase.

## CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study was intended to find a plausible answer to the general research question of if there is any significant difference between the reliability coefficients of the two-choice and three-choice tests. By analyzing the data gathered from this investigation it was concluded that there is significant difference between the reliability coefficients of the two, three and four choice test formats. That is to say, the reliability of four and three choice test item formats have a higher value in comparison to two choice test items. This leads to the conclusion that instructors who are in some way concerned about the reliability of their tests should as far as possible avoid using two choice items e.g. true false items in designing their tests.

### Limitations of the study

Every study essentially faces some limitations. The present study is not an exception since this study was carried out on last-year high school students, the high homogeneity of the subjects may have had some effects on the reliability of the test formats. Therefore, it is suggested that any generalization of the results of this study to upper or lower levels be done with caution. So, it is suggested that more extended studies be done on upper and lower educational levels by experts using longer multiple-choice formats and different subject matters. It is also suggested that academic achievement centers be established in Iran in order to plan and develop tests with higher reliability especially in academic achievement. These centers can design and constructs tests with higher validity and reliability using the competent and knowledgeable experts' experiences.

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**BILINGUAL AND MONOLINGUAL DIFFERENCES ON SELF-ESTIMATES OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES  
REGARDING GENDER: A STUDY OF  
HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN IRAN**

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**ABSTRACT**

In the history of psychology, the nature of intelligence has been studied generally from two different perspectives. The first views intelligence as a unitary concept while the second supports multiple concept of intelligence. With respect to the effects of bilingualism on cognitive development, literature prior to the 1960s mostly shows that bilingualism is a negative phenomenon and thus has negative consequences on cognitive abilities while researches conducted after the 1960s mainly indicate cognitive advantages in bilingualism. As such, the primary objective of the present research was to explore the different intelligences in a sample of monolingual and bilingual high school students (fourth grade) of Fars and Khuzestan provinces in Iran. Furthermore, the study intended to investigate how students' intelligences vary with regard to their gender. To fulfill these objectives, 448 monolingual and bilingual students were selected from among 67031 students in the 2012-2013 academic year. The data was collected through Multiple Intelligences Survey questionnaire developed by Armstrong (1993). The findings revealed that the bilingual students rated themselves higher on linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, and interpersonal intelligences than monolingual peers while monolingual students rated themselves higher on intrapersonal intelligence than bilingual students. Moreover, the male students gave higher self-estimates for logical-mathematical, spatial, and bodily-kinesthetic intelligences than their female peers while female students gave higher self-estimates for linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences than their male peers.

**KEYWORDS:** Intelligence, Multiple intelligences, Cognitive development, Bilingualism, Gender

**INTRODUCTION**

*Background of Intelligence Theories*

In the history of psychology, an increasing number of studies and researches have been done on human intellectual abilities or talents. To classify psychologists working on the nature of intelligence, Paik (1998) clearly stated that there are two major schools of thought. The first school supports the notion of a unitary concept of intelligence and claims that there is one general form of intelligence referred to as factor 'g' which is difficult to be changed and can be assessed for instance by means of paper and pencil tests (Gardner, 2004). The leading members of this group are Eysenck, Galton, Jensen, and Spearman. The second school supports the notion of multiple concept of intelligence and as Noruzi et al. (2010) argue "these theories suggest that rather than being fixed, unitary and predetermined, intelligence is modifiable, multi-faceted and capable of development (p.161)". In other words, intelligence exists in different forms. The major supporters of this school include scholars such as Gardner, Sternberg, and Thurstone.

*Ideas related to general (unitary) concept of intelligence*

The theory that humans possess general intellectual abilities measurable by psychometric testing, using surveys and questionnaires, dates back to Galton's work in 1869. At that time he believed that human intelligence, being a function of sensory apparatus, was inherited and resulted from evolutionary processes. He tried to devise a set of tests assessing students' reaction times and other simple sensory processes (Cattell & Ferrand, 1896, as cited in Ciancolo & Sternberg, 2004).

Galton (1869) was the first person who coined the phrase "nature vs nurture", an argument which still continues among experts. Defending the 'nature' side of the debate, he summarized his investigation maintaining that genetics played a critical role in an individual's intelligence and later supported this theory with a series of studies on identical twins grown up in separate environments (Fancher, 1985). Galton's innovative assumption supports the "hereditary" psychometric view that intelligence comprises one or more stable, fixed entities in the brain and that it is an inborn characteristic of the individual (Massalski, 2009). Galton believes that individual differences in intelligence are mainly related to sensory skills or capacities, i.e. if an individual possesses more keen sensory capacities, he/she will be more intelligent (Selçuk, Kayılı & Okut, 2003 as cited in Temiz, 2004). Galton's idea and work on human intelligence was a starting point for new theories of psychometric testing on human intellect (Jenson, 1987).

Spearman (1904), inspired by Galton's work, formulated a two-factor theory of intelligence. Supporting the notion of one or a single type of intelligence, he claimed that intelligence existed as a general factor "g" associated to some extent with all mental processes (Gardner, Kornhaber & Wake, 1996) and could be measured and measurement of intelligence is the measurement of the factor 'g' (Gardner, 1983). This generalized mental ability is available to the individual to the same degree in all mental operations. He believed that in addition to the general factor "g", there are also some specific abilities that he called "s" factors, such as verbal, mathematical, and artistic skills which are

related to specific mental operations and vary from act to act. (Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004). This became Spearman's "two-factor" theory of intelligence.

In order to assess the general intelligence, Alfred Binet together with Theodore Simon devised the first test of intelligence, focusing on verbal abilities, in 1905 (Gardner, 1983). According to Binet, intelligence is realized in mental functions at complex levels such as comprehension and judgment and could be measured (Gardner, 1983; Paik, 1998).

Later, the American psychologist Lewis Terman (1916) at Stanford University revised the Binet-Simon scale, which was renamed Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scales. It became the most popular test in the United States for decades. Lewis Terman was also the first to utilize the intelligence quotient (IQ) score previously developed by William Stern in 1912. Terman developed a new method of scoring intelligence which is calculated by dividing a person's mental age by his/her chronological age and multiplying this number by 100 (Cianciolo & Sternberg, 2004).

Drawing on the Galton's findings, Jensen (1969) strongly supported the hereditary component of human intelligence with cultural forces affecting it only to a small extent. He formulated a model of intelligence in which he separated Spearman's (1904) g factor into two ability sets. Level I abilities included memory functions and simple learning processes while Level II abilities included abstract reasoning and conceptual thought (Jensen & Miele, 2002 as cited in Brian King, 2008).

#### *Ideas related to multiple concept of intelligence*

This school of thought considers intelligence not as one single entity, but as several forms of intelligence. Theories related to multiple concept of intelligence claim that there are different forms of intelligence rather than one general factor ('g' factor).

Thurstone (1938), one of the proponents of multiple concept of intelligence, challenged the single-score concept of intelligence and assumed that there are relatively independent mental faculties (Gardner, 1983). Thurstone, originator of "The Theory of Primary Mental Abilities", argued that intelligence was comprised of seven "primary mental abilities": verbal comprehension, word fluency, number facility, spatial visualization, associative memory, perceptual speed, and reasoning (Thurstone, 1938).

Another theory based on multiple perspectives relates to Guilford's theory. He approaches intelligence as multidimensional and dynamic. Guilford formulated a model of intelligence that consisted of 120 specific abilities. He proposed that each ability was based on the combination of three dimensions: content, cognitive product, and mental operation (Guilford, 1956).

Sternberg (1988), as one of the huge and most known proponents of multiple forms of intelligence, stresses that intelligence should not be reduced to a single overarching construct or general ability. He maintains that the theories based on IQ could not thoroughly account for nature of intelligence. According to Sternberg, the tests of IQ can give you a score, but what they do not give you is an understanding of the mental processes that underlie the score (Sternberg, 1990). Sternberg (1998) also proposes a 'triarchic' model of intelligence. He asserts that individuals have three independent abilities: analytic (judging, comparing, contrasting, etc.), creative (inventing, discovering, imagining, etc.), and practical (applying, implementing, using, etc.).

#### **Multiple Intelligence Theory**

Gardner (1993) challenged the notion of one or a single type of intelligence like the Spearman's general factor or 'g' and the concept of Intelligence Quotient (I.Q.) He claimed that traditional views of intelligence are one-dimensional and I.Q. tests generally concentrate on logical-mathematical and linguistic intelligences. He further (1999) argued that intelligence should not be described as one single entity shown by a score on a regular pencil-and paper test used to predict the students' success in schools. He justifies that these intelligence tests do not measure, for example, the ability of a chess player, an athlete, or a master violinist since these individuals, as well as many others, exhibit intelligences that are not measured by these tests (Gardner, 1999).

Gardner's book "*Frames of Mind*" which was published in 1983 suggested the theory of multiple intelligences (often abbreviated as MI theory). Gardner here maintained that intelligence was not just one single entity but it consists of several independent primary intelligences. (Gardner, 1983) Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences has questioned long-agreed upon assumptions about intelligence and presented an entirely new way of thinking about intelligence. With his new theory, Gardner attempted to develop a new paradigm for intelligence research (1983, 1993, and 1999).

He defined intelligence as "the ability to solve problems or to create products that are valued within one or more cultural settings." (Gardner, 1983 p. 33) But later in the book "*Intelligence Reframed*" intelligence was defined "as a biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture" (Gardner, 1999, p. 34).

According to Gardner (1983), any set of abilities or skills must fulfill the following criteria to be regarded as intelligence:

1. The ability must be ingrained in the brain, so that a localized brain lesion could deprive a person of that specific ability e.g., a strike to the head causing loss of linguistic ability.
2. The ability is demonstrated by the existence of remarkable individuals such as idiot savants, prodigies and other remarkable people.
3. The ability must have an identifiable core operation or set of operations e.g., pitch, rhythm, etc. which are core operations of musical ability.
4. The ability should possess a distinctive developmental path for an individual to become an expert in that ability e.g. the developmental path practiced to become proficient in linguistic ability.
5. The ability should originate from an identifiable evolutionary history or evolutionary credibility, such that our early ancestors exhibited that ability.
6. The ability should be supported empirically by experimental and psychological tasks which help explain that the ability is independent of other abilities e.g., a person can walk and talk at the same time because these involve two different types of abilities; linguistic and kinesthetic.
7. The ability should be supported by psychometric findings e.g., a physicist might score high in mathematical ability but low in Kinesthetic ability.
8. The ability must be liable to be encoded in a symbol system e.g., particular symbols are used to represent mathematical abilities. (Gardner, 1983, 1993, 1996; Gögebakan, 2003; Chen, 2004; Denig, 2004; Tahriri, 2010)

Based on the above-mentioned criteria, Gardner (1983) originally suggested that all normal individuals possess seven independent forms of intelligence: linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. He slightly revised his theory in 1999 and added another intelligence type to the intelligence profiles, that is, natural intelligence. (Gardner, 1999; Katzowitz, 2002). Each type of intelligence is discussed below.

**Linguistic Intelligence** is the capacity to use, and manipulate language effectively and productively, orally or by writing, the potential to learn languages and the sensitivity to spoken and written language (Gardner, 1999, Armstrong, 2000). Poets, journalists, and novelists are among those having high linguistic intelligence (Shepard, 2004; Fogarty, 2005; Gardner, 2006).

**Logical-Mathematical Intelligence** involves having the ability to use numbers effectively (Armstrong, 2000), to analyze problems logically, to carry out mathematical operations and to be scientifically minded (Gardner, 1993). The individuals who are clever with mathematical problems, experiments, problem solutions and keen on reasoning logically, clearly and scientifically are those possessing this type of intelligence (Teele, 2000).

**Spatial intelligence includes** the abilities to form mental images, and also to think in pictures and images (Goldman & Schmalz, 2003). Those students who have highly developed senses for color, line, shape, form, space and also have the ability to visualize ideas are talented in this type of intelligence (Armstrong, 1994). According to Teele (2000), the students who are superior in spatial intelligence are interested in art activities, reading maps, charts and diagrams, thinking in images and pictures.

**Musical intelligence** encompasses the capacities to perform, compose and appreciate musical patterns (Gardner, 1993). People like musicians, singers and composers who are capable of manipulating music and combining its elements possess a high level of musical intelligence (Gardner, 2006; York, 2008).

**Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence** involves the skills to use one's whole body or parts of the body to solve problems (Gardner, 1993). It is the ability that enables the individuals to make use of their bodies appropriately. Those possessing this intelligence are successful in classes where physical and hands-on activities are provided (Teele, 2000). Athletes, dancers, surgeons, actors, technician, typists, etc. are among those having high bodily-kinesthetic intelligence (Stager, 2008).

**Interpersonal intelligence** entails the proficiencies of an individual to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people and also to work cooperatively with others. Individuals such as teachers, salespersons, religious leaders and politicians who deal with other people possess a high interpersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1999).

**Intrapersonal intelligence** is defined as, "knowledge of the internal aspects of a person: access to one's own feeling life, one's range of emotions, the capacity to make discriminations among these emotions and eventually to label them and to draw on them as a means of understanding and guiding one's own behavior" (Gardner, 2006; p.17). People with a high intrapersonal intelligence enjoy being alone and can also understand and appreciate their own powers, weaknesses and inner feelings. (Teele, 2000).

**Naturalistic intelligence** is the ability to be aware of, classify, explain, and associate to things and objects experienced in surroundings and nature (Gardner, 1999) and to understand the relationship among species (Raeburn, 1999). This kind of intelligence is displayed in people with jobs such as farming, hunting, gardening and biologists (Teele, 2000).

Thus, Gardner has struggled to justify that the unitary views of intelligence were not adequate measures of a person's intellectual abilities and instead he developed the theory of MI which suggests a multidimensional view of intelligence. Gardner (1993) believes that intelligence is an inborn attribute or faculty of an individual and human cognitive potentials can be better described in term of several intelligences. In fact, MI theory is not meant to classify students merely into categories such as "linguistic" or "logical-mathematical", but it holds that each person possesses a combinations of different intelligences. Any normal individual can develop these skills or abilities to a reasonably high level of competence. Furthermore, several intelligences generally work together to carry out specific tasks (Gardner 1983).

#### ***Bilingualism and Cognitive Development***

According to Lewis (2009, as cited in Buyson, 2010), there are approximately six thousand languages which are used in 193 countries all over the world i.e. the number of languages are thirty times more than the number of nations. Given these figures, it is therefore not surprising that about two-thirds of the world's population grow up in bi- or even multilingual settings (Crystal et al., 2004). Consequently, Bilingualism, bilingual individuals and the acquisition of two languages have become the focus of interest for social psychologists, linguists, sociologists and cognitive psychologists for a relatively long period of time (Guagnano, 2010).

One of the subjects that has attracted the attention of many scholars is the relationship between bilingualism and intelligence. Indeed, the studies and works done in this area can be found in the literature from the early part of 20<sup>th</sup> century (Hakuta, 1986). Interestingly, psychological research on the impacts of bilingualism on cognitive development began with rising interest in psychometric intelligence testing in the early 1920s and continued progressively through the first half of the 20th century (Diaz, 1983). If one were to look at the literature on bilingualism and intelligence, it would clearly appear that the literature prior to the 1960s mostly showed that bilingualism was a negative phenomenon and thus had negative consequences on cognitive abilities. (Baker, 2006).

Yet, the subjects used in the earlier researches and tested by various measures of intelligence primarily composed of bilinguals who belonged to groups of newly arrived immigrants from certain racial groups (mainly southern and eastern Europeans) to the United States. As Brigham (1922; as cited in Hakuta, et al. 1987) stated; these groups were the representatives of the Alpine and Mediterranean races in our immigration who were intellectually inferior to the representatives of the Nordic race which formerly made up about 50% of our immigration (p. 197).

Hakuta et al (1987) asserts "in explaining the poor performance of the new immigrants on intelligence tests, the battle line was drawn between those who believed in genetic versus those who believed in experiential explanations. The hereditarians, who believed that IQ test performance was attributable largely to genetic factors, accounted for the poor test performance of the new immigrants - those primarily from Southern and Eastern Europe - in terms of selective migration (p. 288)." In contrast to the hereditarians, there were psychologists who emphasized the environmental factors associated with intelligence test scores and believed that IQ could be developed through experience. So, they were trying to explain the poor performance of immigrants using experiential factors. They thus inferred that bilingualism - an experiential factor - must cause some kind of mental confusion, resulting in the poor development of verbal skills. (p. 289).

The history of research on bilingualism and cognitive development has generally been categorized into two main periods. Researches conducted primarily before the 1960s and those conducted primarily after the 1960s.

*Studies conducted primarily before the 1960s*

To be brief, it seems that the findings of studies (done toward the end of the 1950s) on the cognitive effects of bilingualism generally revealed that bilingual individuals performed lower than their monolingual counterparts on tests of intelligence. According to Cummins (1979, 1984), these studies broadly concluded that bilingualism resulted in cognitive deficiencies, lower IQ scores, even mental retardation. Indeed, terms such as mental confusion and language handicap were often associated with bilingual children in these studies (Cummins, 1979, 1984) and it was argued that these factors, in turn, negatively affected their academic performance.

In accordance with this view, a number of comparative studies reported that bilingual individuals got lower scores in intelligence tests (Darcy, 1946; Jones and Stewart, 1951; as cited in Grosjean, 1982), lower scores on vocabulary development (Smith, 1949; as cited in Romaine, 1989), lower standards in written composition, more grammatical errors (Harris, 1948; Saer, 1924; as cited in Hakuta et al, 1985) and they had a considerably reduced vocabulary (Barke & Williams, 1938; Grabo, 1931; Saer, 1924; as cited in Hakuta et al 1985) in comparison to their monolingual counterparts.

*Studies conducted primarily after the 1960s*

Peal and Lambert's (1962) prominent study was contrary to the findings of previous researches that implied bilingualism was a detrimental phenomenon and cognitively led to negative effects. Hakuta and Diaz(1985) clearly states;" the results of Peal and Lambert's study showed that bilinguals performed significantly higher than monolinguals on tests of both verbal and nonverbal abilities; the bilinguals' superiority in nonverbal tests was more clearly evident in those subtests that required mental manipulation and reorganization of visual stimuli, rather than mere perceptual abilities."(p.322).

Researches conducted after the 1960s, particularly over the past thirty years, have mainly indicated cognitive advantages in bilingualism. The findings of comparative studies have affirmed that bilingual sample outperformed their monolingual counterparts on measures of intelligence and on nonverbal tests. The bilinguals showed superior performance on cognitive abilities such as advanced concept formation, classification, attentional tasks, divergent thinking, problem solving and different verbal skills. (Pearl & Lambert 1962; Diaz 1983; Hakuta Ferdman, & Diaz 1987; Cummins, 1979, 1991; Wodniecka, Craik, Lou & Bialystok, 2010; Andreou & Karapetsas, A. 2004)

It is worth-mentioning that a large number of studies conducted in the first half of the 20th century were imperfect in that they suffered from a wide range of methodological deficiencies and thus a great many researchers maintain that the findings of the early studies on bilingualism are not typically reliable (Cummins, 1976). In their study, Peal and Lambert, (1962) reviewed the earlier researches and tried to clarify the reasons why the studies before 1960 were negative. In order to discredit their validity, Peal & Lambert argued that these studies suffered from some confounding variables affecting the outcomes of the studies which the researchers failed to control. The major challenges in this field were related to methodological issues such that bilingual and monolingual subjects belonged to different socioeconomic and ethnic backgrounds i.e. in most cases, bilinguals were from low- income families and were recent immigrants to the United States. Additionally, the same IQ tests that were constructed and intended for mainstream monolingual populations were also used with minority bilingual subjects. Peal and Lambert (1962) equally insisted that the subjects were not truly "balanced bilinguals" who are proficient in both their first and second language but probably belonged to "pseudo-bilinguals" who have not yet achieved appropriate abilities in their second language. In this regard, Diaz (1983) states "the degree of bilingualism was determined by "foreignness of parents", family names or even residency which are variables too unstable and inaccurate to be accounted for in a scientific research (p.26)".

Through their authentic study on the comparison between bilingual and monolingual children in 1962, Peal and Lambert found that in contrast to previous researches on bilingualism, the bilingual children outranked monolingual children on both verbal and non-verbal tests of intelligence. The reason behind this difference related to the care which was taken in the way the previous researches were conducted (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). In their research paradigm, Peal and Lambert attempted to compare balanced bilinguals with monolinguals and to appropriately control the socioeconomic status, parental education, years of schooling and other relevant variables which they thought might confound the results (Hakuta et al., 1987).

Since Peal and Lambert's (1962) influential research, a variety of studies have taken into account the effects of bilingualism on the intellectual functioning affirming the cognitive advantage in several cognitive abilities among bilingual people in comparison to monolingual peers. The following literature provides a brief summary of some of the studies regarding the effects of bilingualism on different dimensions of cognitive abilities .

In a study to determine the effect of degree of bilingualism on child's cognitive ability, Hakuta and Diaz (1985) conducted a longitudinal study. The research consisted of 123 subjects of Puerto Rican descent with the mean age of 6 years. They were divided into groups on the basis of their degree of bilingualism which was reliably measured by particular proficiency tests. Their conclusion emphasizes a strong relationship between the degree of bilingual proficiency and a child's cognitive development.

Martin-Rhee and Bialystok (2008; as cited in Quin Yow, 2010) carried out a study aimed at comparing the performance of 4 to 5-year-old monolingual and bilingual children on a series of Simon Tasks on a computer. On each trial, a red or blue square was presented either on the left or right side of the monitor and children were to press as quickly and accurately as possible a left (or right) button if a red square appeared and a right (or left) button if a blue square appeared. On congruent trials, the target matches the side of the correct key press; and on incongruent trials, they mismatch. Quin Yow (2010) states; "according to Simon (1969), in an incongruent trial, the child has to inhibit his response to press the button on the same side of the square and press the button on the opposite side of the square. The correct performance on the incongruent trials required a child to ignore the position of the square and focus only on the color of the stimulus. This additional effort increases the response time in an incongruent trial compared to a congruent trial and is known as the Simon effect. (p.15)" The result of their study indicated that bilingual children performed more rapidly and accurately than their monolingual peers in tasks and processes demanding higher level of cognitive functioning such as selective attention as well as inhibitory control.

Cummins (1979) believes that cognitive benefits of bilingualism will develop if bilinguals achieve a certain level of bilingual proficiency. Accordingly, He formulated "Threshold Hypothesis" which holds child's cognitive development emerges only when a bilingual child attains a certain level of competence in the first and second language. To support the Thresholds hypothesis, Ricciardelli's (1992) conducted a study which involved 57 Italian-English bilingual and 55 English monolingual children. The aim of the study was to investigate the influence of

bilingualism on children’s cognitive abilities including verbal and non-verbal abilities, creative thinking and metalinguistic awareness. The results of the study showed that proficiently bilingual children in Italian and English performed significantly better than both English monolinguals and bilinguals who were proficient in English but less proficient in Italian. She concludes the findings appropriately conform to the Threshold Hypothesis.

In order to test metalinguistic awareness, Ben-Zeev (1977) tested Hebrew-English balanced bilinguals and a group of monolinguals in a symbol substitution task to replace words in a sentence. For instance, they were asked to quickly substitute the word "spaghetti" in the sentence "The boy is cold" to produce "Spaghetti is cold" instead of the grammatically correct sentence: "Spaghetti are cold". They were asked to perform the task while violating the grammatical linguistic rules and showing that the meaning of a word was just a convention. In this test requiring awareness and attention to linguistic features, bilinguals were better than monolinguals at understanding that they can arbitrarily change names for things.

Additionally, the majority of studies appeared to confirm positive outcomes of bilingualism on the levels of metalinguistic awareness development. For example, the typically comparative researches conducted on the skill to recognize syntactic errors (Galambos,1982), the ability to compare words along semantic rather than phonetic features- separating the meaning of a word from its sound (Janco-Worrall, 1972); the talent to be more attentive to the arbitrariness of names assigned to concepts (Bialystock, 1987, 1988; Hakuta, 1986); the capacity to analyze redundant and contradictory sentences (Cummins,1978), and many others primarily propose that bilinguals were significantly superior than their monolingual peers. As a whole, based on large literature, one may conclude that the findings on different aspects of metalinguistic awareness were consistent across studies.

Razmjoo(2008) conducted a study which intended to determine the relationship between multiple intelligences and language proficiency among the Iranian Ph.D candidates participating in Shiraz University Ph.D Entrance Exam. He tried to find out whether one of the intelligence types or a combination of intelligences are predictors of language proficiency and to discover the effect of sex on language proficiency and types of intelligences. The results of the study suggested; "there is no significant relationship between language proficiency and multiple intelligences as a g-factor and language proficiency and each of nine-intelligence types. Moreover, none of the intelligence type could predict the Iranian's English language proficiency. Finally, there is no significant difference among the Iranian male and female Ph.D candidates in terms of their proficiency and with respect to the types of intelligences they use (p. 170-171)."

Mazoochi and Saeidi (2013) sought to compare linguistic intelligence of 100 Iranian bilingual (Persian and Turkish) and monolingual (Persian) university students regarding their gender. The major findings of the study were as follows: that there is a significant difference between female bilinguals and monolinguals linguistic intelligence. However the male participants revealed no difference regarding their linguistic intelligence (pp. 329–330).

In an attempt to investigate the students’ multiple intelligences according to their preferences and how students’ multiple intelligences differ in terms of grade level, Göğebakan (2003) conducted a research with 321 students of three classes from first grade, third grade, fifth grade and eight grade. Results revealed that the students multiple intelligences differ according to their grade levels. Moreover, regarding gender, the results indicated that male students gave higher self-estimates for logical-mathematical and bodily kinesthetic intelligence than their female counterparts whereas female students gave higher estimates of musical intelligence than male students.

Having reviewed the studies above, there appears a gap in the literature within the context of high schools in Iran. The primary objective of the present research, then, was to explore the different intelligences in a sample of monolingual and bilingual high school students (fourth grade) of Fars and Khuzestan provinces in Iran. The second objective of the study was to investigate how students’ intelligences vary with regard to their gender.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study thus concentrated on the following research questions:

1. What different intelligences do monolingual and bilingual high school students have In Fars and Khuzestan provinces?
2. Do students’ multiple intelligences differ with regard to their gender?

## METHODOLOGY

This section discusses the research methodology and procedures of the study. It begins by describing the sample used. Then, it presents data collection instruments and procedures and the statistical analysis of the obtained data. Finally, this section concludes by exploring the results, discussions and limitations concerning the study.

### Participants

All fourth grade regular high school students of Fars and Khuzestan provinces in Iran in the 2012-2013 academic year that amounted to 67031 students were identified as the target population of this study. The sample comprised of 448 monolingual and bilingual students whose ages ranged from 17 to 19. They were selected from 17 high schools by random stratified sampling technique. 251 (56%) of the participants were female and 197 (44%) were male. Only those students who spoke Persian as native language in Fars province were selected as monolingual participants and those who spoke Arabic as native language and Persian as second language in Khuzestan province as bilingual participants. The breakdown of the sample with respect to place of residence and gender is given in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of the Subjects by Place of Residence and Gender

		Gender		Total
		Female	Male	
Province	Fars	131	112	243
	Khuzestan	120	85	205
Total		251	197	448

### Instruments

In this study, the data about the intelligence profiles of the participants was collected using Multiple Intelligences Survey. This questionnaire is a self-reported instrument developed by Armstrong (1993) and is based on the Howard Gardener's (1993) theory of Multiple Intelligence and has been used in numerous studies investigating self-estimates of intelligence (Tahriri, 2010). This inventory includes totally 80 items; 10 statements for each of the eight intelligence dimensions based on Gardner's (1993) classification of intelligence types. Respondents check the statements that best describe them, then the scores on each intelligence type are totaled by adding the checked items on the specific intelligence dimension.

The English questionnaire was translated into Persian to ensure the participants' understanding of the items. The translation of the questionnaire was done during the research conducted by Tahriri (2010). Then, two university instructors translated the Persian version of the questionnaire back into English to confirm the reliability of the translation. It is worth nothing that Cronbach alpha coefficient of the overall MI inventory was found to be .84 in Tahriri's study.

In this research, through a pilot study, the Persian version of the multiple intelligence questionnaire was administered to 56 monolingual and bilingual students with a goal of studying its reliability. The test-retest method was used for obtaining evidence for the reliability of the questionnaire. The correlation coefficient was calculated and the reliability was found to be .83. So it seemed to be reliable enough to be employed in the study.

**Data collection and Analysis**

In order to gather data, the necessary permission to conduct the study was granted from the offices of education. Before the administration of the Multiple Intelligences Survey, the investigator explained the purpose of the investigation to the respondents in the selected schools and encouraged them to give correct answers. The participants had the option to answer the questionnaire or otherwise. Then, the Multiple Intelligences Survey was administered to them to collect the necessary data. The time of the survey session was at the proper class hours determined by the school management. This investigation was conducted in February 2013. As for the data analysis, the data so collected was coded and entered into SPSS to be analyzed statistically. With the aim of achieving the objectives of the study and for drawing conclusions, descriptive and inferential statistics were employed using central tendency measures (mean and standard deviation) and independent t-tests.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This study was conducted to comparatively investigate the students' multiple intelligence differences in bilingual and monolingual societies in Iran. It also examined whether there was a statistically significant difference between the students' multiple intelligences preferences in terms of gender. The summary of the findings, conclusions and discussions are presented in this section.

**Results**

The findings of the study are presented in the order of the research questions introduced above.

**1. What different intelligences do monolingual and bilingual high school students have in Fars and Khuzestan provinces?**

The first research question was concerned with monolingual and bilingual high school students' differences on each of the eight intelligence dimensions. To find out the answer to this question, an independent sample t-test was run to compare the monolingual and bilingual students' mean scores for each of the eight intelligence dimensions. Here, monolingualism and bilingualism were independent variables and the eight types of intelligence were dependent variables. The results are shown in Table 2.

*Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Independent Samples t-test for Intelligence Types of Bilingual and Monolingual Students*

Intelligence Types	Area	N	Mean	Std	t-statistics(t)	df	g
<b>Linguistic</b>	Fars	243	4.47	1.065	-6.894	446	<0.001
	Khu...	205	5.17	1.069			
<b>Logical-Mathematical</b>	Fars	243	5.84	.957	-8.010	446	<0.001
	Khu...	205	6.58	.995			
<b>Spatial</b>	Fars	243	5.49	.942	-8.085	446	<0.001
	Khu...	205	6.24	1.018			
<b>Bodily-kinesthetic</b>	Fars	243	5.28	1.994	-1.099	446	0.564
	Khu...	205	5.29	2.073			
<b>Musical</b>	Fars	243	4.78	2.019	-2.188	446	0.073
	Khu...	205	4.80	2.065			
<b>Interpersonal</b>	Fars	243	5.01	.998	-8.600	446	<0.001
	Khu...	205	5.80	.940			
<b>Intrapersonal</b>	Fars	243	4.82	.992	6.867	446	<0.001
	Khu...	205	4.19	.933			
<b>Naturalistic</b>	Fars	243	4.32	2.029	2.208	446	0.070
	Khu...	205	4.30	2.013			

As can be seen in Table 2, based on students' mean scores, std and p value ( $p < 0.05$ ), there are significant differences among the scores of the monolingual and bilingual participants on each intelligence type. That is, the bilingual students rated themselves higher on linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial and interpersonal intelligences than monolingual peers while monolingual students rated themselves higher on intrapersonal intelligence than bilingual students.

**2. Do students' multiple intelligences differ with regard to gender?**

With reference to the second question whether the students' multiple intelligences differ with regard to gender, another independent sample t-test was computed to establish if gender differences existed for students' estimates of their own multiple intelligence. Here, gender was the independent variable and the eight types of intelligence were the dependent variables. The results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics and Independent Samples t-test for Intelligence Types of Female and Male Students

Intelligence Types	Gender	N	Mean	Std	t-statistic(t)	df	Sig
Linguistic	Female	251	5.19	1.062	9.958	446	<0.001
	Male	197	4.19	1.032			
Logical-Mathematical	Female	251	5.52	.965	-7.261	446	<0.001
	Male	197	6.23	1.104			
Spatial	Female	251	5.27	1.008	-7.496	446	<0.001
	Male	197	6.01	1.042			
Bodily-kinesthetic	Female	251	5.02	1.008	-10.069	446	<0.001
	Male	197	6.01	1.074			
Musical	Female	251	5.50	2.089	2.168	446	0.077
	Male	197	5.48	2.003			
Interpersonal	Female	251	5.85	.987	7.973	446	<0.001
	Male	197	5.11	.962			
Intrapersonal	Female	251	4.67	1.045	3.275	446	.001
	Male	197	4.34	1.098			
Naturalistic	Female	251	4.68	2.020	-2.235	446	.066
	Male	197	4.70	1.951			

As shown in Table 3, based on students' mean scores, std and p value ( $p < 0.05$ ), there are significant differences among the scores of the male and female participants on each intelligence type. That is, the male students gave higher self-estimates for logical-mathematical, spatial and bodily-kinesthetic intelligence than female peers while female students gave higher self-estimates for linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences than male peers.

**Discussion**

The present study intended to primarily explore the students' multiple intelligence differences in bilingual and monolingual societies in Iran. Accordingly, the first research hypothesis of the present investigation was concerned with the differences of multiple intelligences between bilinguals and monolinguals. As the results indicates, the bilingual students were superior in linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, and interpersonal intelligences than their monolingual peers while monolingual students were superior in intrapersonal intelligence than bilingual students. Therefore, the first null hypothesis, there is no significant difference between Iranian monolinguals (Persian) and bilinguals (Arabic and Persian) in terms of Multiple Intelligences scores, was rejected.

The findings related to the first research question are in line with the outcome of the study by Mazoochi and Saeidi (2013) who compared the linguistic intelligence of 100 Iranian bilingual and monolingual university students and indicated that there is a significant difference between female bilinguals' and monolinguals' linguistic intelligence.

Additionally, this research also supports most studies conducted after 1960s on the impact of bilingualism on cognition, associating bilingualism with positive effects. To mention a few, this finding is consistent with various studies that indicated the better performance of bilinguals over monolinguals on verbal and nonverbal intelligence tests (Peal & Lambert, 1962), the bilinguals' superiority in tasks and processes demanding higher level of cognitive functioning such as selective attention as well as inhibitory control (Bialystok, 2004; Martin-Rhee & Bialystok, 2008; as cited in Quin Yow, 2010), the bilinguals' skill to be more sensitive to the communicative needs of their conversational partners than monolingual children (Nicoladis, 2008), bilingualism with positive effects on metalinguistic awareness (Ben-Zeev, 1977; Bialystok, 1991) and the positive influences of bilinguals' second language proficiency on verbal intelligence of bilingual children in comparison to the monolinguals and on the individual components of nonverbal intelligence (Sampath, 2005; p.2052).

Furthermore, the second goal of the study was to investigate how students' intelligences vary with regard to their gender. Thus, the second research hypothesis of the present research was concerned with the differences of multiple intelligences between male and female students. As the results indicates, the male students were superior in logical-mathematical, spatial, and bodily-kinesthetic intelligences than female peers while female students were superior in linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences than male peers. Consequently, the second null hypothesis, There is no significant main effect of gender on the students' Multiple Intelligences scores, was also rejected.

With respect to the effect of gender on different dimensions of multiple intelligences, the findings support the outcomes of several studies (Furnham 2001; Furnham, Rakow, & Make 2002; Gögebakan, 2003; Loori, 2005; Ramzi, Abouchdid, & Singhal, 2008; Lin, 2009; Shahzada, Ghazi, Nawaz Khan, & Shabbir, 2011). For instance, the result of Lin's research (2009), with the objective of investigating gender and major differences in self-estimates of different aspects of Gardner's multiple intelligences among 411 pre-service teachers in Taiwan, showed that "males' self-estimates of mathematical, visual-spatial, and bodily-kinesthetic intelligences were significantly higher as compared to the female sample. In contrast, self-estimates of verbal-linguistic and musical-rhythmic intelligences were significantly higher for the female than for the male sample" (p.6).

#### CONCLUSION

As the findings of the study reveal, the difference between Iranian monolingual (Persian) and bilingual (Arabic and Persian) participants' scores on Multiple Intelligences Survey questionnaire was found to be statistically significant. In other words, the bilingual subjects gave higher self-estimates for linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial and interpersonal intelligences than monolingual peers while monolingual students gave higher self-estimates for intrapersonal intelligence than bilingual students. Furthermore, according to the results shown in Table 3, one can understand that there are significant differences among the scores of the male and female participants on each intelligence type in that the male students rated themselves higher on logical-mathematical, spatial and bodily-kinesthetic intelligence than female peers while female students rated themselves higher on linguistic, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences than male peers.

It would be interesting to note that this study is intended to be utilized as a theoretical component of the project leading to adjustment in educational policy and program development creating educational equality by particularly emphasizing on dual language or bilingual programs throughout the country. Additionally, the outcomes of MI studies clearly suggest that students have different potentials, interests, skills and styles of learning. Therefore, this study paves the way to improve the teaching styles to match to the students' learning styles and to diversify activities and methods of teaching to improve learning success of students. To put it differently, such studies demonstrating the MI profile of the students may help educators to design a variety of opportunities for students in the classroom to meet the needs of learners with different intellectual abilities.

Admittedly, the most notable limitation of this research relates to the fact that the results were limited by sample size and might not reliably be generalizable to the population of other areas in Iran. That is, the sample surveyed in the present study was not really representative of the whole population with cultural differences in other areas. In this regard, Gardner (1999) maintains that multiple intelligences have a cultural component and the cultural setting influences activation or deactivation of intelligences. Thus, when interpreting the results, it is of utmost importance to view the outcomes of this inquiry locally and not universally. However, further studies investigating various aspects of cognitive capacity in terms of bilingualism and gender and incorporating samples of different locales should be conducted in order to provide reliable results and present a thorough picture of the phenomenon under study.

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**COMPARISON OF THE QUALITY OF DISTANCE LEARNING COURSE WITH TRADITIONAL TRAINING COURSES IN INFECTION CONTROL FOR DENTAL STUDENTS**

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**ABSTRACT**

The aim of this study is to assess the quality of infection control training using distance education and the comparison of such assessment with classroom teaching method for the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> dental students of Hamadan Faculty of Dentistry. This intervention – empiric study was conducted in the Faculty of Dentistry, Hamadan University of Medical Sciences in 2013, Iran. The subjects were 73 junior and senior divided into two groups. The scores of both groups were compared and analyzed to evaluate teaching methods in promoting student information in the field of infection control. The collected information will be analyzed by SPSS19 software, descriptive statistics and statistical tests such as t-test and paired t-test. Distance education used in this study is a type of asymmetric training and the CD-ROM based training was used in implementing and running the e-learning system. The use of distance learning methods (CD-ROM Model) had overall a better effect than the method of classroom teaching.

**KEYWORDS:** Distance Learning, E-learning, Education, Class Teaching Method, Infection Control

**INTRODUCTION**

New technology has created fundamental changes in the educational system and it is able to solve many inefficiencies of the traditional educational system (Reime et al, 2008; Chaffin et al, 2008; Kossioni et al, 2013). In recent years, e-learning systems have greatly increased.

E-Learning in the definition means learning the educational basics via the Internet or Intranet or using multimedia such as a DVD or CD-ROM for the learner (Gray et al, 2007). Due to the increasing number of new universities and enrolled students, increasing the need for their presence at the University, shortage of teachers and its subsequent economic issues, the explosive growth of available resources, the use of new teaching methods in the Health Sciences necessitate some opportunities to change traditional teaching methods in the class (Woo et al, 2000). Some of the advantages of distance learning are: easy access to contents anytime and anyplace for students, lack of possible simultaneous presence of all students at a specific time and space, students' participation in their learning process, more repetition of materials if necessary, flexible time of training, lowering the cost (Anaraki et al, 2004; Garland et al 2010; O'Neill et al, 2011). This method has some disadvantages; there should be an easy access to computers and the Internet. The learners are separated from the educators and due to lack of a face-to-face and eye contact some learners may misunderstand the content (Schonwetter et al, 2012).

E-learning method has been considered dentistry and it seems that it has high and growing potential in dental education (Matteos et al, 2010; Richards, 2008; Sitzmann et al, 2006). Determination of the best way for education for today's generation of dentists is not a simple issue; not only educational concepts are important, but the way of education is extremely important (Barnes et al, 2013). Although numerous studies examined the application of these methods and its weakness and strength points of this training method in medical and nursing students, specific research in the field of distance education in dental education is rather low (Barnes et al, 2013).

When examining the literature at the intersection of teaching and learning with information and communication technology (ICTs), one is struck by the relative lack of focus upon the potential problems and drawbacks of the incorporation of technology into educational work-life (i.e. Granger, Morbey, Lotherington, Owston, & Wideman, 2002; Hassini, 2006; Liaw, Huang, & Chen, 2007; Marbach-Ad & Sokolove, 2001; Marbach-Ad & Sokolove, 2002; Mazzolini & Maddison, 2007; Ruthven, Hennessy, & Deaney, 2005).

A study done by Gray (2007) in the UK showed that continuous Medical Education of infection control for the dentists has been successful in the case of CD-ROM and this leads to their knowledge increase in this context; additionally, the learners were satisfied in applying this method of teaching (Chaffin et al, 2008). On the other, one of the concerns of today's society is strict observing of infection control and preventing the transmission of dangerous contagious diseases such as hepatitis and AIDS during dental treatments (Abdelaziz, 2011). As a result, training dental students in this context and codifying regular and ongoing courses of infection control training is necessary to be reminded and updated their dentistry (Favretto, 2005). So, to achieve convenient, consistent and low cost infection control training techniques is necessary.

The aim of this study is to assess the quality of infection control training using distance education and the comparison of such assessment with classroom teaching method for the 20<sup>th</sup> and 21<sup>st</sup> dental students of Hamadan Faculty of Dentistry.

#### RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question of this study would be:

Does the quality of distance learning (e-learning) courses differ from that of traditional classroom teaching methods in terms of control infection for Hamedan dental students?

#### METHODOLOGY

##### *The Study Population*

This intervention – empiric study was conducted in the Faculty of Dentistry, Hamadan University of Medical Sciences in 2013. The subjects were 73 junior and senior students who no courses in the field of infection control were provided to them. According to the university curriculum, infection control course, which is a mandatory course, was presented to the students. In the first group, 35 students of 5<sup>th</sup> semester attended in a class this lesson through traditional teaching methods (physical attendance in the classroom); and, a trainer taught them 8 sessions in the second semester of 2013 according to the curriculum; and, some teaching aids were used such as preparing PowerPoint slides in class. At the beginning of the semester, a test was taken from the student to determine their level and at the end of the semester final exam was taken from this group of students (Total questions = 30).

The second group consisted of 38 students of 4<sup>th</sup> semester which this lesson was presented in the first semester of 2013 via distance learning method. Before presenting the lesson a preliminary test was taken from this group.

##### *Instruments of the Study*

Shortly, the instruments of this study were tests and a CD-ROM based model of teaching which will be discussed in details here. Two pre-tests were taken to ensure that the two groups are the same in terms of basic data in the field of infection control. Since separating groups in terms of age and gender reduces the studied population, the effect of education was considered regardless of such factors; in fact, the two groups were matched in this regard.

Distance education used in this study is a type of asymmetric training and in implementing and running the above system the CD-ROM based training was used. With this method, students were provided with a self-centered approach (Gordon et al, 2004).

##### *Data Collection Procedure*

As mentioned above, for data collection pre- and post-tests, including 30 items, are used among 2 separate groups of students. In the present study, students' hardware was considered and it was assured that all of them have easy access to computers and skills necessary to use computers. Educational content was similar in both groups based on approved topics of college curriculum in the field of infection control and it was established using reputable books and websites in this context. For example, infection control operation was presented by a qualified person in this area. Before presentation of CD content to students, in a briefing session at the beginning of the semester implementation of distance education was explained to all students.

##### *CD-ROM preparation method*

Desired content was divided into separate sections for training in such a way that each training topic can be presented in two or more 20-minute-parts in order to help the learners learn the training materials eagerly and tirelessly. After planning and organization of training course the content was divided into multiple separate sessions and different ways of presentation were used such as audio and video files to improve education. To this end, the following procedure was used in the preparation of CDs:

1. Text preparation: Headings subject and the main content were shown in the form of a simple text in PowerPoint format slides; and, slides were prepared, based on the standard, in such a way that the text did not exceed 6 lines per page. In training, images and animations related to the topic of the slides were used to attract the learners and prevent them from being fatigued or exhausted.
2. Audio files preparation: The educators explained the educational materials in an appropriate environment and their voices were recorded. Then the recordings were separated regarding each slide. To prepare audio file Wave Pad sound software was used.
3. PowerPoint Audio Preparation: Audio and visual files to PowerPoint were matched with each other using I-Spining Software. Thus, the audio file will appear on the display along with displaying text in PowerPoint according to content being presented by educator at appropriate intervals and by taking the necessary feedback. Thus, the optimal combination of written words and audio along with conservation and recovery capabilities leads to increase the information stored in the learner's mind.

Then all the audio and visual PowerPoint files regarding Infection control training were collected in a file in 6 chapters and the references of materials were also added. Educational set prepared in the form of DVD and was set at the homepage of the University which was entitled 'virtual learning' at the students' disposal.

File size was sufficient that could be readily and easily available for download for all the learners. In a follow-up, the researchers made sure that all the educators had adequate access to educational materials for all training semester (4 months) and the learners had enough time to study training subjects. At the end of the second semester, students will have a final exam. Exam questions were perfectly matched with the first group of questions in terms of complexity and numbers (which was assessed by experienced teachers).

##### *Data Analysis*

The scores of both groups were compared and analyzed to evaluate teaching methods in promoting student information in the field of infection control. The collected information will be analyzed by SPSS19 software, descriptive statistics and statistical tests such as t-test and paired t-test.

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, 73 students were tested. Firstgroup, including 38 people,trained under distance education method and second group,including 35 people, experienced the classroom training.The comparison of test results (pre test)of 2 groups showed that the average pre-test scores in distance education (Group 1) is 35.6% and class training (Group 2) is 35.7%. Therefore, a significant difference does not exist between the scores of students in the two educational methods (0.976 = P value) (Table 1).

The mean scores of the studentsinthe final test in the group of distance education was 64.6% and in the case of group classroom instruction 58.5% which statisticallythere is a significant difference between the scores of these two groups of students (0.015 = P value) (Table 2).

Table 1: Comparison of mean scores of the 2 groups at the initiation of study

groups	participants	Mean scores (20)	SD	The test statistic	Degree of freedom	P value
e-learning	38	7.13	1.711	-0.030	71	0.976
Classroom-based	35	7.14	1.517	-0.030	70.905	

Table 2: Comparison of mean scores of the 2 groups at the end of study

groups	participants	Mean scores (20)	SD	The test statistic	Degree of freedom	P value
e-learning	38	12.92	2.271	2.486	71	0.015
Classroom-based	35	11.71	1.832	2.508	69.828	

According to Table 3, the mean percentage scores of students in Group 1 increased from 35.5% in the initial testto 64.6% at the end of the period. It shows there is a significant difference in terms of their awareness of infection control before and after the training among two groups (0.000 = P value).

Table 3: Results of the initial and final Test in distance education group

groups	participants	Mean scores (20)	The test statistic	Degree of freedom	P value
Pre-test of 1 <sup>st</sup> group	38	7.13	-15.077	37	0.000
Post-test of 1 <sup>st</sup> group	38	12.92			

According to Table 4, the mean percentage scores of students in Group 2 increased from 35.7% in the initial testto 57% at the end of the period. It shows there is a significant difference in terms of their awareness of infection control before and after the training among two groups (0.000 = P value).

Table 4: Results of the initial and final Test in distance education group

groups	participants	Mean scores (20)	SD	The test statistic	Degree of freedom	P value
Pre-test of 2 <sup>nd</sup> group	35	7.14	1.517	-13.254	37	0.000
Post-test of 2 <sup>nd</sup> group	35	11.71	1.832			

**Discussion**

According to the results this study, the averagescores of student on the final exam in comparison to the beginning test in the course in both methods had significantly increased. So, both methods were effective in promoting the learner’s knowledge and skillsin controlling the infection.In addition, in our study the average final grades for distance education group was 64.6% and for classroom instruction group is 58.5% which can be stated that distance learning method is a more effective method than classroom instruction group.

Among the reviewed articles, the study of Garland and colleagues (2010) andReime and colleagues study (2008)was similar without study(Garland, 2010).The results of these two studies, unlike the present study, did not show asignificant difference between the methods of distance education with traditional methods.

In a study done by Garland,E-Learning was compared with classroom teaching method regarding infection control in the health of students (Garland, 2010). A study done by Reime on infection control training of nursing students was examined; and, distance education (CD-ROM Model)was compared withthe lecture method (Lecture Model) (ibid).While in the present study distance learning is a type of asymmetric CD-ROM-based training and the surveyed study populationsare dentistry students.

In these two studies, unlike our study, a pre-test has not been taken at the beginning.But satisfaction questionnaire of training method was provided and the impact of age and gender in the effectiveness of training methods was assessed in which in this study, due to the limited number of samples, these variables were similar between the two groups.

Also a study ofStizmann and colleagues similar toReime reported that when the training content and the learners are the same, e-learning as classroom teaching method can influence on the students’ awareness in training (Gordon et al, 2004). Our study also reported that methods of distance learning and classroom teaching methods were equally effective in terms of various educational concepts (Atack et al, 2008; Ruiz et al, 2006; Woo et al, 2000; Bernardet al, 2004; Gordon et al, 2004).

**CONCLUSION**

In our study, the presented topics and the trainer for both groups were similar.So, the only variable was the educational method.But unlike the aforementioned studies,method of distance educationwas more effective than the classroom instructionmethod.The difference in the results can be used to explainthat limitations and challenges of distance learning methods should be overcome. The disadvantages of distance education fail for a better distribution of educational contentbetween training clients;this means that despite the collection of appropriate materials, it may not be possible for learners to access to such materials or they may not pay attention to thattraining material (Chaffin, 2008).Other flaw in the mentioned studies is lack of opportunity for asking questions appropriate time (Atack et al, 2008).

Also due to the large units in a semester course for students and the existing constraints in the learning environment usually classes were held in the afternoon that the students were very tired which affected the quality of education. Since the method of e-learning lacks time and space constraints for learners, they can choose their own appropriate time for training. It seems that in our study, these factors led to a more effective approach than that of classroom training.

In a study done by Gray and colleagues (2007), the effectiveness of distance learning methods in the type of CD-ROM in the training of infection control was reviewed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Analysis of test scores in pre- and post-tests revealed that Gray's CD-ROM training method in infection control is significantly associated with knowledge increase in this area (Chaffin, 2008). In this study, the CD-ROM model was used and pre- and post-test was taken from the learners. In our study, the CD-ROM method has been effective in infection control training, but it was not compared with other training methods. Gray (2007) has assessed the client's satisfaction level training course but we have not done that.

According to the study of Schonwetter there are several types of distance education each of which has its own merits and demerits; and, they have their own specific features and needs (Schonwetter et al, 2012). Although CD-ROM approach was not the best one in the various methods of distance education, it was acceptable. Based on the existing facilities at the colleges, it seemed that this approach is most useful regarding student access to the needed tools for this procedure such as broadband (Woo et al, 2000). However, previous studies have reported the effectiveness of the CD-ROM as well (Favretto et al, 2005; Kossioni et al, 2013; Al-Omari et al, 2005).

#### Limitations of the study

In our study, to minimize the limitations and problems of e-learning methods educational content was placed on the site and DVD content were delivered to the students. Also, the professor at the beginning of training session held a briefing session for the students and explained about the teaching methods and how to access the content; and, also the course objectives were describe. In addition, the teachers and their training methods were introduced to the students to communicate with them in the case of any question. Since this method of training was provided in the form of course curriculum, students had to pass the method in order to pass the course.

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EXPRESSIVE SPEECH ACT OF JUDGES' NARRATIVES IN  
X-FACTOR INDONESIA TALENT SHOW ON RAJAWALI CITRA TELEVISI INDONESIA (RCTI):  
A PRAGMATIC STUDY

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**ABSTRACT**

This article tends to find out the types of expressive speech act of judges' narratives and politeness strategies and substrategies used in X-Factor Indonesia talent show broadcasted by *Rajawali Citra Televisi Indonesia (RCTI)*. The method used in this article is descriptive method which describe the data systematically, actually, and accurately. The technique of data collecting uses uninvolved conversation observation technique. The use of this technique means that the present writer does not involve in the dialogues. Meanwhile, for the technique of data analysis, the present writer uses pragmatic competence-in-dividing. The data used in this article is judges' narratives of X-Factor Indonesia talent show broadcasted from March 22 to May 3 2013. The main theory of this article is the pragmatic theory of Searle's Speech Act and Brown and Levinson's Politeness Strategy (2007). The result of the research shows that the types of expressive speech act of judges' narratives of X-Factor Indonesia are praising, congratulating, thanking, and criticizing. The politeness strategies of X-Factor Indonesia judges are positive politeness, bald on record, and off record strategies.

**KEYWORD:** pragmatics, expressive speech act, politeness strategy, narrative, X-Factor Indonesia

**INTRODUCTION**

*The Background of Study*

In X-Factor Indonesia talent show, the judging of the commentators or judges plays a very important role in affecting the contestants' performance. This is due to the fact that the contestants must perform better than their performances before. The comments or the judging of the judges can be also called as narratives. According to Chaer (2010: 22), "narrative can be mentioned as the realisation of abstract language." In the realisation, speakers of a language consist of heterogenous community. This results to the diversity of narratives of the language. Further, Chaer explains that language can be abstract because it cannot be observed empirically, while narratives can be observed empirically by listening.

The politeness of one's narrative can be different from the others based on knowledge and social background of that person. This also apply to the judges' narratives of X-Factor Indonesia. Each judge has its own way or strategy in choosing sentences that will be delivering to the contestants. This strategy makes each of judges' narrative different from the others.

Brown and Levinson in Chaer (2010) devide the scale of determining the ranking of politeness of a narrative into three scales. These three scales are determined contextually, socially, and culturally. The three scales are (1) social distance, which is based on the parameter of age, sex, and sociocultural differences; (2) social status of the speaker and the addressee, which is based on the asymmetrical speaker and addressee; (3) speech act, which is based on the speech act relative position between one and another.

This is what makes the present writer interesting to study further about narratives of X-Factor Indonesia judges. This article focuses on the use of expressive narratives and the realisation of politeness strategies.

**THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

*Pragmatics*

The first theory used in this research is the theory of Pragmatics. There are several definitions regarding pragmatics. According to Leech (1993: 1) "proposes that one cannot understand completely the characteristic of language, should he/she does not understand pragmatics, that is how language is used to communicate." This statement shows that pragmatics cannot be separated form the use of language. In Rahardi (2009: 20), Levinson defines pragmatics as the study of language focusing on the relationship between language and its context. This context has been grammaticalized and codified so that it cannot be separated from its structure of language. This limitation of Levinson can be explained as follow: "Pragmatics is the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of language".

*Speech Act*

Speech act used in the form of performative sentences is formulated by Austin (1962) as in three different acts, that is, (1) locutionary act, (2) illocutionary act, and (3) perlocutionary act. Locutionary act is an act of stating something as the way it is (*The Act of Saying Something*). Illocutionary act is an act of stating and doing something (*The Act of Doing Something*). Perlocutionary act is an act of affecting someone or the one who listen to the narrative. Perlocutionary act is often called as *The Act of Affective Someone* (the act of affecting someone). Searle in Rahardi (2009) classifies the illocutionary act of narrative into five types of narrative, that is, assertive, directive, expressive, commissive, and declarative. This research focuses on the expressive type functioning of stating or showing the speaker's psychological attitude of certain circumstances as (a) thanking, (b) congratulating, (c) pardoning, (d) blaming, (e) prasing, (f) criticizing, and (g) condoling.

**SPEAKING Theory**

Hymes (1962) in Sumarsono (2011, 335) proposes what he calls as SPEAKING. This stands for “*S*=Situation, *P*=Participant, *E*=End, *A*=Act sequence, *K*=Key, *I*=Instrumentalities, *N*=Norms, *G*=Genre”. The *S* stands for situation which refers to the settings, interactions, and scenes. The *P* stands for participant involved in interactions. The *E* stands for end which refers to the purposes of the interactions. The *A* stands for act sequence which refers to the forms and contents of the interactions. The *K* stands for key referring to the style of how the speaker communicate. The *I* stands for instrumentalities which refer to the media and forms of interactions. The *N* stands for norms referring to the norms of interactions and interpretations, and the *G* stands for *genre* which refers to types of interactions.

#### **Politeness Strategy**

Brown and Levinson (1987: 60) divides the politeness strategies into five strategies. These five strategies are bald on record strategy, positive politeness strategy, negative politeness strategy, off record strategy, and ‘don’t do the FTA’ strategy.

#### **Bald on Record Strategy**

According to Brown and Levinson (1987: 69-70), the bald on record strategy is a strategy of saying something clearly. The main reason of choosing this strategy, based on Brown and Levinson (1987: 95) is due to the speaker’s logic of doing FTA to the extent.

#### **Positive Politeness Strategy**

Brown and Levinson (1987: 101) proposes that the positive politeness strategy is a strategy of doing FTA in the way of saving face or keeping the positive face of the addressee. By doing the FTA, the speaker gives an impression that he/she has the same intention as the addressee of showing friendship between them.

#### **Negative Politeness Strategy**

Based on Brown and Levinson (1987: 129), the negative politeness strategy is a strategy of saving negative face of the addressee to maintain the free act of the addressee. By doing this strategy, the speaker recognizes and respects the negative face of the addressee.

#### **Off Record Strategy**

Brown and Levinson (1987: 211) argues that the off record strategy is a strategy of doing FTA indirectly by letting the addressee to freely interpret the speaker’s narratives.

### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

According to the explanation above, the research questions of this article are:

1. What types of expressive narratives are used in X-Factor Indonesia judges’ narrative?
2. What types of politeness strategies are used to realize the expressive narratives of the X-Factor Indonesia judges?

### **METHODOLOGY AND TECHNIQUE**

#### **Method**

The method used in this research is descriptive-qualitative. This method aims to describe the characteristics of the data and the related phenomena systematically, actually, and accurately (Djajasudarma, 1993:8). The word of ‘descriptive’ is derived from a latin word “*descriptivus*” which means ‘analyzing’. A descriptive research is a research of collecting information about the subject of the research and its attitudes in a certain period. The descriptive-qualitative research tries to describe the whole tendency or existing situation, that is the situation as the way it is at the time of the research (Mukhtar, 2013:10).

#### **Method and Technique Of Data Collecting**

This research uses an observation method. In accordance with the name, this method provides the data by observing the use of language in the real situation. Meanwhile for the technique, the present writer uses tapping technique as the basic. Further, it is also used uninvolved conversation observation technique as the following technique (Sudaryanto, 1993: 133-136). The following technique or the advanced one which supports the research is the technique of uninvolved conversation observation. The use of the technique means that the present writer does not involve in the dialogues or conversations. The present writer does not participate in the conversations. Here, the present writer’s role is as an observer by listening what is said (not what is talked about) by the participants in the dialogue (Sudaryanto, 1993: 134-135). The concept of dialogue falls into a wide definition. It means that the dialogue here refers to an interaction involving at least two participants which happens to be a speaker and an addressee in the way of communicating to each other (two ways interaction) or in the way of contacting (one way interaction). Uninvolved conversation observation technique is used to observe the dialogue between the speakers (judges of X-Factor Indonesia) and the addressees (the contestants) in X-Factor Indonesia Show on Youtube channel of X-Factor Indonesia. After using the uninvolved conversation observation technique, it is used the writing technique.

#### **Method of Data Analyzing**

In analyzing the data, this research uses pragmatic competence-in-dividing (Sudaryanto, 1993: 15). This method is compatible when the language used as the object of the research has a relationship with the things outside the language itself no matter what the relationship is. Thus, the one which determines in the analysis as the ‘suprasegmental’ key is the addressees, for example in determining the imperative sentence which can affect the addressee.

#### **Data source**

This research is classified as a qualitative research. The methodology of qualitative one is a procedure which results descriptive data such as written or spoken data in a speech community (Djajasudarma, 1993:10). The data source of this research is transcriptions of X-Factor Indonesia judges’ narratives during the show. The number of the show used in the research is about seven episodes broadcasted from March 22 to May 3 2013, which happens to contain twenty five of expressive narratives.

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

Table 1: The Result of Using Assertive Speech Act of X-Factor Indonesia Judges' Narratives

No	Types of Expressive Speech Act	Amount	Percentage
1	Praising	18	72 %
2	Congrating	3	12 %
3	Thanking	1	4 %
4	Criticizing	3	12 %
<b>Total</b>		<b>25</b>	<b>100 %</b>

Table 2: The Realisation of Using Politeness Strategy in Expressive Speech Act of X-Factor Indonesia Judges' Narratives

No	Types of Expressive Speech Act	Politeness Strategies and Substrategies	Amount	Percentage
1	Praising	Positive Politeness (attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods))	6	24 %
2		Positive Politeness Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)	2	8 %
3		Positive Politeness Intensify interest to H	5	20 %
4		Positive Politeness seek agreement	1	4 %
5		Positive Politeness joke	1	4 %
6		Positive Politeness be optimistic	1	4 %
7		Positive Politeness include both S dan H in the activity	1	4 %
8	Congratulating	Positive Politeness include both S dan H in the activity	1	4 %
9		Positive Politeness intensify interest to H	1	4 %
10		Positive Politeness Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)	1	4 %
11	Thanking	Positive Politeness use in group identity markers	1	4 %
12	Criticizing	Bald on record	2	8 %
13		Off Record Strategy give association clues	2	8 %
<b>TOTAL</b>			<b>25</b>	<b>100 %</b>

Table 2 shows the realisation of politeness strategy of expressive narratives in X-Factor Indonesia judges' narratives. The most frequent of politeness strategy used in the narratives is the positive politeness with the substrategy attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods). The data analysis based on the classification of table 1 and 2 as follow:

**Types of Expressive Speech Act**

*Expressive-Praising*

- (1) This narrative is spoken by Anggun C. Sasmi (the International female singer of Indonesia), she is the speaker while for the addressee is Gede Bagus (a contestant from Bali). At the show aired on March 22 2013, he sang a song titled "Aku Sedang Ingin Bercinta" popularized by The Rock Indonesia.

Juri 3 : Gede! (D1.21)

Judge 3 : Gede

Judge 3 : Gede (D1.21)

G : Ya, Mbak. (D1.22)

G : Yes, (older woman)

G : Yes, Miss (D1.21)

Juri 3 : (Tertawa) Pokoknya/ malam/ ini/ aku/ puas/ sekali/ melihat/ kamu/ dan /aku/ seneng/ karena /kamu/ setiap/ kali/ aku/ kasih/ tantangan/, kamu/ tuh/ mau/ gitu/ loh/. Gak/ takut/ sama/ sekali/ dan/ ini/ buat/ aku/ kelebihan/nya./ /kamu/ juga/ bukan /Cuma/ suara./ dalam /mental/ di /kepala/ kamu/ tuh/ mau /banget/ dan/ buat/ aku /seru/ malam/ ini/. **Bangga/ aku/ sama/ kamu./** (D1.23)

Judge 3 : (laughing) the basic/ night/ this/ I satisfied/ once/see/ you/and/I/happy/because/you/every/times/I/love/challenge/you/that/want /like that/right/. Not/afraid/same/once/and/this/make/I/excess/you/too/not/only/voice/in/ mental/in/head/you/that/want/very/and/make/I/yell/night/this/proud/I/same /you/

Judge 3 : (Laughing) The point is, tonight I am very satisfied seeing you and I am happy because everytime I give a challenge, you are so welcomed. You are not afraid at all and this is your advantage to me, you have not only voice but also the spirit in your head that you are so welcomed and you make me rock tonight. I am so proud of you

G : Terima/ kasih./ Mbak/ Anggun./ Terima/ kasih/ semua/. (D1.24)

G : accept/love/older women/Anggun./accept/love/all/.

G : Thank you Miss Anggun. Thank you all.

The type of expressive speech act-praising in the data (1) is marked by the use of the praising words that is *puas* (satisfied), *senang* (happy), dan *bangga* (proud) (D1.23). The speaker seems to be impressed by the addressee's performance that night.

*Expressive-Congratulating*

- (2) The following narrative is spoken by Bebi Romeo (a male singer of Romeo band) addressed to Nu Dimension (a male group contestant) on the March 22 2013 show. That night, Nu Dimension sang a song titled "Kirana" popularized by Dewa 19.

Juri 2 : Karena/menurut/saya,/"Kirana"/bukan/lagu/yang,/bukan/lagu/ yang,/ /emmm,  
/lagu/popular/,tapi/cukup/pintar/ gitu/ dengan/ notasi-notasi/ yang/ nggak,/ menurut/ saya/ bukan/ notasi  
/murahan/ gitu./ Dan/ kamu/ berhasil/ membuat/ notasi-notasi/ itu/ juga/ dengan/ mahal  
/kedengerannya,/ dengan/ formasi/ grup/ yah./ **Sekali/ lagi/ selamat/ untuk/ Nu Dimension/**  
**malam/ ini./ (D5.3)**

Judge 2 : because/according to/I Kirana/ not/ song/ particle /not/ song/ particle /emmm/ song/ popular/ but/  
enough/ smart/ like that/ right/ with/ notations/ particle/ not/ according to/ I not/ notation/ cheap/ like that/  
and/ you/ success/ make/ notations/ that/also/ with/ expensive/ listened/ with/  
formation/ group/ well/ once/ too/ safe/ to/ Nu Dimension/ night/ this/.

Judge 2 : Because I think "Kirana" is not a song..emmm, it's not a popular song, but it's smart enough with those  
notations. I think those are not low quality notations. And you are succeeded making those notations into a whole  
new level, they sound high quality with that group formation. Well, once again congratulations  
to Nu Dimension for tonight.

ND : Terima/kasih/Mas/Bebi. (D5.4)  
ND : accept/ love/ older man/ Bebi  
ND : Thank you Mister Bebi

In the data (2), the type of expressive speech act-congratulating is marked by the use of the word *selamat* (congratulation). The use of such a word functions as congratulating marker for the outstanding performance of Nu Dimension that night.

*Expressive-Thanking*

(3) The following narrative is spoken by Rossa (an Indonesian female singer) addressed to Fatin (the youngest female contestant) on the March 29 2013 show. That night, Fatin sang a song of "It Will Rain" popularized by Bruno Mars

Juri 4 : Alhamdulillahirabilalamin,/ setiap/ hari/ Jumat/ saya/ mules/ banget/ rasanya/kalau/ Menunggu/ ini./  
Fatin/ ini/, apa/ namanya?/ Pujian /dari/ tiga/ mentor/mereka/ adalah orang-orang/ yang /paling/  
kompeten/. Mau/ mereka/ memuji/atau/ pun/ mengkritik/ itu/ adalah/ satu /hal /pelajaran/ buat/ kita/  
mudah-mudahan/ minggu/ depan/ kita /bisa/ semakin/ lebih/ baik/ lag/i. Amin./ **Terima/kasih/ juga/ buat**  
**/Fatinistik /yang /selalu/ memberikan/ semangat/, terima/kasih /banyak./ Good /Job/ Fatin!./ (D17.28)**

Judge 4 : thanking god/ every/ day/ Friday/ I stomachache/ very/ feel/ if/ wait/this/ Fatin/this/ what/ name/  
compliment/ from/ three/ mentor/ they/ are/ people/ particle/most/ competent/ want/ they/ praise/ or/even/  
criticize/ that/ is/ one/ thing/ lesson/ make/ we/ easy/ Sunday/ front/ we/ can/ more/ more/good/ again/  
amin/ accept/love/ too/ make/Fatinistik/particle/ always/ give/ spirit/ accept/ love/ many/ Good/ Job/ Fatin.  
Judge 4 : (Thanking God), every Friday I am nervous waiting for this. Fatin, this is, what is it called? The  
compliments from the three other mentors, they are the most competent people. Whether they praise or  
criticize, it is a lesson for us, so that next week we can be better. Amin, Thank you for Fatinistik that  
always give their support, thank you. God Job Fatin.

F : /Terima/ kasih/. (D17.29)  
F : accept/ love/  
F : Thank you.

The type of expressive speech act-thanking in the data (3) is marked by the use of the frase 'thank you' spoken by the speaker to the addressee. The speaker thanks to Fatin's fans who always give support to Fatin during the Fatin's performance in X-Factor.

*Expressive-Criticizing*

(4) The following narrative is spoken bay Ahmad Dani (a male singer of Dewa band) to Fatin on the April 12 2013 show. That night, Fatin sang a song of "Arti Hadirmu" by Audi (an Indonesia female singer).

Juri 1 : Komentarnya/... Aaa/, komentarnya/ **kamu/ gak/ cocok/ nyanyi/ lagu/ ini./ (D26.37)**

Judge 1 : comment/.../aa/ comment/ you/ not/ compatible/ sing/ song/ this/  
Judge 1 : My comment...aa..my comment is that you are just not right singing this song

F : Oh/, ya /Mas /Dani/. **Terima/ kasih. (D27.38)**  
F : Oh/ yes/ older man/ Dani/ accept/ love  
F : Oh/ yok Mister Dani. Thank you

In the data (4), the type of expressive speech act-criticizing is marked by the use of the sentence "kamu gak cocok nyanyi lagu ini" (you are just not right singing this song) (D26.37). The use of this sentence describes that the speaker does not like the addressee's performance that night. The speaker directly gives his critic to the addressee.

*The realisation of Politeness Strategy*

*Expressive-Praising – Possitive Politeness-notice, attend to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)*

(5) The following narrative is spoken by Anngun C. Samsi (an International singer of Indonesia) to Shenna (a contestant from Jakarta) on March 22 2013 show. That night, Shenna sang a song of "Ratu Sejadag" by Vina Panduwinata.

Juri 3 : Shenna,/ aku/ liat/ kamu/ nyanyi/ lagu-lagu/ sedih/ berkali-kali/  
**penghayatannya/ dapat/, dan /kalau/ kamu/ nyanyi/ lagu/ seneng/ pun/ penghayatannya**  
**/dapat./ gayanya/ dapat/ karena/ kamu/ tuh/ memang/.. /Ini/ sebenarnya/ susah/ loh/ buat/ penyanyi/**  
untuk/ nyanyi/ lagu/ yang seneng./ itu/ susah./ Kalau/ nyanyi/ lagu/ sedih/ itu/ gampang/  
sebenarnya/ karena/ mungkin kan/ kita/ bisa/ masukin/, kayak/ nyari-nyari/  
pengalaman/ diri/ sendiri/ yang/ bikin/ kita/ sedih/, tapi/ **gak/ banyak/ orang/ yang/**  
**bisa/ nyanyi/ lagu /seneng/ tuh //dengan/ berhasil/, kamu/ berhasil/ sekali. (D2.20)**

Judge 3 : Shenna/ I see/ you/ sing/ songs/ sad/ times/ comprehension/ get/ and/ if/ sing/ song/  
happy/ even/ comprehension/ get/ style/ get/ because/ you. that/ indeed/ this/ actually/  
difficult/right/ make/ singer/ to/ sing/ song/ particle/ happy/ that/ difficult/ if/ sing/ song/ sad/ that/ easy/

actually/ because/ maybe/ we/ can/ include/ like/ search/experience/ self/ alone/  
 particle/ we/ sad/ but/ not/ many/ people/ particle/ can/ sing/ song/ happy/ that/ with/  
 success/ you/ success/once.  
 Judge 3 : Shenna. I observe that you sing sad songs many times. And everytime you get the  
 messages of the song. Also when you sing happy songs as well you get the messages because you are....Actually,  
 it is difficult for a singer to sing a happy song. It is very difficult but to sing a sad song is very easy  
 since we can add our own experiences that make us sad. Not many  
 actually who can sing a happy song, and it works for you. it really works.  
 S : *Makasih/Mbak/ Anggun.* (D2.21)  
 S : Thank you/ older woman/ Anggun  
 S : Thank you Miss Anggun

In the data (5), the realisation of the politeness of the expressive narrative is marked by the words choice that are bold in the data (D2.20). Those words show that the speaker really likes the addressee's performance that.

**Expressive-Praising – Positive Politeness-Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)**

(6) The following narrative is spoken by Rossa (an Indonesian female singer) to Mikha (the youngest male contestant) after he sang a song of "Sempurna" by Andra and The Backbone.

Juri 4 : *Wow!, Mikha!.* (D8.1)  
 Judge 4 : Wow/ Mikha  
 M : *Ya, /Mbak.* (D8.2)  
 M : Yes/ older woman  
 M : Yes/ Miss  
 Juri 4 : *Pertama-tama/ saya /suka/ karakter/ suara/ kamu/. Dari/ awal/ kamu/ ada/ di/ depan/ saya/ dan/ cara /kamu/ menyanyi/ malam/ hari/ ini /sama/ sekali/ terlepas/ dari/ yang/ sebelumnya/ yang/ menyanyikan/ lagu/ ini./ dan /dirilis/ sebagai/ album/ mereka./ malam/ hari/ ini/ kamu/ menjadikan/ lagu/ ini/ memang/ lagu /kamu/. Yang/ satu/ lagi/ yang/ pengen/ saya/ komentari/ adalah/ luar/ biasa /panggunnya/ yah/, hanya/ ada/ di/ X Factor Indonesia /deh/ kayaknya./ Keren/ banget/ Kak/ Ari Tulang./ membuat/ kegilaan-kegilaan /di/ atas/ panggung/ ini /dan/ Mikha/ malam/ hari/ ini/ semua/ cewek /atau/ pun/ cowok/ juga/ jerit-jeritin/ nama kamu.* (D8.3)  
 Judge 4 : first/ I/ like/ character/ voice/ you/ From/ beginning/ you/ exist/ in/ front/ I/ and/ way/ you/ sing/ night/ day/ this/ same/ once/ from/ particle/ before/ particle/ sing/ song/ this/ and/ released/ as/ album/ they/ night/ day/ this/ you/ make/ song/ this/ indeed/ song/ you/ Particle/ one/ again/ particle/ I/ comment/ is/ out/ ordinary/ stage/ yes/ only/ exist/ in/ X-Factor Indonesia/ yes/like/. Impressive/ very/ older man/ Ari Tulang/ make/ craziness/ in/ above/ stage/ this/ and/ Mikha/ night/ day/ this/ all/ girls/ or/ even/ boys/ too/ yell/ name/ you/  
 Judge 4 : First of all, I like your voice character. Since the beginning you stood in front of me and they way you sang tonight, regardless the others who sang this song before and it was released as their album, tonight you make this song yours. One thing I would like to comment is that the stage is amazing and it is only in X-Factor Indonesia. It is very impressive that Mister Ari Tulang made this craziness on the stage and Mikha, tonight not only girls but also the boys are yelling for your name.  
 M : *Makasih/ Mbak.* (D8.4)  
 M : Thank you /older woman  
 M : Thank you Miss

The realisation of the politeness of the expressive narrative in the data (6) is marked by using the interjection "wow". The use of the interjection shows the impressiveness of the speaker towards the addressee. Then, the use of the sentence, "saya suka karakter suara kamu" (I like your voice character) and "Mikha malam hari ini semua cewek atau pun cowok juga jerit-jeritin nama kamu" (Mikha, tonight not only the girls but also the boys are yelling for your name) shows that the speaker exaggerates the addressee's performance in that show that night

**Expressive-Praising – Positive Politeness-Intensify interest to H**

(7) The following narrative is spoken by Bebi Romeo to Shenna after she sang a song of "Ratu Sejagad" by Vina Panduwinata.

Juri 2 : *Karena/malam/ hari/ ini/ kamu /memang/ superstar/ ya/, kamu/ bagus /sekali/ Malam/ ini/, Shenna.* (D2.9)  
 Judge 2 : because/ night/ day/ this/ you/ indeed/ superstar/ yes/ you/ good/ once/ night/ this/ shenna/  
 Judge 2 : Because tonight you ARE a superstar. You are so impressive tonight. Shenna.  
 S : *Makasih-makasih.* (D2.10)  
 S : Thank you, thank you  
 Juri 2 : *Kamu /punya/ suara/ mutlak/ saya/ bilang/. Kamu/ nyanyi/ bintang/ kecil pun./ kamu/ enak/ Shenna.* (D2.11)  
 Judge 2 : you/ have/ voice/ absolute/ I/ say/ You/ sing/ bintang kecil/ you/ delicious/ Shenna/  
 Judge 2 : I must say you have an absolute voice. Even if you sing bintang kecil, you will still sound good

The realisation of the politeness strategy in the data (7) that shows the expressive-praising is marked by the use of compliment sentences. The choice of using the sentence "Kamu memang superstar ya" (You ARE a superstar) can attract the addressee because she is praised like a superstar. Then, by using the sentence "Kamu punya suara mutlak" (You have an absolute voice) also show the same perception. The speaker uses the word "mutlak" (absolute) to attract the addressee's attention.

**Expressive-Praising – Positive Politeness-Seek agreement**

(8) The following narrative is spoken by Ahmad Dani to Shenna after she sang a song of Ratu Sejagad on the March 22 2013 show.

Juri 1 : *Gimana/ rasanya/ jadi /penyanyi/ jazz?.* (D2.1)

- Judge 1 : how/feel/ become/ singer/ jazz?  
 Judge 1 : How does it feel becoming a jazz singer?  
 S : Ya .... (D2.2)  
 S : Yes  
 Juri 1 : Saya/ gak /bisa/ mengingkari/ memang/ kamu/ soulnya/ di/ dalem/ itu /mungkin/ waktu/ mamamu/ ngidam/ kamu/ atau/ hamil/ kamu/ mungkin/ ada/ software-software/ jazz/ yang/ masuk/ ke/ dalam /darahmu/. Jadi/ udah/ build/ in/ di/ dalem/. Jadi,/ meskipun/ kamu/ gak/ tahu/ itu/ jazz/ tapi/ lagu/ ini /memang/ cocok/ sekali/ kamu/ bawain./ dengan/ ya/ pasti/ karena/ basicnya/ juga/ lagu/ ini /gak/ straight/ pop./ lagu/ ini/ sebenarnya/ ada /basic/ ragtime/, new/ orleans /juga/. Lagu/ ini/ diaransemen/ new /Orleans/ juga/ cocok./ New /Orleans/ itu /adalah/ kota/ dimana/ jazz/ itu/ pernah/ tumbuh./ Jadi,/ lagu/ ini/ cocok/ banget /buat/ kamu/ malam/ ini./ (D2.3)  
 Judge 1 : I/ not/ can/ deny/ indeed/ you/soul/ in/in/that/maybe/ time/ your mother/ crave/ you/ you/ or/ pregnant/ you/ maybe/ exist/ software-software/ jazz/ particle/ enter/ to/ in/ your blood/ so/ already/ build/in/ in/ inside/ so/ although/ you/ not/ know/ that/ jazz/ but/ song/ this/ indeed/ suitable/ once/ you/ bring/ with/ yes/ sure/ because/ the basic/ too/ song/ this/ not/ straight/ pop/ song/ this/ actually/ exist/ basic/ ragtime/ new/ orleans/ too/ song. This/ arranged/ new/ orleans/ too/ suitable/ new/ orleans/ that/ is/ city/ where/ jazz/ that/ ever/ grow/ so/ song/ this/ suitable/ very/ make/ you/ night/ this/  
 Judge 1 : I cannot deny that your soul are indeed in that song. Perhaps, when your mother craved for you or was pregnant of you there were jazz softwares that ran into your blood. So it was already built in. So, although you do not know jazz but this song fits perfectly for you. The basic of the song are not straight pop. This song actually has the ragtime basic of New Orleans too. It is also suitable when the song is arranged into New Orleans too. New Orleans is the city where jazz also ever developed. Thus, this song fits perfectly for you tonight.  
 S : Makasih/ Mas/ Dani (D2.4).  
 S : Thanking/ older man/ Dani  
 S : Thank you Mister Dani

The realisation of the politeness in the data (8) is marked by the repetition of the bold sentence (D2.3), this repetition is used to point out the agreement that the speaker really likes the addressee's performance that night.

#### Expressive-Praising – Positive Politeness-joke

- (9) The following narrative is spoken by Bebi Romeo to Fatin Shidqia Lubis after she sang a song of "Mercy" on the April 5 2013 show.

- Juri 2 : Ya, Fatin/ ya/. Artinya/ 100 /tahun/ sekali/, dunia/ ini /perlu /suara /kamu/. Kamu /bukan/ main/, kamu/ main/ bukan/ malam/ ini/. (D23.6)  
 Judge 2 : Yes/ Fatin/ Yes/ meaning/ 100/ year/ once/ world/ this/ need/ voice/ you/ you/ not/ play/ you/ play/ not/ night/ this  
 Judge 2 : Yes, Fatin, well, it means that every 100 years, this world needs your voice/ you Are outstanding, outstanding you Are.  
 F : Makasih/ Mas/ Bebi./ (D23.37)  
 F : Thanking/ older man/ Bebi  
 F : Thank you Mister Bebi  
 Juri 2 : Papa /seneng/, papa/ seneng./ (D23.38)  
 Judge 2 : Daddy/ happy/ Daddy/ happy  
 Judge 2 : Daddy is happy, daddy is happy

The realisation of positive politeness of expressive narrative-praising in the data (9) is marked by the use of the joke sentence to break the ice. It is used to make the situation more relaxed. In the bold sentence above, the speaker intentionally changes the narrative, "Kamu bukan main, kamu main bukan malam ini" (You ARE outstanding, outstanding you ARE)

#### Expressive-Praising – Positive Politeness-be optimistic

- (10) The following narrative is spoken by Bebi Romeo to Fatin in the show on March 29 2013. That night, Fatin sang a song of "It Will Rain" by Bruno Mars.

- Juri 2 : Heeh/ iyaaa/. Saya/ yakin/, saya/ yakin/ malam/ ini/ pasti/ lebih/ bagusan/ versi/ kamu/ dari /versi/ Bruno Mars/. (D17.17)  
 Judge 2 : Yes/ yes/ I/ believe/ I/ believe/ night/ this/ sure/ more/ good/ version/ you/ from/ version/ Bruno Mars  
 Judge 2 : Yes, yes, I believe..I believe that tonight your version is better than Bruno Mars'  
 F : Amin./ ya/ Allah./ Amin./ Alhamdulillah. / (D17.18)  
 F : Amen/ yes/ God/ Amen/ thanking God  
 F : Amen O'God. Amen/ Thanking God

In the narrative (10), the realisation of positive politeness of expressive narrative is marked by the use of a word containing optimism meaning, that is, the word 'believe'. In the narrative (D17.17), the speaker believes in the outstanding performance of the addressee.

#### Expressive-Praising – Positive Politeness-include both S dan H in the activity

- (11) The following narrative is spoken by Bebi Romeo to Alex Rudiart. That night, Alex sang a song of "Beraksi" by Kotak (Indonesia Rock Band)

- Juri 2 : Gak/ apa-apa/ Lex/, intinya/ semua/ masukan/ dari/ juri/ kita/ tampung/ sama-sama/ ya/, untuk/ kita/ lebih/ perbaiki/, untuk/ penampilan/ kita/ kedepannya/. Dan/ malam/ ini/ Papa/ menambah/ singkatan/ Papa/ jadi/ PPBSK/ papa/ dan/ penonton/ bangga/ sama/ kamu./ (D4.16)  
 Judge 2 : not/ what/ Lex/ the core/ all/ input/ from/ judge/ we/ keep/ same/ yes/ to/ we/ more/ better/ to/ performance/ we/ onwards/ and/ night/ this/ Daddy/ add/ abbreviation/ daddy/ become/ PPBSK/ daddy/ and spectator/ proud/ same/ you  
 Judge 2 : It's OK Lex, the point is all input from the judges, we keep it together for

us so that our performance can be better in the future. And tonight Daddy adds the abbreviation from Papa to *PPBSK*, daddy and the spectators are proud of you.  
 Al : *Terima/ kasih/ terima /kasih/ Mas./* (D4.17)  
 Al : accept/ love/ accept/ love/ older  
 Al : Thank you, Thank you Mister

The realisation of the politeness in the data (11) is marked by the use of the pronoun 'kita' (we). This shows that the speaker include the addressee into that narrative, and the narrative brings together the speaker and the addressee

**Expressive- Congratulating – Positive Politeness- include both S dan H in the activity**

(12) the following narrative is spoken by Rossa (as the speaker) to Shenna (as the addressee). That night, Shenna sang as ong of *Ratu Sejagad* by Vina Panduwinata.

Juri 4 : *Shenna/ aku/ sangat /bangga/ sama/ kamu./ Setiap/ minggu./ setiap/ kita /berlatih./ apapun/ yang/ aku/ bilang./ kamu/ selalu/ berusaha/ untuk/ menangkap/ itu/, mengembangkan/ sesuai/ dengan/ jiwa/ kamu/. Dan/ aku/ senang/ banget/ kerja/ sama/ kita/ berdua/ juga/ selalu/ asik./ Buat/ aku./ momen-momen/ yang/ aku/ tunggu/ itu/ kalau/ latihan/ sama/ kamu/ dan/ Fatin/. Congratulation/.* (D2.30)  
 Judge 4 : Shenna/ I/ very/ proud/ same/ you/ every/ Sunday. Every/ we/ practice/ anything/ particle/ I/ say/ you/ always/ try/ to/ catch/ that/ develop/ as/ with/ soul/ you/ and/ I/ Happy/ very/ work/ same/ we/ together/ too/ always/ fun/ make/ I/ moments/ particle/ I/ wait/ that/ if/ practice/ same/ you/ and/ Fatin. Congratulation  
 Judge 4 : Shenna, I am very proud of you. Every week, everytime we practice, everything I say, you always try to catch it, develop it to your soul. And I am very happy working together with you, it's always fun. To me, the moments I always wait for are when I practice together with you and Fatin. Congratulation  
 S : *Makasih/ Teh/ Oca.* (D2.31)  
 S : Thanking/ older woman/ Oca  
 S : Thank you Miss Oca

In the data (12) the realisation of the politeness of the expressive-narrative-congratulating is marked by using the word 'congratulation'. The use of the word 'congratulation' refers to the previous narrative, that is. '*aku senang banget kerja sama kita berdua juga selalu asik.*' (I am very happy working together with you, it's always fun). This shows that there is no distance between speaker and the addressee.

**Expressive-Congratulating – Positive Politeness-intensify interest to H**

(13) The following narrative is spoken by Bebi Romeo (as the speaker) to Nu Dimension (as the addressee). That night, Nu Dimension sang a song of *Kirana* by Dewa 19.

Juri 2 : *Karena/ menurut/ saya,/ "Kirana"/ bukan/ lagu/ yang/ bukan/ lagu/ yang/ /emmm, lagu/ popular/, tapi/ cukup/ pintar/ gitu/ loh/ dengan/ notasi-notasi/ yang/ nggak/ menurut/ saya/ bukan/ notasi/ murahan/ gitu./ Dan/ kamu/ berhasil/ membuat/ notasi-notasi/ itu/ juga/ dengan/ mahal /kedengerannya./ dengan/ formasi/ grup/ yah./ Sekali/ lagi/ selamat/ untuk/ Nu Dimension/ malam/ ini./* (D5.3)  
 Judge 2 : because/according to/I Kirana/ not/ song/ particle /not/ song/ particle /emmm/ song/ popular/ but/ enough/ smart/ like that/ right/ with/ notations/ particle/ not/ according to/ I/ not/ notation/ cheap/ like that/ and/ you/ success/ make/ notations/ that/also/ with/ expensive/ listened/ with/ formation/ group/ well/ once/ too/ safe/ to/ Nu Dimension/ night/ this/.  
 Judge 2 : Because I think "Kirana" is not a song..emmm, it's not a popular song, but it's smart enough with those notations. I think those are not low quality notations. And you are succeeded making those notations into a whole new level, they sound high quality with that group formation. Well, once again congratulations to Nu Dimension for tonight.  
 ND : *Terima/ kasih/ Mas/ Bebi.* (D5.4)  
 ND : accept/ love/ older man/ Bebi  
 ND : Thank you Mister Bebi

In the data (13), the realisation of the positive politeness with the substrategy intensify interest to H is shown by using the bold sentence above (D5.3).

**Expressive-Congratulating – Positive Politeness- Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)**

(14) The following narrative is spoken by Rossa (as the speaker) to Nu Dimension (as the addressee). That night Nu Dimension sang a song of *Kirana* by Dewa 19.

Juri 4 : *Nu Dimension, /wow./ Saya/ bilang/ emang/ kurang/ ajar/ Mas/ Dani/ ini/ tiba-tiba/ bawa/ Dewa 19/, dan/ saya/ setuju/ deh/ dengan/ Mas/ Bebi/ dan/ Anggun./ Apapun/ itu./ meskipun/ bentuknya/ udah/ featuring/, tapi/ kalian/ sendirinya/ pun/ bisa/ merupakan/ tontonan/ sendiri/ yang/ menarik/ gitu./ dan/ ketika/ dikolaborasikan./ kalian/ bisa/ tampil/ dengan/ apa/ ya/ Blend/ aja/ gitu/ nggak/ kalah/ pamor/ sama/ Dewa 19-nya/ yang/ emang/ udah/ legend/ gitu. / Congratulation.* (D5.7)  
 Judge 4 : Nu Dimension/ wow/ I/ say/ indeed/ less/ lesson/ older man/ Dani/ this/ suddenly/ bring/ Dewa 19/ and/ I/ agree/ with/ older bebi/ and/ Anggun/ anything/ that/ although/ the form/ already/ featuring/ but/ you/ self/ right/ can/ is/ performance/ self/ particle/ attractive/ like that/ and/ when/ collaborated/ you/ can/ perform/ with/ what/ yes/ Blend/ just/ like that/ not/ lose/ prestige/ same/ Dewa 19/ particle/ indeed/ already/ legend/ like that/ congratulation.

Judge 4 : Nu Dimension, Wow, I must say that Mister Dani is rude for suddenly bringing Dewa 19, and I agree with Mister Bebi and Anggun. Whatever it is, although it is already a featuring, but you guys yourselves are already an attractive performance and when it is collaborated, you can perform as what?. Just Blending in, as great as Dewa 19 which is already a legend. Congratulation.

ND : *Terima/ kasih/ Teh/ Oca./ (D5.8)*

ND : accept/ love/ older woman/ Oca

ND : Thank you Miss Oca

The realisation of the Politeness strategy of expressive narrative-congratulating in the data (14) is marked by using the bold sentences. The sentences explain the performance of Nu Dimension which is great as the legendary band of Dewa 19.

**Expressive-Thanking – Positive Politeness-use in group identity markers**

- (15) The following narrative is spoken by Rossa (an Indonesia female singer) to Fatin (the youngest female contestant) in the show on March 29 2013. That night, Fatin sang as song of “It Will Rain” by Bruno Mars.

Juri 4 : *Alhamdulillahibilalamin./ setiap/ hari/ Jumat/ saya/ mules/ banget/ rasanya/ kalau/ Menunggu/ ini./ Fatin/ ini/, apa/ namanya?/ Pujian/ dari/ tiga/ mentor/, mereka/ adalah orang-orang/ yang/ paling/ kompeten./ Mau/ mereka/ memuji/ atau/ pun/ mengkritik/ itu/ adalah/ satu/ hal/ pelajaran/ buat/ kita/ mudah-mudahan/ minggu/ depan/ kita/ bisa/ semakin/ lebih/ baik/ lagü. Amin./ **Terima/ kasih/ juga/ buat/ Fatinistik/ yang/ selalu/ memberikan/ semangat/, terima/ kasih** /banyak./ Good/ Job/ Fatin!./ (D17.28)*

Judge 4 : thanking god/ every/ day/ Friday/ I/ stomachache/ very/ feel/ if/ wait/this/ Fatin/

this/ what/ name/ compliment/ from/ three/ mentor/ they/ are/ people/

particle/most/ competent/ want/ they/ praise/ or/even/ criticize/ that/ is/ one/

thing/ lesson/

make/ we/ easy/ Sunday/ front/ we/ can/ more/ more/good/ again/

amin/ accept/love/ too/

make/Fatinistik/particle/ always/ give/ spirit/ accept/ love/

many/ Good/ Job/ Fatin.

Judge 4 : (Thanking God), every Friday I am nervous waiting for this. Fatin, this is, what

is it called? The compliments from the three other mentors, they are the most

competent people. Whether they praise or criticize, it is a lesson for us, so that

next

week we can be better. Amin, Thank you for Fatinistik that always give their

support, thank you. God Job

Fatin.

F : */Terima/ kasih./ (D17.29)*

F : accept/ love/

F : Thank you.

In the data (15), the realisation of the positive politeness with the strategy of use in group identity markers in the expressive narrative-thanking is marked by the word ‘Fatinistik’. The word ‘Fatinistik’ is the name for adalah Fatin Shidqia Lubis’ fans (one of the X-Factor Indonesia contestants). The speaker in the narrative (D17.28) thanks exclusively to ‘Fatinistik’ who always give their support to their idol, Fatin.

**Expressive-Criticizing – Bald on record**

- (16) The following narrative is spoken by Ahmad Dani (a male singer of Dewa band) to Fatin in the show on April 12 2013. That night, Fatin sang a song of *Arti Hadirmu* by Audi (an Indonesian female singer).

Juri 1 : *Komentarnya/... Aaa/, komentarnya/ **kamu/ gak/ cocok/ nyanyi/ lagu/ ini./ (D26.37)***

Judge 1 : comment/.../aa/ comment/ you/ not/ compatible/ sing/ song/ this/

Judge 1 : My comment...aa..my comment is that you are just not right singing this

song

F : *Oh/, ya/ Mas/ Dani./ Terima/ kasih. (D27.38)*

F : Oh/ yes/ older man/ Dani/ accept/ love

F : Oh/ yok Mister Dani. Thank you

In the data (16), the realisation of the politeness in expressive narrative-criticizing is marked by using the bald on record strategy shown by the bold sentence. The speaker directly shows his disappointment to the addressee by saying “*kamu gak cocok nyanyi lagu ini.*” (you are not just right singing this song).

**Expressive-Criticizing – Off Record Strategy-give association clues**

- (17) The following narrative is spoken by Bebi Romeo (an Indonesian male singer) to Fatin Shidqia (a female contestant) after she sang a song of *Arti Hadirmu* by Audi (an Indonesian singer).

Juri 3 : *Ya/ Fatin/ tadi/ aku/ juga/ cari/ waktu/ kamu/ mulai/ nyanyi/ lagu/ ini/ ini/ gongnya/bakal /dimana/ sih/? Tapi/ **tadi/ ternyata/ gak/ ada/ gongnya/ itu./ Tapi/, kan/ malam/ ini/ kalian/ semua/ /diberi /kesempatan/ nyanyi/ dua/ lagu/. Jadi/, walaupun/ tadi/ **sebenarnya/ gak/ jelek/, Cuma/ gak/ ada /istimewanya/ penampilan/ kamu./ Itu/ aja. (D26.45)*****

Judge 3 : Yes/ Fatin/ a while ago/ I/ also/ search/ ttime/ you/ start/ sing/ song/ this/ this/ gong/ will/ where/ But/ a while ago/ apparently/ bot exist/ gong/ that/ but/ right/ night/ this/ you/ all/ given/ opportunity/ sing/ two/ song/ so/ although/ a while ago/ actually/ not/ ugly/ only/ not/ exist/ special/ performance/ you/ that/ only/

Judge 3 : Well, Fatin, I was waiting “the special moment fo the song’ since you began singing that song, wondering where it would be? But apparently, there was no such a thing. But tonight you are given an opportunity to sing two songs. So, actually it was not that bad, it’s just not that special the performance of yours.

F : *Makasih/ Mas. (D26.46)*

F : Thanking/ older man

F : Thank you Mister

The realisation of the politeness strategy in the expressive narrative-criticizing in the data (17) is marked by using the off record strategy of 'give association clues' by associating 'gong' as the climax marker (the special moment). The speaker hoped that there would be a climax part from the addressee's performance, but apparently there was no such a thing. This is shown by the use of the last sentence in the narrative (D26.45), "*sebenarnya gak jelak, cuma gak ada istimewanya penampilan kamu.*" (actually it is not that bad, it's just not that special the performance of yours).

#### CONCLUSION

Based on the data classification and analysis, the types of speech act used in the X-Factor Indonesia Judges' narratives are expressive-praising, congratulating, thanking, and criticizing. Furthermore, the most dominant speech act used by the X-Factor Indonesia judges is expressive-praising. It is 18 (72%) narratives from 25 narratives.

For the realisation of the politeness strategy in the expressive narratives-praising of X-Factor Indonesia judges, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), is the positive politeness strategy with the substrategies 'attend to H' (his interest, wants, needs, and goods); Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H); Intensify interest to H; Seek agreement; Joke; Be optimistic; and Include both S and H in the activity. In the expressive narratives-congratulating, the politeness strategy found is the positive politeness strategy with the substrategies 'Include both S and H in the activity; Intensify interest to H; and Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with H)'. Meanwhile, in the expressive narrative-thanking, the politeness strategy used is the positive politeness strategy with the substrategies 'use in group identity markers', and last for the expressive narrative-criticizing, the politeness strategies used are the bald on record strategy and Off record strategy with give association clues substrategy.

#### Limitations Of The Study

This study examines about narratives of X-Factor Indonesia judges and focuses only the use of expressive narratives and the realisation of politeness strategies. There are some limitations for this study related to the topic discussed in this article as follow:

1. This article only focuses on the use of expressive narrative and the realisation of politeness strategies. Thus, for the future study, it can study the speech act as a whole aspect,
2. The data taken in this article are the narratives of both male and female X-Factor Indonesia judges. It is suggested in the future that the narratives data are compared and studied regarding the use of the narratives and the politeness strategies,
3. This research studies the narratives of X-Factor Indonesia judges from pragmatic point of view. In the future, it is suggested that it can be studied by focusing on its style of language.

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THE ROLE OF TOPIC IN EFL LEARNER'S READING  
COMPREHENSION AND RECALL

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**ABSTRACT**

English as a Foreign Language reading comprehension and recall can be affected by a large number of discursal factors, including [topic" and "title" as representative of the theme of the text. The present study aimed at examining the effect of text topic on foreign language learners' reading comprehension and recall. To this end, the impact of three kinds of text topics, i.e., major topic, minor topic and unrelated topics was measured on foreign language learners' reading comprehension and recall. The materials of the experiment were piloted in advance on learners (n = 100) of the same proficiency level. 99 EFL learners majoring in English language translation in Mashhad Azad University participated in the main study. The instrumentation included CELT (The comprehensive English Language test) and a tailored reading comprehension test consisting of three reading passages. The Multiple Choice reading comprehension tests were administered to 3 homogenized groups each comprising 32, 30 and 36 subjects. Data were analyzed through one-way analysis of variance and post hoc Scheffe tests. The results showed a significant effect of major topic on the reading comprehension performances and recall of the participants.

**KEYWORDS:** topic, reading comprehension, recall

**INTRODUCTION**

Among the four language skills, reading probably plays the most important role in foreign and second language learners' academic achievement. As a result, this skill is worth in-depth investigation from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Researchers have investigated numerous text-related and reader-related factors determining EFL/ESL readers' comprehension.

Readers need to integrate various text-processing skills in order to derive the text overall meaning. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) emphasize the need for ESL/EFL learners to develop both bottom-up and top-down reading approaches. Before the reading takes place, students' background knowledge about the topic of a text should be activated. This can be performed through the choice of titles, subtitles, headings, captions, etc. These cues may provide a good overview and get the students to activate what they know about the topic and helping them speculate the likely text content (van Dijk, 1977).

Ideas in a text are related to the topic and unified by cohesive devices. Cohesive devices call upon a speaker's background knowledge in a process of comprehension and recall. They enable participant hearers or readers to read between the lines: to make references to preceding discourse, to interpret the relationship of incoming material to the prevailing topic or theme; in short, to follow the links in a chain. As de-Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) state "we impose coherence by establishing a configuration and our prior knowledge of how the world is organized." In other words, listeners or readers must know what is being talked or written about in order to be able to understand the text since each text discusses one particular topic which distinguishes it from another text. Moreover, as Van Dijk (1977) points out, the context is involved in the recognition of the entailment relations in terms of which the topic of discourse is defined. That is, the topic representation is entailed by the joint set of propositions expressed by the sentences in the text only given certain items of real-world knowledge. So "topic" is a notion which seems to be essential to the concept of cohesion and coherence since "coherence will be envisioned as the outcome of combining concepts and relation into a network composed of knowledge spaces centered around main topics". Hence, it is important for EFL teachers to be aware of the role of the "topic" for texts.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Discourse issues have been the center of attention for a long time and every now and then different theories have been put forward by the experts in this field. This importance, however, to a large extent, lies in the crucial role of Discourse Analysis in assigning boundaries for the interpretation of meaning. In this regard, topic can be viewed as one of the most significant discourse boundaries, or to be more explicit, as one of the elements of discourse which constraint the possible interpretations for comprehension of a text. Moreover, a distinction should be made between the topic as the main underlying theme of the text and "the title" as "a way" or "a mode of "representing the topic. (Brown & Yule, 1996). We know that the ultimate goal is the topic, but we have several different possibilities of the title. Since the researchers are going to scrutinize the comprehensibility of journalistic texts therefore the question is what can be chosen as a title for reading comprehension passages which provides both more effective reading comprehension and increase of recalling for the readers. As topic is one point which remains in the mind, the assumption is that the title which is closest to the topic (major topic) might be regarded as the best clue for students' comprehension and recall in authentic issues.

In a series of experiments reported by Bransford and Johnson (1972) subjects were pretested with constructed texts to read, comprehend, and recall. The aim of the experiments was to demonstrate that the comprehension of English texts depends not only on knowledge of the language, but also on extra-linguistic knowledge, particularly related to the contexts in which the texts occur. Predictably, the experiments showed that comprehension and recall of passages were significantly better when subjects were provided, before reading, with what Bransford and Johnson called "The topic of the passage". Correspondingly, there is for any text, a number of different ways of expressing "the topic". Each different way of expressing "the topic" will effectively represent a different judgment of what is being written (or talked about) in a text. There will always be a set of expressions of the topic. In the terms used by Tyler (1978), "the topic" can only be "one possible paraphrase "of a sequence of utterances. What is required is a characterization of "topic" which would allow each of the possible expressions, including titles, to be considered (partially correct), thus incorporating all reasonable judgments of "what is being talked about".

**The relationship between topic and comprehension**

As Chastain (1988) believes, all readers can become confused if they are suddenly engulfed with a flood of language without any orientation as to the context or topic. Thus readers (listeners) have to activate relevant background knowledge and use it to anticipate the ideas the message may contain. Joiner(2008),in an article entitled “listening from the inside out”, states that establishing a frame of reference enables listeners to develop “frames of expectations “regarding what they are likely to hear, which help them know how to listen and what to listen for.

Understanding is described, according to Brown (1999) as” a process of prediction and sampling rather than a desperate attempt to keep up with the words flashing past.”Likewise, Richards (1998) identifies three interrelated levels of processing that seem to be activated in comprehending language; i.e., identifying propositions, interpreting illocutions, and activating real-world knowledge. One thing people commonly do in comprehension is to draw the obvious implications. In short, comprehension calls on people’s general capacity to think-to use information and solve problems. Indeed, in inferring what is meant, people consider non-linguistic factors that are far removed from the utterance itself (Dabir,1991). In the same way, Prabhu (1987) maintains that comprehension draws an extra-linguistic resources to the extent necessary. There is a complementary relationship between linguistic resources and extra-linguistic ones. Likewise, comprehension, according to Riverse, (1981),”requires a deep knowledge of the theme of the speaker’s discourse, because much of comprehension is drawing inferences.”So a great deal of what we” comprehend “is not in the linguistic information we are receiving at all, but is the extra-linguistic knowledge which we have acquired through our life in terms of past experiences.

Prior knowledge plays a supportive role in comprehending a written message. The earliest study on the impact of schemata on reading comprehension dates back to the classical research of Bartlett (1932). In his study, English participants were asked to read and recall a story from an unfamiliar culture, and the major finding was that recall was inaccurate. Distortions found in the retellings of the story confirmed to the past experiences of the readers, and additions to and elaborations on the storyline in the retellings caused redundancies. Along the same line, Lee’s study (1986) showed that the participants recalled more from content-unfamiliar texts than content-familiar ones. In a study by Carrell (1984) the nonnative readers found to fail to use background information because they were linguistically bound. The nonnative readers tended to process at the word and sentence levels and did not attend to the top level organizational features and background information since the language itself was demanding. Johnson (1982) conducted a study to explore the effect of the cultural origin of prose on the reading comprehension level. The results revealed that the cultural origin of the stories had a greater effect on comprehension than the syntactic or semantic complexity of the text. Some other studies have shown similar effects in that participants better comprehended or remembered passages that were more familiar to them (e.g.Ammon,1987; Carrell, 1983; Johnson,1982; Langer, Bartolome,Vasqueze & Lucas,1990). The literature supports the position that content schemata have a greater role than language on reading comprehension and recall.( Keshavarz , 2007) Studies conducted by Koh (1985) and Peretz and Shoham (1990) indicate that participants do not necessarily perform their best on texts with familiar content.

Therefore, both listeners and readers have to activate relevant background knowledge and use it to anticipate the ideas the message may contain. According to Clark and Clark, (1977)”,people try to attack all the facts they know about single entity to a single memory. “This allows them to see all the facts about that entity at a glance.

In conclusion, topics serve as devices for categorizing and arranging information so that it can be interpreted and retained. Briefly,”topics” activate participants `background information to which the text must be related in order to be comprehended.

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The purpose of the study is to explore the relationship between text topics and EFL readers’ comprehension and recall of texts. Therefore, the following research questions were formulated. Research questions:

1. Does text topic type have any significant effects on EFL learners’ reading comprehension?
2. Does text topic type have any significant effects on EFL learners’ recall?

**METHODOLOGY**

**Participants**

The subjects of the study were 200 EFL male and female senior students (21-30 years old) in Mashhad Azad University who were majoring in English language translation. In order to ascertain homogeneity of subjects in terms of their general English proficiency at the outset of the study, CELT test (Comprehensive English Language Test) was administered to all of the participants. In order to test the homogeneity of the aforementioned group, a one-way ANOVA was run the results of which attested that study. To answer these questions, the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) was administered to the students in order to verify their homogeneity. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to compare the means of the three groups. The descriptive statistics in Tables 1 provides an overall view of the participants’ performance on CELT and table 2 shows the results of one-way ANOVA consequently.

*Table 1: Descriptive statistics of CELT scores*

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance	N	Min	Max
1	82.56	26.59	101.02	32	20	120
2	85.3	26.15	685.82	30	29	120
3	96.38	27.21	740.38	36	25	150

*Table 2 : One-way ANOVA CELT by three groups*

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	Degree of freedom	Mean Squares	F Observed	F Critical
Between groups	3728.08	2	1864.04	2.61	3.15
Within groups	67671.39	95	712.33		
Total	71399.47	97			

**Instrumentation**

The instruments were used in this study: one reading comprehension test consisting of three passages. The reading comprehension tests were taken from English journals The researchers piloted the tests with a sample of learners(n=100) with the same level of English language

proficiency at the same university as the participants of the present study. For each of the texts, 10, 8 and 6 MC test items were developed. The tests were piloted and pre-tested with a sample group of participants (n=100). Concerning the psychometric properties of the reading comprehension tests, the reliability of reading comprehension test, as estimated using Cronbach's alpha, were .69. The test was validated against the reading comprehension sub-test of a TOEFL. The result of concurrent validity of the researcher-made measure on reading comprehension showed an index of 0.73, which is relatively high.

**Procedure**

*Subject grouping procedure*

Ninety nine EFL learners were chosen as the subjects of the study and randomly assigned to three groups. The subjects were all seniors majoring in English.

*Test Administration Procedure*

The participants were asked to read the texts and answer the MC items. Then, the participants were asked to read the texts once more and write down what they could remember on their recall answer-sheets without looking back at the text and the MC questions. Here, the purpose was to measure the participants' recall of what they read rather than their EFL writing ability. Therefore, the researchers asked the participants to write their recalls. The time allocated to each test was 45 minutes, which had been determined to be suitable in the pilot study by.

*Scoring Procedure*

The MC-test papers were scored based on the number of correctly-answered items. The recall task was scored based on the correct propositions recalled by the participants. For the sake of a consistent scoring procedure, the researchers defined propositions as the relationships between a predicate and its arguments. As G. Brown (1983) maintains, this is the most frequently used definition in the text analysis literature. Then, the recall tasks were scored by the researchers. Each recall task was scored twice, once by each of the two researchers. A correlation index of .79 was found between the scores given to the recall protocols by the two raters. The average of the two scores was considered as the final score assigned to each recall protocol. The scores from the multiple choice test of reading comprehension and the recall tasks constituted the data for statistical analysis.

**Data analysis**

SPSS was used for statistical analysis of the data consisting of the participants' reading comprehension scores, their scores on their recall scores. To examine the main effects of the independent variables that is topic on the participants' comprehension and recall of the texts, the researchers ran a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) twice: once for the data related to the participants' reading comprehension (i.e., the participants' scores on the MC items) and once for the data related to the participants' recall of the texts.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This study was conducted to answer the following questions: 1. Does topic have any significant effects on EFL learners' reading comprehension? 2. Does text topic have any significant effects on EFL learners' recall?

The study included one independent variable i.e. Text topic including texts with major topics, minor topics and unrelated topics. Text readability of 3 selected reading passages of English journals was computed using Fry formula. Table 3 shows the readability indexes of the passages. According to Fry formula reading passages with readability indexes between 3 and 11 are considered to be intermediate.

*Table 3: Readability Index*

Passages	Index
A	6.86
B	4.72
C	4.41

The first research question asked whether there is a significant difference between major topic, minor topic group and unrelated topic group on reading comprehension MC tests performance. Table 4 summarizes the results of the one-way ANOVA.

*Table 4: One-way ANOVA of MC Reading Comprehension Test*

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	Degree of freedom	Mean Squares	F Observed	F Critical
Between groups	772.72	2	386.36	26.80	3.15
Within groups	1369.51	95	14.41		
Total	2142.24	97			

As the table 4 suggests, there is a significant difference between major topic group, minor topic and unrelated topic groups across MC reading comprehension test ( $F = 26.80, p < .05$ )

To further determine where the difference among the effects of text topic types on MC reading comprehension test performance lies, a post hoc Scheffe was run the results of which follow in Table 5.

*Table 5: The summary result of the Scheffe test on the reading comprehension MC test*

Comparisons	Mean Differences	Minimum significant difference 5%	df
Major topic G Vs Minor topic G	6.26*	2.40	60
Major topic G Vs Unrelated topic G	5.71*	2.30	66
Minor topic G Vs Unrelated topic G	0.55 <sup>ns</sup>	2.34	64

Table 5 and figure 1 suggest major topic group (Mean= 12.46) has dramatically outperformed the other two groups (minor topic mean =6.20 and unrelated topic mean = 6.75) on the reading comprehension MC test. According to Table 5, , at the level of 0.05, there was no significant difference between minor topic group mean scores and the unrelated topic group mean scores.

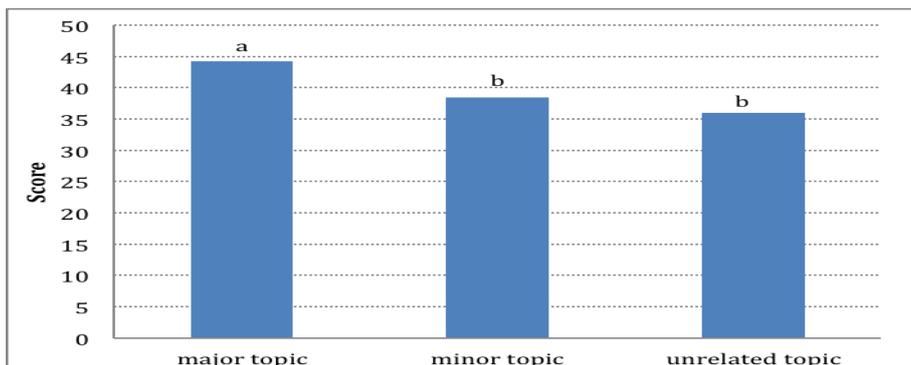


Figure 1: major topic group

The second question in the study addresses the difference in the effect of text topic including major topic, minor topic, unrelated topic) on recall test. Table 4 demonstrates the results of one way analysis of variance to this end.

Table 6 : One-way ANOVA of Recall Scores

Source of Variation	Sum of squares	Degree of freedom	Mean Squares	F Observed	F Critical
Between groups	1206.8	2	603.4	18.6	3.15
Within groups	3079.02	95	32.4		
Total	4285.8	97			

According to Table 6, there is a significant difference among text topic types in the recall test (F = 18.6, p < .05) Since the one-way ANOVA demonstrated a significant difference among the effect of the 3 text topic types on recall test performance, a post hoc Scheffe test was carried out to see where exactly the difference lies. Table 7 summarizes the results of the Scheffe.

Table 7: The summary result of the Scheffe test on recall test

Comparisons	Mean Differences	Minimum significant difference 5%	df
Major topic G Vs Minor topic G	5.80*	3.60	60
Major topic G Vs Unrelated topic G	8.29*	3.44	66
Minor topic G Vs Unrelated topic G	2.49 <sup>ns</sup>	3.50	64

In the recall test too, as depicted by Table 7 and figure 2, performance of the major topic group (major topic group mean = 44.22) has been dramatically superior to those of minor topic and unrelated topic groups (minor topic group = 38.42 and unrelated topic group = 35.93).

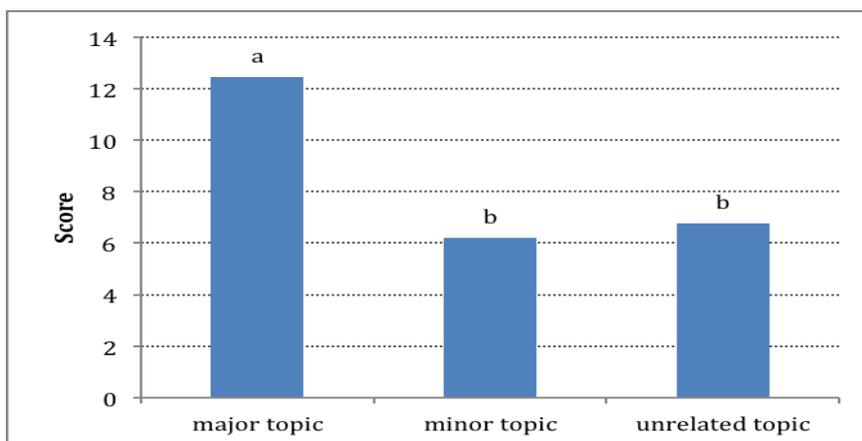


Figure 2: performance of the major topic group

**CONCLUSION**

This study aimed at investigating the usefulness of text topic type for improving EFL learners’ reading comprehension and recall. The EFL learners were provided with the same texts with different topics (major i.e. the closest to the main idea, minor i.e. the closest to the supporting idea and unrelated) both to draw the learners’ attention to the text and help them comprehend and recall the text more effectively.

The findings of the study provided strong evidence in support of major text topic type in general since major text topic group significantly outperformed both the minor text topic and unrelated text topic groups in the reading comprehension test. In this sense, therefore, the results strongly corroborated those, among others, Johnson (1982), Carrell (1983), Ammon (1987), Vasquez and Lucas (1990), Keshavarz (2007) which advocated the use of content familiar texts for reading comprehension. There are several factors that can account for this effectiveness: The provision of major topic arouses learners' noticing to the main idea of text (Schmidt, 1992). Major text topic successfully draws learners' attention, activates EFL learners' relevant background knowledge, orients them toward the text and helps them to anticipate the ideas in the text. Possible, moreover, major topics can assist learners to immediately connect the text main idea to its supporting ideas and, thereby, comprehend it more effectively but it contradicts with Studies by Koh (1985) and Peretz and Shoham (1990) who concluded that participants do not necessarily perform their best on texts with familiar content. The results of the study further indicated that there was no significant difference between minor text type and unrelated text type groups. This is compatible with Carrell (1984) and Johnson (1982). One possible reason is that all readers can become confused if they are suddenly engulfed with a flood of language without any or the right orientation as to the context or topic (Chastain, 1988).

Another finding of the current study was major text topic group significantly outperformed both the minor text topic and unrelated text topic groups in the recall task. In this sense, the study is in line with Bartlett (1932) who concluded content- unfamiliar texts were recalled inaccurately but it contradicts with Lee (1986) who found that the participants recalled more from content-unfamiliar texts than content-familiar ones

The findings of the present study are compatible with those of Bransford and Johnson (1972) indicating that comprehension and recall of passages were significantly better when subjects were provided, before reading, with "the topic of the passage". One reason for the effectiveness of major text types on the recall task could be that it facilitates the main idea connection. According to research in human memory, it is the depth of the process of reading comprehension which determines the chance for the text to be recalled, i.e. Mental Effort Hypothesis. Learners retain meaning if they are engaged in deep processing which involves exploitation of contextual clues and their previous knowledge (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

Overall, the results of the study support the use of major text topics in general and imply that teachers, materials developers and text designers can take advantage of them particularly when the goal is for them to trigger and promote reading comprehension and recall. Major topics should be available to foreign language learners while they are engaged in reading tasks. The presence of major topics can arouse learners' consciousness towards text, activate the relevant background knowledge and avoid learners from making wrong inferences. However, the findings of this study need to be verified against future research involving texts with other genres or different text readability.

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## THE EFFECT OF ALTERNATIVE TEACHING ON IMPROVING EFL LEARNER'S READING COMPREHENSION

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### ABSTRACT

The present study intended to examine whether alternative teaching strategy could maximize Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' reading comprehension better than the traditional single teaching. Employing alternative teaching proposed by Cook and Friend (2004), two intermediate EFL classes (total N=30) who already passed level 5 at a private language institute in Ilam, Iran were selected. They were all female, aged 17-25. Three experienced male teachers aged nearly thirty-nine took part in the study. In one class, reading comprehension was implemented by one teacher and in the other class two teachers cotaught the students. The findings of the study revealed that there was a significant difference between the control and the experimental group in terms of their reading improvement and that experimental group outperformed the control group. This finding implies that the implementation of alternative teaching strategy in educational systems, at least for teaching reading comprehension in an EFL context like Iran, can be contributive.

**KEYWORDS:** Co teaching, alternative teaching, reading comprehension, traditional teaching,

### INTRODUCTION

The second language teaching profession has long been involved searching for methods that would be generalizable across widely varying audiences, and could successfully be used to teach a foreign language to students in the classroom. To meet the demands of the diverse language learners in multiple worldwide contexts, researchers and practitioners have gradually learned from the continued search to realize that "there never was and probably never will be a method" (Nunan, 1991, p. 228) for all learners, and thus come up with a cautiously eclectic, integrated approach aiming to help teachers make enlightened choices of classroom tasks and activities that are solidly grounded in the valuable findings from research on L2 learning and teaching (Brown, 2001).

It can be, more or less, observed that an increasing number of students are placed in an English class with any variety of different knowledge and background that influences their learning a new subject differently. Students with poor performance and other special needs are generally expected to achieve the same level of success as other learners. Accordingly, Reith and Polsgrove (1998) aptly state that, "it is not enough to merely place students within general class settings without providing appropriate training, materials, and support to them and their teachers. "If done so, their failure is the outcome" (p. 257).

Due to overpopulation and misplacement of the learners in large classes, it seems that fulfilling all the responsibilities of teaching including planning, practice, evaluation and above all implementing remedial programs to meet the needs of the learners with poor performance may not be possible for a single teacher. Therefore, there is some intuitive appeal for a new mode of service delivery because greater number of students with instructional problems may be accommodated in general education classes.

Drawing upon the above-mentioned views, among the many ideas and options for meeting these diverse, yet somehow related, challenges, co teaching had received widespread attention and been used by many special and general educators to meet the needs of secondary students. Accordingly, the present study attempts to investigate the possibility of its implementation in Iranian EFL teaching context.

### *Co-teaching definitions and models*

Co-teaching, or having more than one teacher in the classroom has become a popular teaching structure to provide an inclusive setting for special education students while insuring that they are in the least restrictive environment. In the co-teaching classroom there is typically a general education teacher and a special education teacher in the classroom. Co-teaching may also be considered as a strategy which includes mixed-perspectives of two teachers. It is defined as "a restructuring of teaching procedures in which two or more educators possessing distinct sets of skills work in a coordinated fashion to jointly teach academically and behaviorally heterogeneous groups of students in an integrated educational setting" (Bauwens & Hourcade, 1995, p. 46). Elsewhere, Villa, Thousand, and Nevin (2008) reiterate the responsibility shared by the co-teachers. They define it as "two or more people sharing responsibility for educating some or all of the students in a classroom". In contrast, single teaching as Aliakbari and Mansouri Nejad (2010) note, is defined in a way that one teacher is responsible for supervising all tasks of lessons, in the current and relatively traditional teaching model over a specific time.

Co-teaching offers several advantages over traditional single-teacher teaching method, including the provision of multiple learning perspectives (Smith, Hornsby, & Kite, 2000), reduction of teaching redundancy (Hartenian, Schellenger, & Frederickson, 2001), and the promotion of teamwork and communication between teachers (Andrews & Wooten, 2005).

Sharon (1997) identified several alternative models of co-teaching: A: One Group: one lead teacher, one teacher "teaching on purpose"; B: Two Groups: Two teachers teach the same contents; C: Two groups: One teacher re-teaches, one teacher teaches alternative information; D: Multiple Groups: Two teachers monitor/teach; content may vary; E: One group: two teachers teach the same content. Watkins and Caffarella (1999) identified four types of teams based on variations in working style: parallel teaching, serial teaching, co-teaching, and co-facilitation. Friend and Cook (2004) described the more common approaches as One-Teach-One Support, One-Teach-One Drift, Alternative Teaching, Parallel Teaching, Station Teaching, and Team Teaching. Further explanation of their idea is presented below.

**One Teach, One Observe.** One of the advantages in co-teaching is that more detailed observation of students engaged in the learning process can occur. With this approach, for example, co-teachers can decide in advance what types of specific observational information to gather during instruction and can agree on a system for gathering the data. Afterward, the teachers should analyze the information together.

**One Teach, One Drift.** In this second approach to co-teaching, one teacher keeps the primary responsibility for teaching while the other professional circulates through the room, providing unobtrusive assistance to students.

**Parallel Teaching.** In parallel teaching, the teachers are both teaching the same information, but they divide the class group and do so simultaneously.

**Station Teaching.** In this co-teaching approach, teachers divide the content and the students. Each teacher then teaches the content to one group and subsequently repeats the instruction for the other group. If appropriate, a third "station" could require that students work independently.

**Alternative Teaching:** In most class groups, occasions arise in which several students need specialized attention. In alternative teaching, one teacher takes responsibility for the large group while the other works with a smaller group.

**Team Teaching:** In team teaching, both teachers are delivering the same instruction at the same time. Some teachers refer to this as having "one brain in two bodies." Others call it "tag team teaching" (Cook & Friend, 2004). Most co-teachers consider this approach the most complex but satisfying way to co-teach. However, to achieve the desired outcome, this approach is most dependent on the co-teachers' styles (Cook & Friend, 2004).

Among the models specified here, alternative teaching has received special attention. To Murawski & Swanson (2001) alternative teaching is a strategy in which one teacher teaches the large group, while the other teaches or re-teaches the content or the skills to the small group. One major feature of this model is that teachers may regroup students and may alternate roles in teaching the large and the small groups. Friend and Cook (2004) suggest alternative teachers to be used in the following situations:

- In situations where students' mastery of the concepts taught or about to be taught varies tremendously
  - When extremely high levels of mastery are expected for all students
  - When enrichment is desired
  - When some students are working in a parallel curriculum
- Inspired by these ideas and recommendation, the present study intended to put the issue under scrutiny.

#### REVIEW OF THE RELATED STUDIES

Research on co-teaching has so far examined the effect of co-teaching structures on students' academic learning (Bauwens, Hourcade, & Friend, 1989; Cook & Friend, 1995; Dieker, 2001; Fennick, 2001; Fennick & Liddy, 2001; Rice & Zigmund, 2000; Vaughn, Schumm, & Arguelles, 1997; Zigmund & Magiera, 2001). In a comprehensive study of inclusion in 18 elementary and 7 middle schools, Walther-Thomas (1997) found that the lower student-teacher ratio resulted from the presence of co-teachers in normal-sized classrooms led to strong academic progress and enhanced student self-confidence.

The role of co-teaching has also been manifested along technology. For instance, Jang (2006) incorporated web-assisted learning with team-teaching in seventh-grade science classes, and used a quasi-experimental method, assigning the four sampled science classes into experimental and control groups. The results showed that the average final exam scores of students experiencing the experimental teaching method were higher than the scores of those receiving traditional teaching. However, his study aimed to integrate two simultaneous interventions into courses of science teacher education method in order to explore the effects of such integration on learning technology.

Dahlberg and Hoover (2003) investigated the effects of co-teaching on K6 Student Discipline and Attendance. The results supported the positive impacts of the approach and made it clear that the students felt more connected to school when they were in a co-taught classroom. Further, Students in co-taught settings had fewer behavioral issues in school, and overall had fewer referrals per student.

Maultsby and Barbara (2009) examined the impact of collaborative teaching (co-teaching) on the reading, language Arts and Math achievement of Middle Tennessee students in grades 5-8, as measured by the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program (TCAP) Achievement test. Within the context of this study, the co-teaching model of instruction is defined as the special and general educator, referred to as co-teachers, sharing equitably the tasks of the lesson planning, implementation, and assessment. Six schools participated in the study. Three of the schools implemented co-teaching practices at the beginning of 2008-2009 school years. The remaining three schools did not. The dependent variables were students' reading, language Arts and Math TCAP Achievement test scores over a two year period. The independent variables were gender, ethnicity, disability categories, type of classroom (one with co-teaching practices and one without co-teaching practices), and type of student (student with a disability or student without a disability). Results from a paired samples *t*-test indicated an increase in Math achievement for students with disabilities instructed in classrooms with co-teaching practices and a decrease in Reading/Language Arts achievement for students without disabilities instructed in classrooms with co-teaching practices. No other conditions produced significant increases in this study.

Aliakbari and Mansouri Nejad (2010) studied the effect of co-teaching on learning process in general and the grammar proficiency in particular. To do so, they selected a group of 58 first-grade students studying English in junior high school assigned to two classes receiving two different treatments in grammar instruction. In one group, learners received grammar instruction from co-teachers and in other grammar instruction was delivered by a single teacher. They found that the difference in method of grammar instruction did not lead to significant difference in participants' performance in the grammar test. However, they conducted the study on the basis of team teaching model as an approach in co-teaching. Many studies have been done on co teaching while relatively little attention has been paid to its application in different situations in Iran. Hence, the present study is to investigate the impact of alternative teaching strategy on students' reading comprehension.

#### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

A number of studies investigated the influence of different teaching methods on different domains of language skills. However, few studies investigated the effect of co-teaching on language skills such as speaking, writing, listening and more specifically reading improvement. The present study aimed at filling some of the gaps in the area of co teaching by comparing two groups of Iranian EFL learners studying English as a foreign language in a language institute so as to examine whether alternative teaching strategy could maximize EFL students' reading comprehension better than the traditional single teaching. For This purpose, alternative teaching proposed by Cook and Friend (2004) was adopted.

#### RESEARCH QUESTION

More specifically, the present study attempted to find an answer for the following research question:

Does implementing alternative teaching model improve Iranian EFL learners' reading proficiency better than the traditional single teacher practice?

## METHODOLOGY

### Participants

Two intermediate EFL classes (N=30) who already passed level five at a private language institute in Ilam, were selected. They were all female, aged 17-25. Because of the inclusion of a few participants, the subjects were intact and therefore no random sampling was made. Three experienced male teachers aged about 39 also took part in the study. All of the teachers had Master degrees in English, language teaching.

### Material and instrument

One of the major challenges in developing a reading comprehension test is to select texts and tasks appropriate for learners at a given level of language proficiency. For this reason, *Interchange* (Richards, J. C., Hull, J., & Proctor, S. (2005) *Interchange: Book 3*. (3rd Edition) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.) which is generally practiced in language institutes was used as the textbook. The textbook included sixteen lessons, the first five lessons of which were taught to the students during the course.

As for instruments, two tests were employed in the study. A placement test was administered as the pre-test to determine the homogeneity of the students and an achievement test as the post-test to determine whether employing alternative teaching model and single teacher resulted in significant difference in the students' reading proficiency.

### Procedure

The study was undertaken in Tanin Language Institute in the city of Ilam, west of Iran. After administering the placement test, thirty students were assigned to study in level six. Based on their score, the students were equally distributed into two classes, each containing fifteen students. The experimental group was taught by two teachers using alternative teaching model during five weeks on even days wherein one teacher called lead teacher, taught the large group who were supposed to be more talented and the other (co-teacher or supporter) worked with the small group who needed more explanation, and remedial activities. The latter group was taught by one single teacher during the same period. The same content was taught in both classes. The lead teacher and the support teacher made decisions about the content and organization of the lesson cooperatively. They also determined the appropriate structures for alternative remedial or enrichment lessons that would promote student learning. The lead teacher conducted formal teaching, including the entire stages of reading instruction such as pre-reading, reading and post-reading. All the learners were encouraged to participate actively in the learning process. They also implemented supplementary activities for the whole group, small groups or individuals before or after the formal lesson. The support teacher attempted to find out the learners' weaknesses and help them with activities by which they were able to guess unknown vocabularies by known words and grammatical structures which have not been previously learnt and internalized.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As mentioned earlier, two tests were employed in this study. At the first stage, a pre-test was administered so as to ensure that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their language proficiency. The mean scores obtained through the pretest for the control and experimental group were 69.53 and 71.40, respectively. To see whether the two groups were significantly different or not, T-test was run, the result of which is provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Results of Independent Sample Test on Learner's language proficiency in pretest.

T	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
-.621	28	.540	-.4	6.44

Since the value of the T-observed was less than T-critical at  $P < .05$ , ( $t = 0.621$ ,  $DF = 28$ ,  $p < .05$ ), it can be concluded that there was not a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group with regard to their general language proficiency. In other words, the control and the experimental groups were at almost the same level of English competency.

To investigate the effect of alternative teaching strategy and traditional single teacher teaching on EFL Learner's reading comprehension improvement, an identical achievement test based on the content taught during the course was administered to both classes. The mean scores of the control and the experimental groups were further processed to explore whether there is a significant difference between their reading improvements. The results revealed that the mean scores for the control and the experimental group on the posttest was 64 and 77.33, respectively. Therefore, another t-test was run to show if there was a significant difference between the two groups of learners in their achievement scores.

Table 2: Result of Independent Sample test on the Learners' Reading comprehension on the posttest

T	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
-2.326	28	.028	-13.33	5.73

Since the T-observed was higher than the T-critical ( $t = -2.326$ ,  $DF = 28$ ,  $p < .05$ ), it can be claimed that there was a significance difference between the control and the experimental group in their reading improvement.

## CONCLUSION

This study focused on the effect of alternative teaching strategy on EFL students' reading comprehension. The data collected and analyzed indicated greater improvement in reading comprehension of the experimental group. Therefore, with regard to the stated research question, it can be concluded that the alternative teaching contributed more to learners' reading comprehension improvement. In other words, the learners in the experimental reading class whose course was taught by co-teachers, performed remarkably better than learners who experienced the reading class course in the control class with single teacher.

One important aspect of the result was that all individuals in the experimental group benefited from the alternative teaching strategy. It can thus be concluded that the learners' engagement and the practice of co-teachers can enhance classroom performance and encourage greater student participation.

Further analysis of the results demonstrated that most of the poorer learners in the pretest had a better performance in the posttest: that is, they scored higher on the posttest (see Appendix). These findings are in line with Murawski and Swanson (2001) who underlined the fact that co-teaching had a beneficial effect on students' outcome. Therefore, it can be safely concluded that alternative teaching can be more contributive to the improvement of the learners who take part in co-taught classes.

Although the results of this study indicate the positive impact of the alternative teaching strategy, care must be taken in overgeneralizing the findings in various contexts. Despite its significance, this model requires the co-teachers to work cooperatively and collaboratively to plan appropriate instructional programs and materials so as not to baffle the students in the learning process. Moreover, this study suggests further research to be directed to investigate other variables that might affect co-teaching methods including the culture, genders, and level of learners.

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Appendix: Learners’ pre-test and post test scores

Control Group			Experimental Group		
Student ID Number	Pretest	Post test	Student ID Number	Pretest	Post test
1	85	80	16	87	90
2	78	70	17	75	75
3	80	75	18	83	85
4	89	80	19	85	85
5	75	75	20	75	85
6	90	85	21	92	95
7	95	85	22	94	95
8	65	65	23	68	80
9	45	35	24	55	60
10	40	40	25	53	65
11	55	45	26	57	60
12	60	55	27	58	70
13	70	65	28	72	75
14	81	75	29	78	80
15	35	30	30	39	60

**A CONTRASTIVE STUDY OF GENERIC ORGANIZATION OF DOCTORAL DISSERTATION  
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS BY IRANIAN STUDENTS ACROSS HUMANITIES SUB-DISCIPLINES**

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**ABSTRACT**

Genre studies have attracted many researchers' attention. The present study was to observe the differences in generic structure of doctoral dissertation acknowledgement texts written by Persian native and English non-native (Iranian) PhD students. To this end one hundred (sixty in Persian and forty in English) dissertation acknowledgement texts were selected. Hyland's (2004) model was utilized for the study. After analyzing each text, the main moves and their steps were extracted and the frequencies of each one were calculated and compared. Also, a chi-square test was applied to check whether differences between Persian and English texts were meaningful. The results showed that there were some differences but these differences were not statistically significant. In addition, two new steps called "thanking God" and "opening" steps were discovered throughout this study. And the difference in using these steps between Iranian students writing in Persian and English was statistically significant.

**KEYWORDS:** doctoral dissertation, acknowledgement, move analysis, steps, sub-disciplines.

**INTRODUCTION**

With no doubt, writing a dissertation either for a Masters or a Doctorate student is a difficult process requiring not only days and nights of devoted times of the writer, but also the support and encouragement of the people around, academically or otherwise. Acknowledgement is most probably the section of the dissertation that the writer writes with utmost joy. They are read first by the ones who were with the MA and/or PhD students throughout this difficult path. Furthermore, these are the parts of the texts where the writers need to express their gratitude to the ones helped them appropriately considering the very intricate rules of communication (e.g., the face needs of the other and the self, the social context, representation of the self). Therefore, as Hyland (2004) argues, these sections are significant in enabling authors build a credible scholarly and social character in readers' mind.

Despite this important function of the acknowledgments, the analysis of the genre and its components (e.g., the move structure, thanking order and the thanking patterns) has not received a deserved attention in the literature yet. The literature of the acknowledgments comprises very few studies conducted in recent years (i.e., Al-Ali, 2010; Gesuato, 2004; Hyland, 2003, 2004). The common point of research in acknowledgments is that there is a crucial necessity for further research in the area since insufficient knowledge in constructing acknowledgments may lead to improper expressions of gratitude, which may result in a reflection of an incompetent academic and social identity of the students completing their Masters and Doctorate degrees (Hyland, 2004).

As Buyukkantarcioglu (1998, p.159) asserts "the choice language is very significant in maintaining social relationships". As for thanking expressions, which constitute the main body of the acknowledgments, the choice of language is especially important. Thanking as inherently being a face-enhancing act, can become face-threatening with an inappropriate use of language, when contextual (e.g., cultural environment) and/or personal factors (e.g., degree of intimacy) are disregarded. In the same vein, Eisenstein and Bodman (1993, p.64) argue that while, as a ubiquitous speech act, the act of thanking can "engender feelings of warmth and solidarity among interlocutors" when properly performed, it can also endanger the course of relations when performed otherwise. Moreover, if the act, expected by the reader/hearer, is not performed at all, the hearer/reader may get hurt or annoyed (Spencer Oatley, 2008).

To this end, the current study intends to contribute to the fields of sociology, Persian literature, religion, geography, history, social sciences, and English language Teaching (henceforth ELT), English literature, linguistics and translation in the following respects: In regard to the generic structure analyses of the acknowledgment sections the study will;

- (1) reveal the organization, i.e. the move structure, the thanking order in Persian Literature dissertation acknowledgments, with that of religion, social sciences, geography, history and sociology comparing to English translation, linguistics, English literature and ELT dissertation acknowledgments, and display how they formulate their thanking expressions addressed to the ones supported them in their journey of writing their MA or PhD dissertations,
- (2) act as the recent comparative study in the analysis of dissertation acknowledgments written by Persian native speakers and English non-native speakers.
- (3) raise awareness on the importance of the genre, leading possibly to better organized and written acknowledgments, in which a more unique and creative tone of voice sounds.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The history of acknowledgments actually goes back to the times when the authors were dependent on the powerful ones in authority in order to publish their academic works (Giannoni, 2002). Though in time the reasons for including acknowledgments in academic papers have changed, they were always a part of published texts appearing either as a part of preface or as a separate section (Giannoni, 2002).

The first study in literature on acknowledgments, as far as the author is aware, is the one conducted by Mackintosh in 1972 (cited in Tiew & Sen, 2002, p.44), where it examines the structure of acknowledgments and determines a three step move as the acknowledgment of the (i) help of individuals, (ii) access to data, (iii) facilities.

In 1987, Ben-Ari, investigates two hundred anthropological ethnographies and defines acknowledgments as genres having a peculiar construct that differ from the main text it is added to. He mainly asserts that (1987, P.65) acknowledgments are:

Formulations that take on an intermediate position between the internal contents of the Ethnography and the people and relationships outside it: They are both an introduction to an intellectual product and a reconstruction of the external contributions that have gone towards its realization.

The literature on dissertation acknowledgements , on the other hand, is quite limited. Despite acknowledgments being a very common section of dissertations (i.e.,80% of MA and 98% of PhD dissertations in Hyland & Tse, 2004) very few studies in linguistics /applied linguistics have examined the structure of the acknowledgments written by MA and PhD students. The literature mainly comprises the studies conducted by Hyland (2003, 2004) and Hyland and Tse (2004),which aim at exploring the structure of the acknowledgments and the patterns of thanking expressions appearing in acknowledgments based on a corpus of 240 MA and PhD dissertations written by non-native speakers of English in six academic fields (i.e. Applied Linguistics, Biology, Business Studies, Computer Sciences, Electronic Engineering and Public Administration).

More specifically, Hyland (2003) focuses on the textualization of the gratitude suggesting that acknowledgements reflect authors` unique rhetorical choices which are shaped by the authors` social and cultural characteristics and by the field they get specialized in. Hyland (2004) generates a content-based framework for acknowledgments by introducing three separate moves ; **Reflective Move, the section where the author comments on her experiences; Thanking Move, the place presenting gratitude to academic assistance, resources, family and friends; and Announcing Move**, the last part including the acceptance of responsibilities for flaws or errors and dedication of the thesis.

In addition to the previous findings on acknowledgements, Hyland and Tse demonstrate the lexico -grammatical patterns of the thanking expressions by categorizing them under five categories as: Nominalization, Performative verb, Adjective, Passive, and Bare mention.

Al-Ali (2004) works on a corpus of 100 acknowledgments written by Arabic native speakers in English within the framework of the move structure proposed by Hyland (2004), the Reflective –Thanking-Announcing Move structure. As one additional move he encounters with the “Thanking Allah” pattern in the Arabic PhD dissertation.

In his latter article, Al-Ali (2010) reviews 100 acknowledgments written in Arabic by students from soft sciences .Examining the acknowledgments, Al-Ali builds a new move structure (see Table 1) for the Arabic acknowledgments, observes the thanking strategies employed in the moves and makes a socio-cultural analysis of the PhD dissertation acknowledgments written by the native speakers of Arabic.

*Table 1: Number of Move components in Dissertation Acknowledgements written in Arabic Source : Al-Ali, 2010:8*

Component Moves of Arabic acknowledgements n: 100	Number of Moves
1. .Opening	25
2.Praising and Thanking Allah(God)	70
3.Thanking Supervisors and other Academics	100
4.Acknowledging Access to Resources	62
5.Thanking for Moral Support	61
6.Invoking and Blessing	68
7.Closing	52
8.Signing off	20

Al-Ali (2010) maintains that the choice of language in acknowledgments very much depend on some socio-cultural and religious motivations .For instance, he (2010:20) reveals that 25% of the acknowledgments written in Arabic start with verses from the Qur`an or sayings of the Prophet, emphasizing the significance of praising Allah and 70% of the acknowledgments include the “Thanking Allah” move. Reporting from Hyland (2005:197) Al-Ali states that meta-discourse of the similar texts show notable differences in accordance with the cultural background of the authors.

One contrastive study in literature, as far as the author is aware, is Giannoni`s (2002) study on the Acknowledgement sections of English and Italian research articles. In his article, he compares and contrasts the structure of acknowledgments on the basis of a move structure he develops (i.e...Introductory move, Main move). His corpus of acknowledgments consists of 100 acknowledgments (50 for each set of English and Italian corpora) collected from 50 English and 19 Italian research journals written in six academic fields (i.e..., three social sciences and three natural sciences ).

The study (Giannoni, 2002) reveals that while the Italian acknowledgments are more elaborate than the English ones regarding the move structure, English employs more variation in wording. Moreover, while impersonal constructions are higher in percentage in Italian acknowledgments, English thanking expressions appear more with direct constructions of thanking. One of the findings of the study that Giannoni states is the difference in focus between the corpora. He (2002, p.25) argues that the focus of acknowledgments is on “help” in English acknowledgments, but on the “value” in Italian ones, which might be an indication of the “utilitarian” understanding of Anglo-Saxon academicians and the “value-favoured” understanding among Italian ones.

In Turkish and Iranian context, however, neither acknowledgements of research articles nor dissertation acknowledgements have been investigated in the fields of linguistics, applied linguistics or in English Language Teaching so far. This study will be addressing this gap in the Iranian context and will add a new dimension to the research on acknowledgments by examining the patterns of thanking in accordance with their addresses for the first time.

***The socio-cultural context of the study***

To have a clear conception of the nature of gratitude and thankfulness in Persian dissertation acknowledgments, some light need to be shed on the broader socio-cultural context of thankfulness and gratitude as a communicative event. Fairclough (1995:112-29) emphasizes the centrality of the situational context by looking at issues related to the place of production of the text and the socio-cultural factors that go into producing and interpreting it. As the genre texts under analysis are produced and interpreted in relation to their cultural context, it is necessary to define culture. There are many definitions for culture because it can be conceptualized and defined from various perspectives .For instance, Samovar and Porter (1994) define culture as:

The deposit of knowledge ,experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, hierarchies, religions, roles, [...],and Material objects, and

possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations Through individual and group striving (p.11).

The cultural values, which are defined by Samovar and Porter (1994) as 'a set of organized rules for making choices...' (p.15), specify and even constrain how members behave and interact in particular communicative contexts.

As the texts are produced by Iranian writers, it is supposed that the writers' cultural values and the socio-cultural context are complexly woven into the ideology presented in these texts. In this way, these socio-cultural factors are essential in understanding the writers' communicative purposes as they manifest their effects on the content choice and schematic structure of the texts, which are constructed in these situations (Kress, 1989:19). Therefore, the texts produced by Persian writers are assumed to be influenced by Persian culture-specific conceptual categories that include, among others, religious affiliations and beliefs, social customs and hierarchy, as well as commitments related to family, relatives and friends.

Regarding religious affiliations, the vast majority (95%) in Iran is Muslim and Persian speaking. The overwhelming majority of Iranians' practices are governed by Islamic prescriptions (Al-Ali, 2006: 694). In this regard, Harris (1958:40) points out that 'Islamic law embraces the whole range of personal and social life' in Iran. Despite regional differences in the religious specifics of adherents, Islam provides a framework within which Persians from all around the world tend to identify themselves as one people (Harris, 1958). Thus it is likely to argue that Islamic religion is one of the basic features of culture that has influence on the Iranian socio-cultural practices. Their social life, as Castleton (2006:76) points out, is generally regulated by religious precepts to the extent that social values are largely indistinguishable from religious values and practicing a communicative event tends to be derived from an inner need to satisfy religious beliefs.

The Iranian writers share a common heritage of Islamic values, amongst which are 'thanking' and 'paying gratitude'. Consequently, Islamic religion has prescribed a shared body of values and convictions for conduct related to paying gratitude that delineate and constrain the Persians' faith. Gratitude, according to McAuliffe (2003), is a moral marker usually paid in response to kindness. It is 'a spiritual and moral state of mind, spiritual in the sense of acknowledging the believer's obligations to the creator, and moral in the sense of maintaining rightful conduct in relation to God and to those appointed by God [i.e. people]' (p.370). Gratitude is an attribute of divinity due to the fact that the Holy Qur'an mentioned ninety-nine names and titles for Allah (i.e. the most beautiful names that belong to Allah), one of which is *al-fakur* (meaning the All-Thankful).

While the Holy Qur'anic prescriptions and the prophetic sayings played a seminal role in promoting thankfulness to Allah and parents, the social customs and traditions, as well as commitments related to family, relatives and friends also helped to support and disseminate gratitude. The Iranian society has developed a set of shared understandings, modes of actions that provide overarching principles for Iranian interaction considered appropriate for the individual needs and the desired ends the society sets for its members. This type of cultural grammar includes aspects of relationships between members of the Iranian society related to a system of rights, duties and favors in the form of behavior expressions realized in offering help, or services initiated and exchanged between persons. These kinds of help in turn normally set up obligations: the favored person has the duty to return the favor with something of equal value or preferably of a little greater value. In the case of Ph.D. dissertation writers, there are individuals who either do favors or have the duty to fulfill obligations for the writers. These individuals include, besides others, supervisors, other academics, wife, husband, parents, relatives and friends. To illustrate, academic supervisors have a duty to supervise the thesis, provide critical feedback, and shape the reported work through their ideas and insights. This is considered by the supervisees as a favor which in turn elicits an obligation from them in the form of thanking and paying gratitude. In other words the supervisors and other academics are entitled to certain duties from their supervisees. Mutual obligations and favors are also demanded of those with kinship ties to the writers, such as parents, wives, husbands, brothers and sisters since the Muslim Iranian culture could be termed as 'a kinship culture' (Al-Ali, 2006: 707) Brothers are expected to be supportive morally. Therefore, one can say that there is a kind of 'corporateness' between the family members as they see themselves in relation to others, as members of groups (i.e. extended family), and are expected to sacrifice their own needs for the greater good of the group. Because it is taught that the individual achievement of the favored person is for the benefit of the family members (Rugh, 1985: 278-9).

Actually in Iran, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is little research on dissertation and no research on acknowledgements. This study is concerned with the identification of schematic moves and sub-moves (steps) that are specific to acknowledgement text of doctoral dissertation in the field of humanities. After identifying the patterns they were compared to find similarities and differences between generic structure of native and non-native acknowledgement texts. Results of this study can help EFL, ESP and EAP teachers to teach these patterns to students and students in turn can use these patterns in their writing. Syllabus designers also can include them in their writing. Syllabus designers also can include them in their syllabuses of EAP writing.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Is there any difference between type and frequency of move structure in doctoral dissertation acknowledgements texts written by Iranian students in Persian and English in sub-disciplines of Humanities?
2. Is there any difference between type and frequency of steps in doctoral dissertation acknowledgements texts written by Iranian students in Persian and English in sub-disciplines of Humanities?
3. Is there any difference between acknowledgements scheme in doctoral dissertation written by Iranian students in Persian and English in sub-disciplines of Humanities?

Based on the above questions the following null hypotheses were constructed:

1. There is no difference between type and frequency of move structure in doctoral dissertation acknowledgement texts written by Iranian students in Persian and English in sub-disciplines of Humanities.
2. There is no difference between type and frequency of steps in doctoral dissertation acknowledgement texts written by Iranian students in Persian and English in sub-disciplines of Humanities.
3. There is no difference between acknowledgement scheme in doctoral dissertation written by Iranian students in Persian and English in sub-disciplines of Humanities.

## METHODOLOGY

### *Corpus construction and procedures*

A total of 100 acknowledgment sections written in Persian by doctoral Persian native speakers and English by doctoral English non-native speakers were selected for the present study. To minimize variations across disciplinary boundaries, the sample was restricted to acknowledgment sections covered humanities (social sciences, literature, geography, history, sociology, religion, English literature, English

Language Teaching, Linguistics, Translation). Ten acknowledgment sections were analyzed from each of these ten academic disciplines. The length of the texts ranges from 74 to 784 words. The average was 216 words. The sections were written in Persian by Persian native speakers and English by English non-native speakers from Iran, Mashhad. Soft knowledge domains have been focused due to homogeneity of Persian and English Ph.D dissertations. The other reason for the focus on these disciplines is to consider Persian written acknowledgments that rely on localized input and compare it to English written acknowledgments by non-native speakers of English. To control rapid changes within any of the disciplines, the texts were selected from dissertations written over a period of fifteen years (1998 to 2013). Extracts were taken from this set of dissertation sections omitting the writers' names or any element that revealed anything about the identity of the people concerned.

#### *Theoretical framework and procedures of data analysis*

To identify the genre component options available to Ph.D. acknowledgments writers that are used to articulate the communicative purposes of the dissertation acknowledgment texts and socio-cultural forces that give explanations for these generic resources and the lexico-grammatical devices used to realize these options, Bhatia's (2004) notion of genre was employed which considers a genre text as a socio-cultural practice. Since no research, as far as I know has been carried out on acknowledgment genre in Persian texts to offer a grounded language identification and description of the acknowledgment genre component options and their lexico-grammatical textualization, Hyland's (2004) coding scheme was utilized for a corpus of English dissertation acknowledgments written by postgraduate students, with modifications and additions of certain moves. Hyland's analysis is based on Swalesan (1990) genre moves for article introductions which has been profitably extended by genre analysts to other academic genres. Genre analysis has been approached from different perspectives. Whether approached in terms of the existence and arrangement of obligatory and optional structural elements (Halliday & Hassan 1989: 63-4), or recognizable communicative events characterized by a set of consistent communicative purposes (Swales 1990: 58; Bhatia 1993: 13), or typification of rhetorical actions (Miller, 1984:151; Bazerman,1994:315-16), or regularities of staged, purposive social processes (Martin 1992, p.505), genre theory covers a lot in common ground (Bhatia 2004, p.22). Despite these seemingly different perspectives stimulated by different orientations, genre analysts study genre as a communicative linguistic behavior in a particular setting. It is characterized by identifiable communicative purposes that shape the schematic move options used by writers to construct the genre. Table 2 below provides a description of the modified coding scheme. The additions and modifications of Hyland's coding scheme include the addition of five moves: 'Opening', 'Thanking Allah (God)', 'Invoking and Blessing', 'Closing' and 'Signing off'.

All of the acknowledgements texts were first electronically scanned and converted to computer text files. Each of the texts was then coded for the generic moves by the researcher herself. After discussing and presenting a definition of each move, I asked another trained linguist to code a sample of thirty texts. On a check of inter-rater reliability, the two raters had an agreement rate of 91% in identifying and categorizing the moves on 30 (30%) selected acknowledgements. Quantitative analysis of linguistic features and their frequencies within moves was then performed. The component moves which appeared most frequently in my analysis of post-graduate student acknowledgements are listed in Table 1.

The role of the socio-cultural perspectives that contribute to the construction and interpretation of this discourse genre were also investigated. These perspectives cover a range of features such as beliefs, norms and conventions, which in turn give rise to the unstated behavioral principles (Bhatia 2004: 25) on the part of the members of a particular academic or professional group when they participate in social or academic communicative events. According to Bhatia (2004:20), the emphasis at this level of analysis tended to extend the analysis beyond the textual product to include the broad socio-cultural context to account for the way text is constructed and often interpreted, used, and exploited in specific institutional or academic contexts to achieve particular communicative purposes.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Genre analysis is used here to find out the component rhetorical moves and the lexico-grammatical devices post-graduate students utilize to construct an acknowledgment text. The analysis of the generic structure of Persian acknowledgements accompanying Ph.D. dissertations has shown eight-move components (see table 1). The texts analyzed demonstrated differences in the number and frequency of moves employed, as well as the type of component moves included. In the corpora analyzed, the moves higher up the list usually made their first appearance before those lower down. There were, however, some exceptions. Move 5, 'Thanking for Moral Support, sometimes, occurred before Move 4, 'Acknowledging Access to Resources, and Move 6, 'Invoking and Blessing' tended to appear immediately after the thanking moves 3,4,5.

Table 1: Component Moves of Acknowledgements

Component Moves of Persian Acknowledgements, n=100	No. of Moves	
	Persian	English
1. Opening	25	0
2. Praising and Thanking Allah (God)	70	30
3. Thanking Supervisor(s) and other academics	100	100
4. Acknowledging Access to Resources	62	64
5. Thanking for Moral Support	61	61
6. Invoking and Blessing	48	0
7. Accepting responsibility    (closing)	0	42
<b>8. Dedication    (Closing)</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>20</b>

The individual components of the acknowledgements section genre found in the corpora are presented. The frequency of each component and the order in which these individual components occur are given in Table 1.

#### *Opening*

The first component of the Persian acknowledgments examined was the 'Opening'. It occurred in percent of the sample. This component opens with one of the following options as is shown in Table 2:

Table 2: Distribution of opening options across Corpus

Opening Option	Frequency in Persian	Frequency in English
Qur'anic verse	8%	0
Prophetic saying	5%	0

Prayers on the Prophet	6%	0
Invocation followed by the formulary	6%	0
Expression <i>wa-baad (and then)</i>		
Total	25%	0

**Praising and thanking Allah**

This component occurred in 70 percent of the Persian acknowledgements analyzed. When employed, it generally occupies the first position in comparison to other thanking component options. This component contains expressions of gratitude, and praise to Allah (God) for his favors; one of these bounties is making the completion of the Ph.D. dissertation task possible. The corpus revealed that the praising expressions and gratitude are both prevalent in the corpus of 70 percent of Persian texts while only 30 percent of English majors corpus (written in English) revealed phrases of praising and gratitude to Allah.

Table 3 : Expressions of Praising and Thanking Allah

Expression Type	Frequency in Farsi	Freq in English
Praising phrases	35%	5%
Thanking phrases	15%	10%
Praising followed by Thanking phrases	20%	15%
Total	70%	30%

**Thanking supervisors and other academics**

The aim of this component is to pay off one`s intellectual debts to individuals who have made significant intellectual influence and contributions of various kinds such as originating the idea of the thesis, shaping the reported work through their ideas and insights, or providing critical feedback. Further, it reflects a rich mix of personal, moral, intellectual stimulation provided by intellectual, and conceptual support received from members of the discourse community ( i.e. principle dissertation advisors, doctoral committee members, senior academics, and instructors ). This component registers personal and `behind the scenes` interactions. It also gives insights into the values and attitudes of the discourse community and the relationship between the individual and the world of academia .Since this component is the only step that has been found in all texts, it can be considered an obligatory constituent.

The corpus showed that the acknowledgers tend to exploit elaborate and deferential patterns of thanks and gratitude expressions especially to their supervisors. They utilize overt forms of thanks expressed mainly through nominalization, or a performative act to realize this component as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Patterns Expressing `Thanking Supervisors and Other Academics`

Form	occurrences	Frequency
I.nominalization	307	85%
1.Conjoined synonyms other than `thanks`	92	30%
2.`Thanks`conjoined with other synonyms	215	70%
II.performative verbs	46	15%
Total	353	100%

**Acknowledging access to resources**

This component includes thanks and gratitude addressed to participant subjects and those who avail or provide access to data, technical assistance, clerical help (e.g. proofreading, typing , and statistical analysis),financial support ,or facilities that are necessary for the academic study. This step occurred in 62 percent of the acknowledgements analyzed and generally followed component 3.To repay some of the assistance received to accomplish their degree ,dissertation writers tend to use overt expressions of thanks which involve either a bare performative verb `I thank` without an introductory preface ,which accounted for 40% of all forms or its simple nominalization `thanks` (45%).

**Thanking for moral support**

This category collates expressions of feelings of gratitude for psychological, spiritual, and moral support, encouragement, patience and care received from family members, relatives, friends and colleagues during the period of study. In particular, the data analyzed showed that this category allows the writers to thank parents for their love, supplications and invoking; wife/husband for patience, sacrifice, love and care; children for patience; brothers, sisters and relatives for love and moral support; and friends for help, psychological support and hospitality.

The data revealed that commitment to the social community represented by the extended family ( i.e. father, mother, brothers, and sisters), relatives and friends was evident in 61% of the texts analyzed. Virtually most of the moral support moves employed in the corpus contained at least a word of gratitude to one`s parents who were mentioned before other members of family. This high frequency can be explained with reference to religious affiliations as the first thing that Allah enjoins upon man is to show gratitude to Him and to one`s parents.

**Invoking and blessing**

Another favored strategy is invoking God`s (Allah`s) favors upon acknowledgees. This act includes requests of Allah`s bestowal of divine favor on an addressee to protect and guard him/her from evil thereby bringing him/her happiness. Invoking and blessing are generally fulsome , often even lavish, virtually in this corpus ; they occurred in over half of the acknowledgements analyzed. It is interesting ,however, that this strategy carries explicit interpersonal connotations, similar to patterns of complimenting behavior at speech events, such as phatic conversation (Holmes, 1995; wolfson, 1989 [quoted in Hyland, 2000:53]). However, there are not direct invoking and blessing in the corpus (Farsi & English) but still we can find it in the Opening and Thanking Allah and Supervisors and academics. Neither of these invocations is arbitrary; they are part of their culture reflecting their realm of thought. `It may seem obvious that words with special culture- specific meanings reflect and pass on not only ways of living characteristic of a given society but also ways of thinking` (Wierzbica, 1997,p.5).

A significant issue related to this strategy is the fact that more than 80 percent of the writers who included this component chose this strategy to supplement the `Thanking Move`, particularly thanking supervisors and academics. Further, this component does not occur only once in each acknowledgement genre. Most often the writers opted for a composite `Thanking` followed by Invoking and Blessing`; this pattern is repeated several times. That is to say, when an acknowledgee is thanked, this act is often supplemented by invocations.

#### *Closing*

Instead of ending abruptly, about half of the writers (42%) add a sentence or a few to conclude the whole text in order to give it a sense of completeness. This move was present in only English dissertation acknowledgements and was not present on the other Persian corpus, and always followed the Thanking move when it did occur. For the writers who employed it, this move provided a means of publicly making a declaration of their authorial accountability for the dissertation's contents or dedicating the work to an esteemed individual, although the two steps never occurred together.

#### *Accepting responsibility*

By clearly stating their responsibility for possible shortcomings in the data, results, and ideas in a dissertation, writers not only seek to absolve their advisors and collaborators of blame for any deficiencies, they also assert their ownership of the product. This implication is clear in the juxtaposition of assistance and independence often seen in this step:

- I have received much useful advice throughout the writing of my thesis, but all the faults that remain are obstinately my own. (Ling. PhD)
- Notwithstanding all of the above support for this project, any errors and/or omissions are solely my own. (Elt. PhD)

Accepting responsibility therefore clearly redresses the impression of dispersed responsibility or uncertain authorship which may have been given in the Thanking move and functions to re-establish the student's rights to be regarded as an independent researcher.

#### *Dedicating the thesis*

Only a handful of texts included this step, and perhaps for this reason it stands out as a particularly warm and heartfelt act of thanks unrelated to any rhetorical intent. Here writers borrow a device they have seen in books, although virtually unknown in academic papers, to offer a tribute to people who have made a special contribution to their lives beyond the confines of the research context:

- I would like to dedicate this dissertation especially to my parents for both of them have thought me the meaning of life and its significance.

Here the formal conventions of academic writing and the rhetorical strategies of self-promotion are laid briefly aside and the writer is able to present him or herself in a way which corresponds more closely to a more familiar social identity. In this step we find an attempt to both break free of the restrictions of dissertation discourses and to put the completed research experience into a wider perspective.

### CONCLUSION

The preceding snapshot of the component strategies that are employed offers insights about Persian dissertation acknowledgement genre with its discourse structures and the linguistic choices that tend to occur in this genre. In order to understand the rationale governing the rhetorical construction, which in turn reflects the communicative purpose of this genre, I now turn to discuss socio-cultural values and academic constraints that give rise to both the template strategic potential components and the lexical choices available to the writers evidenced in this corpus.

#### *Socio-cultural factors affecting the acknowledgement schematic components*

A discursive look at the generic components, which are ritually drawn upon in writing the acknowledgement texts, displays some of the religious and socio-cultural motivations for the behavioral strategic choices to articulate the communicative purpose of this genre. For way of illustration, twenty-five instances of this genre were initiated with an 'Opening' based on Qur'anic verses or Prophetic sayings. Evidently, although this option does not have a high frequency of occurrence (25%), it is in no means being considered arbitrary. The instances used to express this move seem to reflect the Qur'anic and Prophetic sayings, which focus on the centrality of praise and thankfulness to Allah (God). The centrality of the concept of Allah is fully pledged and reflected in the 'Thanking Allah' component, where seventy percent of the writers present their thankfulness and gratitude to Allah. The examples related to this strategic option show that the writers tend to contemplate Allah's right of praise and gratitude upon them because Allah is thought the source of inspiration, health, patience, perseverance and strength. According to the Qur'anic prescriptions, thanking and praising Allah for his munificence result in increasing the graces of Allah and getting very close to His mercy.

'If you are grateful, I [your Lord] will add more favors unto you; but if you show ingratitude, truly My punishment is terrible indeed.' (Ali 1989:605)

Religious affiliation is further reinforced by the sixth component, 'Invoking and Blessing'. Calling upon Allah to bless the acknowledgees, the writers usually employ invocations to supplement the thanking components addressed to their supervisors (i.e. Move 3), and to those who were of help in access to data (i.e. Move 4). That is to say, the acknowledgers do not employ thanking and gratitude acts, but these acts are also often supplemented by invocations. Cycles of this pattern including Component 3 or 4 followed by invoking and blessing element reoccur. Such cyclicity could be explained with reference to the cultural belief that 'the word of thanks by itself is not usually a sufficient response to a Farsi compliment and needs to be complemented by additional words' (Nelson et al. 1996, p. 429). This behavior also comes out in the 'Closing' (Move 7), where it is sometimes expressed by a sentence or a stretch of sentences having roots in the Holy Qur'an containing either supplications and/or praises for Allah to bless the writers and to bring them more success. Therefore these strategic components in this paper can be seen as contextualization cues that bring about the impact of religious beliefs and values of the writers.

Acknowledgement texts also furnish indications about the social system of favors and obligations constraining the acknowledgement behavior of the writers. For instance, in the 'Thanking for Moral Support' Move, the writers thank their wives for supporting and serving the daily nurturing of their family while their husbands are being heavily engaged in preparing their theses. In Muslim culture or collectivistic one such as the culture in this study, where in groups take precedence over individual (Triandis 1983), family members see their happiness as resting in the realization of certain corporate purposes: in experiencing a satisfying family, and in exerting efforts to strengthen and coalesce family ties. Likewise, the system of favors and obligations sets up a kind of moral obligation on Iranian Muslim family members who have affective kinship ties to the writers, such as parents, brothers and sisters to support the Ph.D. writers by supplications and invoking, as well as financial support which is returned in the form of thanking and paying gratitude. Thus, one can claim that there is a kind of 'corporateness' between the family members, seeing themselves as members of an in group (i.e. extended family) who are expected to sacrifice their own needs for the greater good of the group. That is because in-group thinks that the individual achievement of the acknowledged person is for the benefit of the group. Similarly, Mursy and Wilson (2001: 138) point out that Iranian Muslim society, 'which basically derives its values from Islam, elevates the group above the individual and values responsibilities and obligations towards the

community'. However, while the Iranian social ideology values corporateness, and sacrifice to fulfill the extended family's goals, a fundamental truth for Westerners is associated with individualism, equal rights and the chances to realize individual goals (Rugh 1985, pp.276-77).

In contrast to Western view, the nature of interaction and social relationships practiced by the graduate students seems to show similarity with non-Western way of viewing interpersonal relations in which politeness functions at the level of society rather than at the level of individuals. For instance, Gu (1990) endorses its normative constraints on each individual'(p.242).Accordingly, individuals behave in conformity with culturally expected norms that are institutionalized by the society. That is to say they place the society's face above their individual desires. As pointed out by Foley (1997), Chinese can be characterized as sociocentric. In such cultures 'the individual and his autonomy are not singled out as the local understanding of person; rather his embeddedness in the social context is the stuff of this definition as a person'(p.266).

If a comparison is drawn between the results obtained from analyzing the generic structure of Farsi and English acknowledgements written by Iranian native speakers and those reported in Hyland's (2004) study of Ph.D. dissertation acknowledgements, one can claim that there are differences as well as similarities. There are general similarities in schematic component moves with respect to the thanking moves (Thanking supervisors, and Thanking for data access, clerical and technical support, and for moral support). Thus, it might be argued that the use of these generic components (i.e. Hyland's model) in the Persian texts may give an impression of the influence of the western practice which might have been imitated by the acknowledgers who either have been taught by instructors having been influenced by the western practice, or having had an idea about acknowledgements written by western authors. Another explanation is that both Farsi and English acknowledgement data share general communicative purpose (i.e. acknowledging credit to anyone who has helped in any way) which is, in turn, articulated by these similar thanking generic moves. Related to this justification is that academic genres, to a certain extent, transcend the territorial constraints of ethno-cultural allegiance (Widdowson 1990) and linguistic borders. Accordingly, it is anticipated that Farsi and English texts develop some similar tendencies to articulate the general communicative purpose of their academic discourse community.

Although both Farsi writers and the non-native speakers of English employed similar thanking schematic moves, Farsi writers' data exhibit cultural specific differences in the use of generic resources in terms of the type of rhetorical component choices, naming practices and organization conventions. With regard to the first point, the Farsi writers tend to use certain components such as 'Opening', 'Thanking Allah', 'Invoking and Blessing', 'Closing' and 'Signing off' which is subcategorized to accepting responsibility and Dedication of thesis that do not surface in the English texts analyzed by Hyland (2004) except for the final steps of dedication and accepting the responsibility. The researcher has found out this subtle difference between Farsi and English written texts ;while there are opening and thanking Allah, and invoking in the Farsi texts ,the closing stages are missing on the other hand, there is no opening and invoking and only 20% 'thanking Allah' move in the English texts also last stages of closing move are present i.e. the writers accepted their responsibility and dedicated their work to their loved ones. The occurrence of these additional components in Farsi texts reverberates and reinforces the socio-cultural proclivities of the Muslim Iranian writers explained at the beginning of this section. These culture specific-preferred patterns of discourse also reinforce Hyland's (2005:197) view that there is 'considerable variation in the role played by meta discourse in similar genres written in different cultures', as different cultures have different expectations for writing.

As for the second observation, the heading of the Persian acknowledgements has not achieved the same degree of uniformity in terms of naming conventions as it is the case in English. That is because various nomenclatures are sometimes used as titles for the Persian acknowledgement section. To illustrate, the title of this section presents writers with several options, the most frequent of which (70%) is 'Thanks and Appreciation'. Other options are 'a word of thanks' (12%), 'thanks and dedication'(8%), or simply a one word title 'Thanks' (5%). Sometimes, this section is included under the heading of other sections such as the 'Introduction', or mingled with the 'Dedication' section. In other words, the title has not gained a large degree of uniformity in comparison with its English counterpart.

The third point is the observation that the Persian acknowledgements seem to incorporate a number of epistolary conventions of professional letter genre such as the 'Opening', 'Closing', and Signing off as well as 'Thanking for Allah' moves. This was shown in the way twenty-five percent of the Persian acknowledgements are prefaced with the 'Opening', e.g., 'In the name of Allah'. Then Praising for Allah occurred in nearly 70% of the Persian acknowledgments. The 'Closing' and 'Signing off' move was merely evident in 42% of the English instances in the form of accepting the responsibility or Dedication of the thesis. While comparing to Arabic acknowledgements written by Al- Ali (2004), the Closing move was evident in fifty-two percent of the instances that typically close with ritualistic praises and supplications for Allah. Likewise, the 'Signing off' move which is placed at the end of the Arabic texts occurred in 20% of the Arabic acknowledgements. These components reflect the epistolary conventions of Persian professional letters. This tendency suggests that not all of the genre components included in the Persian acknowledgements are an exclusive property of this particular genre since some ingredient components are likely to be found in other well-established genres. Therefore, one may conclude that these lexical, and generic component options seem to be appropriated (Bhatia 2004:87-88) to shape a new generic form.

The generic structure which is the overall organization of the acknowledgement text reveals how each component of the text contributes to the overall communicative function of conveying gratitude and thankfulness. The analysis of the corpus revealed that acknowledgement texts comprise a common rhetorical schematic structure built around an eight staged meaningful basic component moves: Opening> Praising and Thanking Allah > Thanking Supervisors and other Academics > Acknowledging Access to Resources > Thanking for Moral Support > Invoking and Blessing > Closing -accepting responsibility-dedication. However, no single corpus sample neither contained all of these components nor presented them in this order.

The data also exhibit cultural specific differences in the use of generic and lexical resources. It was observed that the Persian writers tend to use certain components such as 'Opening', 'Thanking Allah', 'Invoking and Blessing', components that are absent in the English texts. Another remark is that conventionally accepted generic forms seem to have given way to accommodate newly accepted practices. This is evinced in the tendency that Iranian Muslim writers exploit some generic conventions of another well-established genre, to communicate socially and academically accepted communicative purposes. This study also has shown that the type of components included in most of the acknowledgements analyzed shows a predisposition to resort to the socio-cultural values which can be attributed to the ideology that characterizes most distinguished of Iranian society. At the same time, as already mentioned, some generic practices or writing habits have been borrowed from the West. Sell (1991) believes that 'it is not true to say that people in one culture can never have the faintest idea of what people in other cultures feel'[and that] 'people in different cultures can never feel the same things exactly' (p.14).

This paper examined(1) how the Persian L1 writers express their thanks, (2) the influence of situational and socio-cultural factors on the choice and(3) the lexico-grammatical options available to them. However, much work remains to be done to find out the boundaries

between personal rhetorical choices available to writers, the options related to the socio-cultural constraints, the ideas borrowed from other dissertations, and those due to the general academic conventions that transcend socio-cultural allegiance. We need qualitative research based on personal interviews with the writers of the acknowledgement genre to tease out their consciousness of their rhetorical choices in the process of production of these texts. The research needs also to be extended to other disciplines, such as hard sciences in Persian, and to other languages to compare and contrast how gratitude is expressed. Also, the impact on genre patterns of situational factors such as the author's age, gender, seniority, and publishing experience can be examined. Clearly, we need to examine writers, readers and texts in greater detail to tease out the limits of personal choice and the kinds of effect they can have. The effort is worthwhile for it will help to ensure that students understand the options available to them and the effects of manipulating these options for interactional purposes.

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#### ABSTRACT

Among other factors that affect translators' mind while producing a text, their spiritual intelligence level might be an influential element. The present study tries to discover whether there is any significant relationship between translators' spiritual intelligence level, and the quality of religious texts translation they produce. The research also investigated the relationship between spiritual intelligence components and quality of translation. To this end, a sample of 42 male and female BA graduated students of English Translation Studies comprised the participants of the study. The participants received a package of four tests: a translation test and two sets of questionnaires were used one to measure the spiritual intelligence level and the other to determine the favorite genre of the subjects for translating. An additional Test of English as a Foreign Language also was applied in order to determine the subjects' English foreign language proficiency level. The research questions were analyzed using Pearson correlation test. The findings of the study revealed that there was no significant relationship between the level of spiritual intelligence of translators and the quality of their translation and between spiritual components only critical existential thinking and transcendental awareness can be positive predictors of the quality of English to Persian translations of religious texts. The analysis also showed that females' spiritual intelligence is significantly higher than average score among males and level of spiritual intelligence cannot be a good predictor to determine the translators' favorite genre.

**KEYWORDS:** Spiritual Intelligence, Quality of translation, TOEFL test

#### INTRODUCTION

Human beings have different abilities which have significant roles in their overall performance and behavior. Ignoring the impact of these factors makes the understanding and interpretation of behavior difficult. "Undoubtedly, in the era of communication and dialogue among civilizations, translation as a human behavior occupies a crucial role in transferring different ideas among different nations" (Shangarfam & Abolsaba, 2009, p. 103). Translation is a phenomenon that has a crucial effect on people's life. It has been regarded as an art, craft, and science by various scholars during the history (Ordudari, 2008). According to Newmark, "translation is rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text" (1988, p. 5). But, the problem is that translation is not as easy as it seems. Even in a single language, choosing synonymous words is a difficult task.

According to Edmonds (1998) "When it admits more than one lexicalization, it is often difficult to choose which of these 'synonyms' is the most appropriate for achieving the desired pragmatic goals" (p. 507). In the case of religious texts, the difficulties are expanded. Translating religious texts is a difficult activity for a variety of reasons: firstly, there is a huge chronological gap separating the original text, its culture, language and context, from the target text and audience; secondly, there is the issue of revelation, and the divine nature of the text (Williams & Chesterman, 2002); thirdly, "centuries of veneration have given them [religious texts] a thick overlay of meanings" (Long, 2005, p. 3); finally, although not exhaustively, "the semantic space required in the target language can already be occupied, and the vocabulary and grammatical structures available to convey the message may already be "culturally loaded with indigenous referents" (Long, 2005, p.1).

Generally translation is not a simple process that only requires transforming words from one language into another. As Chen (2007) asserts, "it is unquestionable that the process of translation needs to engage in a great deal of decision-making activities". Levy claims that the process of translation is similar to the process of playing the game of chess (as cited in Venuti, 2000). Considering the process of decision-making in translation as a particularly complex procedure, Willis suggests that the translator should pay his attention on to the factors that lead to choices, rather than on the choices themselves (as cited in Baker, 1997). He further indicates that the final decision depends on a host of factors. Furthermore recent studies (Murphy, 2006) made it obvious that translation has always gone hand in hand with so many factors, thus it should be studied along with other fields, and it is not separated from them. One of the fields that can have a close relationship with translation is psychology. No one can deny the role of memory, language competence, world knowledge, experience, and practice in the success of a translator. The translator has his own feeling about language and his translation. This feeling consists of a 'sixth sense' and also it includes intelligence and sensitivity as well as knowledge (Newmark, 1988). The combination of all these feelings comes into play in the task of translation. "Translation is an activity of intelligence requiring creative problem-solving in novel, textual, social, and cultural conditions", (Robinson, 1997, p. 51). But what *kind* of intelligence does it utilize? Gardner defines intelligence as "the ability to find and solve problems, the ability to respond successfully to a new situation and the capacity to learn from one's past experiences" (1983, p. 21). He has proposed eight intelligences, including linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, naturalist, and bodily-kinesthetic (Gardner, 1983, 1993, 1999). Recent decades have also observed broad literature on social and emotional intelligences which describe cognitive abilities of emotional perception on intra- and inter-personal levels (Gardner, 1983; Mayer, 1990). As Gardner (1983) explains, "owing to heredity, early training, or, in all probability, a constant interaction between these factors, some individuals will develop certain intelligences far more than others; but every normal individual should develop each intelligence to some extent, given but a modest opportunity to do so" (p. 278). This means that teachers can now add a new role to their traditional ones: they should activate the less developed types of intelligence in each learner as well as to optimize and draw upon those types that are already active, in order to enhance students' educational opportunities and options (Martins, 2011). Among the intelligences proposed, the concept of *spiritual intelligence* (SI) has remained a forerunner in the past decade (Emmons, 2000 a; Nasel, 2004; Wolman, 2001; Zohar & Marshall, 2000). Vaughan (2002) defined SI as the ability to give meaning which is based on deep understanding and the awareness of existential questions, and the ability to use multiple levels of consciousness in problem solving. Using Gardner's definition of intelligence, Emmons (2000 b) argues that spirituality is a form of intelligence. He claims that spirituality predicts functioning and adaptation as demonstrated by correlations of spirituality with improved health or well-being. As noted above, development of multiple intelligences by Gardner (1983) motivated language educators began to explore the relationship between multiple intelligence (MI) and language learning/teaching, although it has never, to our knowledge, been applied to translator training (Martins, 2011).

The aim of the present study is to investigate the relationship between spiritual intelligence and translation. There are several purposes for this study: first, as the available literature in Iran is low on empirical research on the relationship between translation and spiritual intelligence, the scarcity of research and a need for spirituality in learning and teaching situations necessitates undertaking a study in this field. Second, if the translators' spiritual intelligence can help the translator in perception of the text connotative meaning which is purely associated with the non-literal senses of a word (Yule, 1996) and affects the translation quality, the translators will try to improve this aspect of themselves.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### *Multiple Intelligences*

Psychological testing has remained a critical tool that school psychologists use to assist in educational, behavioral and vocational decision-making (Hu & Oakland, 1991). And also the concepts of multiple intelligence and learning style are widely encountered and used today in education, business, arts and other areas of daily life. There is a substantial research on multiple intelligences and learning style in different fields and with different purposes. As suggested by an assumption, combining individual multiple intelligences and learning style in education may help students learn in fields other than those in which they are strong (Silver et al., 1997). Multiple intelligences concept introduced by Gardner (1983). He argues that high scores in mathematics and language tests cannot alone serve as a proof of human intelligence. Intelligence is something beyond the scores made in standard paper-and-pencil tests used to estimate success at schools. In other words, traditional intelligence tests cannot measure the abilities of a chess player, an athlete or a violinist. Gardner (2004) maintains that intelligence incorporates too many abilities not to be explained by a single factor. He describes intelligence as the capacity of an individual to create products that are valued in one or more cultural setting, his/her skill to produce effective and efficient solutions to problems in daily life and also his/her ability to discover new and complex problems demanding solutions (as cited in Saban, 2004). Gardner (1983) first defined seven different types of intelligence and then introduced "naturalistic intelligence" as the eighth type. Regarding human's different types of dominant intelligences, therefore, it seems inevitable that the theory of multiple intelligences will influence curriculum, learning approaches and assessment-evaluation processes. Considering the translator as a learner, Robinson (1997) puts forward that "translation is an intelligent activity involving complex processes of conscious and unconscious learning" (p. 49). He maintains that, "translation is an intelligent activity, requiring creative problem-solving in novel, textual, social, and cultural conditions" (p.51); but what kind of intelligence does it utilize?. It may seem that translators and interpreters are intelligent *only* linguistically; as if the only intelligence they need on their work as translators are the ability to understand and produce language. It is not. Technical translators need high spatial and logical/mathematical intelligence as well. Interpreters need high bodily-kinesthetic and personal intelligence. Translators of song lyrics need high musical intelligence.

### *Spiritual Intelligence*

Spiritual intelligence (SI) is one of the human abilities that distinct human from the other beings. According to Amram (2009), spiritual intelligence is a kind of ability that causes self-consciousness, self-control, profound understanding of meaning of life, purposefulness, increase in peace, the ability to communicate effectively with others and mental health. Spiritual intelligence does not refer to a specific religious orientation. So in this part, the concentration is on the reviewing of theorists' viewpoints about definitions, dimensions and the studies done to establish a connection between spiritual intelligence and human's some different behaviors. Spiritual intelligence (SI) is one of the human abilities that distinct human from the other beings and it is a difficult term to define. As Crichton asserts that "there are a lot of challenges to define and describe spiritual intelligence: what is it, how it functions, and whether it can be learned or improved; though none of the authors addressed all of these issues" (2008, p. 8). Spiritual intelligence as a new dimension of human intelligence has been presented by Zohar and Marshall and linked the term "SQ" (spiritual quotient) that stands for Spiritual Intelligence. He believes that SQ becomes the fundamental basis of effective usage of EQ and IQ as being argued by people. It is also been denoted by people as the intelligence of the soul. One's IQ comes from the reasonable and logical thinking while EQ derives from the associated habit-bound and pattern awareness emotional thinking. A person's creativeness, understanding, rule-formulating skill and rule breaking thinking reframe and alter our previous thinking that further provides a person the SQ. SQ permits an individual to include a greater, profound and more affluent context to the present just like the whole can be greater than the sum of its parts. There is no such essential connection with organized religion as to the term "*spiritual*" relative to intelligence.

## RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' spiritual Intelligence and the quality of their English to Persian translations of religious texts?
2. Is there any significant relationship between components of spiritual intelligence (critical existential thinking, personal meaning production, transcendental awareness, and conscious state expansion) and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts?
3. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' spiritual Intelligence and their gender?
4. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' level of spiritual intelligence and their favorite genre?

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants of the research*

The target sample of the current study included male and female EFL graduate students of English translation studies living in Dargaz, Iran. The present study relied on a self-selected sample of participants which fell, into the category of opportunity/convenience-sampling in that it relied upon suitable participants in the local to be recruited via correspondence. To remove the effect of EFL level as a variable which might have affected the quality of translation, firstly, participants were homogenized through a sample of a TOEFL test. About 55 graduate students from Dargaz took part in this study, but data from 19 participants were discarded due to EFL proficiency test, reducing the number of sample to 42.

### *Instrumentation*

In order to conduct the study and to investigate the proposed hypotheses, ie, to investigate the variables types of spiritual translation, the researcher used some sets of tests including a rendering and transferring test of translation, and a questionnaire to measure the EFL learners' SI level and also the genre preference of the subjects. An additional TOEFL test was also applied in order to determine the subjects' EFL proficiency level.

**Procedure**

The following steps were taken to accomplish the purpose of the study: First, to ensure the sample's homogeneity, a sample TOEFL test was administered to 55 students among which 42 students whose scores fell within one standard deviation above and below of the mean of the TOEFL test were selected. The participants were all allowed to use any kind of dictionary they desired. First, the translation test was administered to the participants and once each participant had finished the assignment, s/he was given the questionnaires to fill. The time allocated for administering the translation test was 60 minutes and it took 15 minutes to answer the questionnaires. The spiritual intelligence questionnaire had a fixed scoring rubric provided by its designer, and the Khanmohammad and Osanloo's (2009) model was used to rate the translations. To avoid subjectivity as a major problem in scoring the translations, three different raters rated the learners' translations. Therefore, each participant's translation score was the average of the scores given by the three raters.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

To investigate the first hypothesis, that is, there is no relationship between the spiritual intelligence and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was calculated.

*Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the obtained Scores on Translation Test, and Spiritual intelligence*

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Translation	73.05	18.407	42
SI	60.74	13.245	42

As it can be seen, table 1 shows the results of variables of religious translation and SI. The mean and standard deviation of religious translation are 73.05 and 18.407 respectively. Also, another variable; the mean and standard deviation of SI are 60.74 and 13.245 respectively. Therefore, it should be noted that the difference between these two variables was not significant. In order to find the difference, the researcher conducted Pearson Correlation Test between these two variables.

*Table 2: Pearson Correlation Test between Translation and SI*

		Translation	SI
Translation	Pearson Correlation	1	.221
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.160
	N	42	42
SI	Pearson Correlation	.221	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.160	
	N	42	42

Table 2 shows the Pearson Correlation Test between religious translation and SI. As the table indicates, the level of significance is .160 and is more than threshold 0.05. Therefore; the present results did not reject the first hypothesis. In fact, the relationship between religious translation and SI are not significant. To address the second hypothesis, there is no significant relationship between critical existential thinking and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts, the following analysis was conducted.

*Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of the obtained Scores on Translation Test, and CET (Critical Existential Thinking)*

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Translation	73.05	18.407	42
CET	17.45	4.203	42

As it can be seen, table 3 illustrates the results of variables of religious translation and CET as components of SI. The mean and standard deviation of religious translation are 73.05 and 18.407 respectively. Also, another variable; the mean and standard deviation of CET as component of SI are 17.45 and 4.203 respectively.

*Table 4: Pearson Correlation Test between Translation and CET*

		translation	CET
Translation	Pearson Correlation	1	.751**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	42	42
CET	Pearson Correlation	.751**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	42	42

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

The above table illustrates Pearson Correlation Test. As the table indicates, the level of significance is .000 and less than threshold 0/01. Therefore, the relationship between religious translation and CET as components of SI is significant. The correlation between translation and CET are equal to 0.751 and correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). So the results reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of the obtained Scores on Translation Test, and PMP (Personal Meaning Production)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Translation	73.05	18.407	42
PMP	14.24	3.818	42

As it can be seen, table 5 illustrates the results of variables of religious translation and PMP as components of SI. The mean and standard deviation of religious translation are 73.05 and 18.407 respectively. Also, another variable; the mean and standard deviation of PMP as component of SI are 14.24 and 3.818 respectively. Therefore, it should be noted that the difference between these two variables was not significant. In order to find the difference, the researcher conducted Pearson Correlation Test between these two variables.

Table 6: Pearson Correlation Test between Translation and PMP

		Translation	PMP
Translation	Pearson Correlation	1	.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.483
	N	42	42
PMP	Pearson Correlation	.111	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.483	
	N	42	42

As the table shows, the level of significance is more than threshold level of 0.05. Therefore, there are not any relationship between religious translation and PMP. So the obtained results support the null hypothesis, that is, There is no relationship between personal meaning production and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of the obtained Scores on Translation Test, and TA (Transcendental Awareness)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Translation	73.05	18.407	42
TA	17.10	4.259	42

As it can be seen, table 7 illustrates the results of variables of religious translation and TA as components of SI. The mean and standard deviation of religious translation are 73.05 and 18.407 respectively. Also, another variable; the mean and standard deviation of TA as component of SI are 17.10 and 4.259 respectively. In order to find the difference, the researcher conducted Pearson Correlation Test between these two variables.

Table 8: Pearson Correlation Test between Translation and TA

		Translation	TA
translation	Pearson Correlation	1	.327*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.035
	N	42	42
TA	Pearson Correlation	.327*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.035	
	N	42	42

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

The above table indicates Pearson Correlation Test between these two variables. As the table shows, the level of significance is .035 and less than 0.05. Therefore, the Pearson coefficient for the relationship between religious translation and TA is .327, and it is positive. This tells us that, as religious translation increases, TA increases. Thus, our hypothesis indicated that "there is no significant relationship between transcendental awareness and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts was rejected.

*Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of the obtained Scores on Translation Test, and CSE (Conscious State Expansion)*

translation	73.05	18.407	42
CSE	11.74	3.596	42

Also, in the above table shows the mean and standard deviation of these two variables. The mean of religious translation and CSE are 73.05 and 11.74 respectively.

*Table 10: Pearson Correlation Test between Translation and CSE*

		Translation	CSE
Translation	Pearson Correlation	1	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.940
	N	42	42
CSE	Pearson Correlation	.012	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.940	
	N	42	42

Table 10 indicates the Pearson Correlation Test between religious translation and CSE. As the table indicates, the level of significance is .940 and is more than threshold 0.05. Therefore, the relationship between religious translation and CSE are not significant. In fact, the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between conscious state expansion and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts was not rejected.

***Spiritual intelligence and Gender relationship***

To investigate the second hypothesis, that is, there is significant relationship between EFL learners' spiritual intelligence and their gender, according to their gender, the average score of the participants was calculated. The results are indicated in Table 11.

*Table 11: Descriptive Statistics of SI Scores according to gender*

Gender	N	Maximum Score	Minimum Score	Average
Female	23	82	36	62.45
Male	19	75	27	54.44

In this research, the strongest spiritual intelligence that girls had was 82 and the weakest intelligence score for them was 36. But about the males the strongest spiritual intelligence was 75 and the weakest intelligence score for them was 27. Comparing the average scores of two groups, the level of spiritual intelligence varies in people according to their gender. In this study, females with average score 62.45 have a higher spiritual intelligence than males with 54.44 average score. So the hypothesis is confirmed.

***Spiritual intelligence and favorite genre relationship***

To examine the last hypothesis, that is, there is significant relationship between EFL learners' level of spiritual intelligence and their favorite genre, the participants were divided into two upper and lower groups according to their spiritual intelligence scores; and also their probable favorite genre was assumed through the questionnaire which was explained in details in the previous chapter. The results are indicated in percentage in the Table 12 Comparing two groups, we can see there is no significance different between upper and lower group according to their obtained scores in each genre. Unexpectedly, participants in lower group who enjoyed of lower spiritual intelligence were more interested in religious text translation than the upper group. But the differences were not significant. Thus, the hypothesis that "EFL learners who have high level of spiritual intelligence are intrinsically interested in translations of religious texts", was rejected.

*Table 12: Upper and Lower genre preference*

	Genre		
	Religious	literary	scientific
Upper group	%33.30	%28.5	%38.09
Lower group	%47.6	%19.04	%33.33

## CONCLUSIONS

This study examined the relationship between two sets of scores on a translation production test and a spiritual intelligence questionnaire which were obtained from the same participants. Based on the results of this study, the main null hypothesis was not rejected. In other words, the research provided evidence that there was not any significant relationship between the spiritual intelligence and the quality of English to Persian translations of religious texts. However, further studies may be required on this topic in order to draw more certain conclusions. In addition to the main hypothesis, the next claim that there was no correlation between the quality of English to Persian translations of religious texts and the components of spiritual intelligence, two of them were rejected and two confirmed. In simple terms, in spite of null hypotheses, there was significant relationship between CET (critical existential thinking) and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts and also between TA (transcendental awareness) and the quality of EFL learners' English to Persian translations of religious texts. But as predicted, there was no relationship between the other two components of spiritual intelligence, that is, PMP and CES and the quality of religious text translation. Regarding the fact that among all people, no group has experienced more difference than what men and women done (Glick & Rudman, 2008), the third positive hypothesis saying "there is significant relationship between EFL learners' spiritual intelligence and their gender", was confirmed. The results showed that women have a higher level of spiritual intelligence than men. The findings of the study also showed that there is no meaningful relationship between spiritual intelligence and translators' favorite genre. It means that level of spiritual intelligence cannot be a good predictor for translators' favorite genre.

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A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF EFL LEARNERS'  
'AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE' AND 'ACCULTURATION' IN RECEPTIVE SKILLS

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#### ABSTRACT

Due to the detrimental effects of foreign language ambiguity on multiple areas of language achievement, a large body of research has been devoted to examining the sources of ambiguity intolerance. Yet very few have considered acculturation and proficiency level of learners as causal factors in foreign language Ambiguity Tolerance. This enquiry proposes hypothesized links between foreign language ambiguity tolerance, three components of Schumann's (1978, 1986) acculturation theories (assimilation, preservation, and adaptation), and selected cognitive variable proficiency level as (high, mid, low) in the Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) context. A set-wise regression analysis revealed the two variables that contributed significantly to the prediction of foreign language ambiguity tolerance: preservation, and English language proficiency. The pedagogical implications of these findings for reducing FL ambiguity intolerance and for improving foreign language learning and acculturation are discussed. An important finding indicates that learners' inclination to resist the TL culture can lead to increased levels of ambiguity intolerance. Hence, strategies need to be devised and implemented to allow learners to develop stronger security about their roots and simultaneously reaching out to global world where multilingual and multicultural societies are the norm.

**KEYWORDS:** Ambiguity tolerance, Schumann's acculturation theory, Acculturation, Receptive skills

#### INTRODUCTION

McLaughlin (1987) and Daniels (2000) acknowledge that acculturation theory originated with the ethnographic work of Linton (1960, as cited in Daniels 2000,p.1), who studied the changes Native Americans needed to make in order to become more integrated into mainstream American society. He identifies the notion of the distance separating the two cultural groups and the social and psychological changes which would be necessary for closer interaction to take place. Social distance would be associated with the actual contact which was available between the two cultures, while psychological distance represented the extent to which the learner wanted to become closely adapted to the dominant culture. Perhaps the earliest model toward centrality to learner factors was Schumann's acculturation /pidginization model (1978). Gass and Selinker (2008) assert that the model developed from Schumann's observation of the untutored acquisition of English by Alberto, a 33- year old, working class Costa Rican living in the Boston area. Alberto lived in a Portuguese- speaking neighborhood and worked in a factory staffed by NNSs of English. Due to his limited contact with English speakers, it is not surprising that Alberto was not a very successful language learner. Schumann explained Alberto's limited acquisition of English by pointing to Alberto's social and psychological distance from speakers of the TL.

Reading and listening in a foreign language may be a rather ambiguous process that involves processing unknown linguistic and cultural input, which might eventually cause uncertainty and/or confusion on the part of readers or listeners. Success in such a complex and uncertain process may involve a myriad of factors, one of which could be tolerance of ambiguity that readers exhibit during reading. It is significant to explore this psychological construct since an awareness of how it influences foreign language learners and learning may alter the way teachers plan and execute their lessons, and help learners overcome their psychological barriers. Thus, this study was prompted by the desire to understand tolerance of ambiguity in relation to such factor, proficiency level and its correlation with students' acculturation in their EFL reading and listening comprehension success. Below is presented a brief review of related literature, followed by a description of the research methodology and findings. The findings are then discussed in the light of literature, conclusions are drawn and suggestions are made.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

##### *Ambiguity and Tolerance*

Early definitions of ambiguity regarded uncertainty in real life. In such definitions, ambiguity was described as caused by the nature of cues available in the context or stimulus given. McLain (1993), for example, defines ambiguity as not having sufficient information about a context. According to Budner (1962), ambiguous situations can be of three types: new situations, complex situations, and contradictory situations. These are, respectively, where there are not sufficient or non- existent cues, where there are too many cues, and where cues are not easy to distinguish. Norton (1975), further, summarizes causes of ambiguity as 1) multiple meanings, 2) vagueness, incompleteness, or fragmentation, 3) a probability, 4) unstructured, 5) lack of information, 6) inconsistencies and contradictions, and 8) unclear. Kazamina summarizes current definitions and concludes that ambiguity is marked by "novelty, complexity, insolubility and lack of structure" (1999,p. 69).

Related to the concept of ambiguity is *tolerance*. Webster's Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of English language defined tolerance as "a fair and objective attitude toward those whose opinions, practices, race, religion, nationality, etc. differ from one's own; freedom from bigotry." Such a definition of tolerance precludes acceptance of ambiguous situations whereas intolerance may entail considering uncertainties and unclear meanings as potential sources of discomfort and treat (Norton, 1975). Tolerance of ambiguity, then, can be a reflection of our personality (Ely, 1989; Ehrman, 1993; 1994). As such, people with tolerance of ambiguity are likelier to feel comfortable under uncertain conditions (Budner, 1962).

##### *Ambiguity Tolerance (AT) and Language Learning*

Ely (1989) defines AT as the acceptance of uncertainties. Such tolerance can be translated into the language learning context as "an ability to deal with ambiguous new stimuli without frustration or without appeals to authority. It allows for indeterminate rather than rigid categorization" (Ellis, 1994: 518). In this sense, students with AT, then, are expected to feel comfortable with learning a new language with its uncertainties and unknown structural and cultural norms to be dealt with. McLain (1993), for example, reports that students who are tolerant of ambiguity are more willing to take risks and open to change (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Naiman, Frohlich, Stern & Todeso,

1978) and show endurance on tasks and higher levels of achievement (Chapelle, 1983; Naiman, Todeso, and Florich, 1975). Similarly, White (1999) views AT as a reaction to uncertainties whereby ambiguity is accommodated so that it does not impede progress. Our level of AT may also influence the use of certain language learning strategies. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) found that learners with intuitive type of personalities who have relatively higher levels of AT reported that they often guessed from context whereas sensing type of personalities with lower AT reported that they disliked having to guess from context. Further, learners, who are called judgers, reported not using compensation strategies like the sensing type of students because of their discomfort with ambiguity, whereas perceivers who can tolerate uncertainty tended to use of metacognition while perceivers reported that they disliked metacognitive behaviors, reflecting their also illustrated the influence of AT on the use of strategies. The first student who was comfortable with ambiguity did not want to use a dictionary in extensive reading and wanted to carry on without looking up unknown words. However, the second student who was not so tolerant “ first figured out the sentence structure , checked the meanings of unknown words, and then translated it into Japanese” (ibid: 89) to minimize any possible ambiguity.

Ehrman (1993; 1999) maintains that tolerance of ambiguity operates at three levels: *intake; tolerance of ambiguity proper; and accommodation*. On the first level, tolerance enables learners to receive linguistic input. Students with tolerance of ambiguity can perceive and accept new information even though it involves many unknown elements. The second level involves being able “ to hold contradictory or incomplete information without either rejecting one of the contradictory elements or coming to premature closure on an incomplete schema” (1993,p.331). At this level, the learner has taken new information in and needs to deal with contradictory or incomplete information (e.g. inferring meanings of unknown vocabulary in an article). The last level has been borrowed from constructivist psychology (Piaget, 1967 ) and involves adopting the self according to new material. That is, this level entails integrating new information with the existing schemata, restructuring the latte

#### **How tolerant should learners be of ambiguity?**

Ambiguity is an inevitable reality of learning a new language and people do tend to have different levels of ambiguity .As reviewed above, research indicates that AT is related to achievement in language learning .However, concerns have also been expressed regarding over-tolerance. This is because such high levels of tolerance may result in unquestioned acceptance (Ely, 1995; Kazamina, 1999). Ely maintains that the lack of sensitivity to ambiguous linguistic data may cause early pidginization or fossilization in language development. The question then becomes “ what level of ambiguity is ideal for success in language learning?” It is generally suggested that a moderate level of tolerance of ambiguity should be beneficial for effective language learning. Ely claims “ the ideal case, of course, is that of the learner who is neither inhibited by low tolerance of ambiguity nor oblivious to linguistics subtleties” (ibid:93).However, Kazamina (1999) purports that this mid- point has not yet been fully defined. To elucidate this mid- point , El-Koumy (2000) illustrated that moderately tolerant students were more successful than both high tolerance students and low tolerance students. His findings are illustrative of what degree of tolerance is suitable for language learning and in all four language skills. Yet , more research is needed to understand the nature and place of AT in the process of foreign language learning.

#### **The acculturation model**

The acculturation model, developed by Schumann, is based on social and psychological factors.” Acculturation” is defined as the social and psychological taxonomy of factors which are believed to be important in the process of SLA in natural contexts. The major claim of the model is that acculturation , which is a cluster of social-psychological factors, is the major cause of SLA (Schumann, 1978,1990). Schumann states that any learner can be placed along a continuum ranging from social-psychological distance to social-psychological proximity with the speakers of the target language. The degree of language acquisition, then, would correlate with the degree of the learner’s proximity to the target group. Schuman (1986) claims that acculturation , or the integration of the L2 learner into the target linguistic community is not a direct cause of second language acquisition (SLA), but rather it is the first in a chain of factors which results in natural SLA. Schumann (1986,p.385) proposes that “ acculturation as a remote cause brings the learner into contact with TL-speakers and verbal interaction with those speakers as a proximate cause brings about the negotiation of appropriate input which then operates as the immediate cause of language acquisition. According to Schumann (1978), social distance refers to the learner as a member of a social group that is in contact with another social group whose members speak a different language. He enlists various factors that shorten the social distance:

*Social dominance:* If the second-language learning (2LL) group is politically, culturally, technically or economically dominant to or subordinate to the target language (TL) group, social contact between the two groups will tend not to be sufficient for optimal target language acquisition. If they are nearly equal in status, then there will be more contact between the two groups and thus, acquisition of the target language will be enhanced. *Assimilation, preservation, and adaptation:* The best condition for L2 acquisition is obtained when the 2 LL group wants to assimilate into the TL group. The second best condition occurs when the 2LL group wants to adapt to the TL culture for intergroup interaction without assimilating to it .The least favorable conditions obtain for acquiring the L2 when the 2LL group wishes to remain separated linguistically and culturally from the TL group. *Enclosure:* The more 2LL group , the more likely the contact with the TL group , the more favorable the conditions will be for L2 acquisition. *Cohesiveness and size, Congruence:* The more similar the culture of the two groups, the more likely there will be social contact and thus language acquisition. *Attitude, Intended length of residence and the psychological factors* affect the psychological distance are : *Language shock (Learner’s confusion when using l2), Culture shock (Learner’s disorientation as a result of culture differences).*

#### **Acculturation: Types, Stages and Kinds of Learning**

Trawinski (2005) cites social and psychological distances determine how much input the learner will be exposed to , and how much input will be converted in to intake. Schumann (1978) believes that the level of language proficiency the learner achieves strictly depend on the degree of acculturation. He distinguishes three functions of language, which may also be considered as the three stages of language development:

- Communicative function ( the transmission of referential information only)
- Integrative function ( the mark a membership of a particular social group )
- Expressive function ( the display of linguistic virtuosity)

The acculturation model developed by Schumann (1978) emphasizes identification with a community as a primary requirement of SLA .According to Schumann, there are two types of acculturation. The first type takes place when the learner is socially integrated with and psychologically opens to the target group. The second type of acculturation has all the characteristics of the first type except for the psychological open-ness of the learner .Brown (1980) postulates the process of acculturation in the target language natural environment consists of four stages:

**Euphoria**-the learners get excited over the newness of the surroundings

**Culture- shock**- emerges as individuals feel the intrusion of more and more culture differences into their own images of self and security

**Cultural stress**- gradual recovery: some problems of acculturation are solved, while others continue for some time. The learner starts to understand the differences in thinking. The learner's problems center around the question of identity, she/he does not perceive herself/himself as belonging to any culture.

**Full-recovery**- adaptation, assimilation or acceptance of the new culture. A new identity developed.

Schumann (1978) also describes the kind of learning which take place in this model. He suggests that the early stages of SLA are characterized by the same processes that are responsible for the formation of pidgin languages. If the social and/or psychological distance is great then acculturation is impeded and the learner does not progress beyond the early stages of language acquisition. As a result his/her target language will stay pidginize. Pidginization is characterized by simplifications and reductions occurring in the learner's inter-language which lead to fossilization when the learner's inter-language system does not progress in the direction of the target language (Gitsaki,1998).

#### *Evidence Supports the Acculturation Model*

Schumann (1978) provides some supporting evidence from different studies that these variables enhance or inhibit SLA. He also postulates that psychological factors, especially motivation, may have more influence on SLA than social factors (Stauble, 1977). It is interesting to note that according to this model, variables other than acculturation are of minor or moderate importance for SLA. For example, instruction is assumed to have no important role in SLA. In this regard, Schumann (1978, p.368) states: "... Educational institutions are really only free to manipulate teacher, method, and text variables. I believe that these variables are so weak in terms of the total language learning situation that no matter how much we attempt to change them, we will never achieve much more success than we are achieving now". Norton Pierce (1995) highlights the strength of Schumann's model in the socio-cultural contexts of language learning without neglecting the role of individuals in the language learning process. It recognizes, furthermore, the importance that must be placed on regular contact between language learners and speakers of the target language for successful language learning to take place. Moreover, Doughty and Long (2003) postulate that Schumann's model applies to L2 acquisition in the natural settings only. They maintain that, in FL learning the situation is quite different because most social and affective variables lose their importance in conscious learning. Consequently, the Acculturation Model can not be used directly for purposes of working out a methodology for FL instruction. Finally, according to Schumann (1986), acculturation is a dynamic process that takes place over time. A learner's social and psychological distance profile may change during the course of his or her stay in the TL environment.

#### *Acculturation Extended Model (AEM)*

It should be noted that the acculturation model focuses on social and psychological factors and ignore other variables in SLA. That is why some scholar added other variables to account for SLA along with acculturation factor. Ellis (2008) and Larson-Freeman (2007) assert that an elaborated version of Schumann's model was provided by Anderson as cognitive dimension. Anderson built the nativization model on Schumann model in particular by providing a cognitive dimension which Schumann did not consider. According to Ellis (1985) the model consists of two major processes:

**-Nativization:** The process of assimilation of the input. The learner modifies the L2 input to match his/ her internalized knowledge of L1, other languages and the world. This process is visible in the first stage of language acquisition.

**-Denativisation:** The process of accommodation. The learner modifies his/her internalized knowledge to accommodate L2 input. This process is typical for later stages of language acquisition when L2 production is close to target norm.

Teske and Nelson (1974, cited in Navais, et.al.2005) offered the first complete psychological perspective on acculturation. According to these writers, acculturation included changes in material traits, behavior patterns, norms, institutional changes, and importantly, values. However, Teske and Nelson did not go further in their psychological analysis of how members of diverse cultures accommodate to one another. This was left to Berry (et. Al., 1992), who expanded on the view of acculturation to include varieties of adaptation and specifically identified the following four factors: assimilation, integration, rejection, and deculturation. The importance of Berry's model was that it recognized the importance of multicultural societies, minority individuals and groups, and the fact that individuals have a choice in the matter of how far they are willing to go in the acculturation process. Today, there are numerous instances of ethnic groups who have managed to revive their ancestral language and culture (Fishman,2001). Thus, acculturation was not seen as a strictly unidimensional process of cultural change but as a process forced by intergroup contact with multiple outcome.

#### **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

Despite the significant research efforts and advances in exploring factors associated with FL ambiguity tolerance, previous studies have mostly considered the links between FL ambiguity tolerance and socio - demographic variables or personality variables. Less attention has been paid to the role of culture, particularly acculturation, in FL ambiguity tolerance. Furthermore, although acculturation has thus far been shown to be a possible source of ambiguity, how its different aspects operate to affect ambiguity in EFL setting remains unclear. The present research purports to investigate the relationship between three facets of acculturation ( assimilation, preservation, and adaptation) and FL ambiguity in the Iranian EFL context. This study aimed to understand how tolerant Iranian learners of English are in the preparatory English classes as well as to explore the relationship between Tolerance of Ambiguity and one major variable: language proficiency. Given that much of the discussion on acculturation focuses on immigrants and most scales developed to measure acculturation center on bilingual immigrant contexts (Anderson et al., 1993; Stephenson, 2000; Tsai, Ying, & Lee, 2000), a questionnaire was designed for this study to probe into the issue. In an attempt to bridge these research gaps and offer insights into multifaceted nature of FL ambiguity tolerance (AT).

#### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- 1) How tolerant are Iranian university level EFL learners of ambiguity?
- 2) Does tolerance of ambiguity increase as level of English proficiency develops?
- 3) What are the relationships between learners' FL ambiguity tolerance, acculturation, and selected socio-demographic variable?

#### **METHODOLOGY**

##### *Participants*

The participants included 188 undergraduate students participating in conversation classes at Safir Language Institute in Mashhad, Iran. Of the whole participants, the majority was females while there were fewer male students (106-56% vs. 67-36%). Fifteen students did not report their gender. The students had a mean age of 19.67 (SD= 1.51), representing a very close age band. They generally had an intermediate level of English proficiency (108-57%), followed by pre-intermediate (48-26%), and advanced (27-14%) students. A big proportion of students perceived themselves as average readers and listeners (115-61%) while 34 students (18%) reported that they thought they were good at reading and listening in English. An important proportion of students (19%) thought they were not good at receptive skills in English. The participants were selected based on a local Teacher-made placement test.

**Instruments**

The Participants were invited to complete a paper-based questionnaire which consisted of three parts: (a) the Foreign Language Classroom Ambiguity Tolerance Scale (FLCATS) ; (b) the EFL Student Acculturation Questionnaire (ESAQ) ;and (c) the Background Questionnaire. The FLCATS (Ely, 1995) with some demographic questions. Although there are other scales for measuring AT available in the literature (e.g. Budner, 1962; Norton, 1975) , to the best of our knowledge , FLCATS is the only published scale especially designed for measuring ambiguity tolerance in language learning. The (ESAQ) was developed to assess learners` levels of acculturation in various domains (cultural values, social interactions, and life choices).The background questionnaire elicited information on participants` gender , proficiency level in reading and listening skills. Each instrument was first translated into Farsi and checked through back-translation to ensure that alteration in meaning of the items had not occurred. They were pilot- tested prior to the formal study.

*The Foreign Language Classroom Ambiguity Tolerance Scale:* The version of FLCATS used in this study has 12 items with a four point likert scale. The items aim to measure students` agreement level with statements depicting intolerance of ambiguity in given situations. This version of FLATS was previously reported to have high internal consistency (Kazamina , 2000) and was employed in this study with the consent of Professor Christopher M.Ely. In its original version the FLTAS was used with anchors being at 4 (strongly Agree), 3(Agree), 2 (Disagree), and 1 (Strongly Disagree). In this current study, however, to avoid any bias and not to make students take a forced decision between a negative or positive choice ( Dornyei,2001), Ely`s FLTAS was modified to have a five point Likert scale, inserting a new anchor 3( not sure).Moreover, the scale, originally written in English, was translated into Farsi. Back translation measures were taken and no significant semantic shift was detected by two expert readers. The Cronbach`s alpha internal consistency reliability for Farsi version of the FLTAS with the five point Likert scale was found to be .75.

*The EFL Student Acculturation Questionnaire:* The ESAQ was developed following the criteria for inventory development (Dornyei, 2003; Gilham, 2000) to assess learners` acculturation levels in an EFL context. The initial items were developed based on theoretical frameworks of acculturation (Schumann,1978, 1986). Prior to the pilot test, three experts in educational psychology and EFL pedagogy were asked to scrutinize item clarity, redundancy, and reliability. The preliminary version of the questionnaire was piloted among 100 students in the same institute and their comments were incorporated accordingly to refine the questionnaire. The final version included 21 items on 5-point Likert scales in which 5 indicated *strongly agree* and 1 indicated *strongly disagree*. Evaluated with an exploratory factor analysis (principal axis extraction with direct oblimin rotation), the questionnaire revealed a three- factor solution which optimized parsimony and interpretability. Appendix A contains all the variables and items that have been submitted to correlation and regression analysis. The three factors included in this instrument were as follows:

- 1) Assimilation measuring an adoption of cultural norms, values, and lifestyles of the TL group
- 2) Preservation assessing the attributes that one maintains one`s own cultural values while at the same time rejecting those of the TL group
- 3) Adaptation measuring an adjustment to the TL group`s cultural norms and at the same time keeping their own cultural values

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

*How tolerant/ intolerant are Iranian EFL learners of ambiguity at tertiary level?*

To identify the level of ambiguity tolerance of the students, descriptive statistics were utilized. To avoid any misunderstandings, the readers are reminded that the items in the FLCATS sought respondents` reactions to statements describing intolerance of ambiguity in some language learning contexts. Disagreement with an item, then, is conversely a sign of tolerance. Therefore, while interpreting how tolerant students are, a mean of 3.00, which was also the anchor for *not sure* , can be used as the border line of tolerance/ intolerance. Values above this border line will indicate lower levels of tolerance while those below will suggest more tolerance depending on their distance to the mean score of 3.00. Table 1 presents students` mean scores from the FLCATS.

*Table 1: Ambiguity Tolerance scores from the SLTAS*

	N	Mean	Sd
Total Ambiguity Tolerance Score	175	3.69	.47
When I`m reading something in English, I feel impatient when I don`t totally understand the meaning.	186	3.85	.99
It bothers me that I don`t understand every thing the teacher says in English.			
When I write English compositions, I don`t like it when I can`t express my ideas exactly.	188	4.40	.84
It is frustrating that sometimes I don`t understand completely some English grammar.	186	4.28	.92
I don`t like the feeling that my English pronunciation is not quite correct.			
I don`t enjoy reading something in English that takes a while to figure out completely.	186	4.14	1.05
It bothers me that even though I study English grammar some of it is hard to use in speaking and writing.			
When I`m writing in English, I don`t like the fact that I can`t say exactly what I want.	185	4.11	.96
It bothers me when the teacher uses an English word I don`t know.	188	3.82	1.23
When I`m speaking in English, I feel uncomfortable if I can`t communicate my idea clearly.			
I don`t like the fact that sometimes I can`t find English words that mean the same as some words in my own language.	186	4.05	1.06
One thing I don`t like about reading in English is having to guess what the meaning is.	186	4.35	.80
	187	3.42	1.36
	186	4.30	.85
	188	3.88	1.13
	188	2.99	1.33

The participants reported a level of tolerance of ambiguity that is a little above the mid- point (mean= 3.69). This gives support to Oxford (1999) who claimed that with its uncertainties language learning can be quite an ambiguous and stressful experience. The level of tolerance identified here shows that the participants in this study, on average, will not exhibit high tolerance/ intolerance of ambiguity, neither accepting without questioning nor being hampered by incomplete linguistic information. However, an item-by-item analysis of the scale reveals a mean range between 4.35 and 2.99, which indicates that the total score of 3.69 should not lead to stereotyping as people may have different levels of tolerance of ambiguity: low, moderate, or high tolerance (El-Koumy, 2000; Ely, 1995; Ehrman, 1999).

To explore whether participants could be placed in the suggested three ambiguity groups, a further K- means cluster analysis on SPSS was performed. The results can be seen in Table 2.

*Table 2: The results of grouping*

Ambiguity Cluster	N	% OF TOTAL N	MEAN	SD	Minimum	Maximum
High (H)	18	10.3%	2.7176	.3761	1.75	3.08
Moderate (M)	74	42.3%	3.5000	.1655	3.17	3.75
Low (L)	83	47.4%	4.0773	.2019	3.83	4.58
Total	175	100.0%	3.6933	.4788	1.75	4.58

A further analysis of variance (ANOVA) between these three groups confirmed that these clusters of students were distinct from one another (p<000) in terms of AT. The differences can be seen in

*Table 3: Differences between three AT clusters*

	Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig	Direction of Differences
Between Groups	32.141	2	16.070	356.706	.000	H>L P<000
Within Groups	7.749	172	4.505E-02			M>L P<000
Total	39.889	174				H>M P<000

Descriptive statistics, coupled with cluster analysis and analysis of variance, point to three different groups of students according to their tolerance of ambiguity. An important proportion of students (f= 83; 47.4%) had very high levels of intolerance (mean=4.07), while a similar proportion (f=18; 10.30%) reported they can tolerate ambiguity to a great extent (mean=2.71). This means that, expectedly, there are variations among language learners and they will not always tolerate ambiguity unanimously.

***Does tolerance of ambiguity improve as proficiency improves?***

A slight improvement has been detected in tolerance of ambiguity as the level of English proficiency increases. Table 4 shows the mean values for tolerance of ambiguity for each proficiency level.

*Table 4: The findings from analysis of variance*

Proficiency Level	Tolerance of Ambiguity (Mean)	N	SD
Elementary (E)	3.6913	44	4894
Pre-intermediate(P)	3.7475	101	4814
Intermediate(I)	3.4647	26	4070
Total	3.6901	171	4806

*Table 5: Effects of proficiency level on tolerance of ambiguity*

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig	Direction of differences
Between Groups	1.654	2	.827	3.693	.027	E<P P<511
Within Groups	37.614	168	.224			I>P P<.055
Total	39.268	170				I<E P<.007

The only significant difference was observed between pre-intermediate and advanced students in favor of the latter (p< 007). Although there was also a considerable difference between the intermediate and advanced learners, this difference was slightly outside the significance level (p<055). This finding shows that as students improve their language proficiency, their level of tolerance also improves. This is to be expected as students becoming more equipped may feel safer in dealing with new information. After all, with their advanced level of language proficiency, the participants must have mastered both an important proportion of grammatical structures and very valuable advanced vocabulary to be able to read and listen without looking up unknown words (Nation, 1990).

***What are the relationship between ambiguity tolerance, acculturation and socio-demographic variable?***

Normality of the questionnaire data was first checked using the Shapiro-Wilk test (Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). The results indicated that the distribution of the FLCATS scores were normal. Justifying the use of Pearson product-moment correlations and a multiple regression approach, no violations regarding the linearity were identified. To examine the relationships between FL ambiguity tolerance, EFL student acculturation (i.e. assimilation, preservation, and adaptation), and selected socio-demographic variable, Pearson product-moment correlations were used (see Table 1). One acculturation –related variable, preservation, was found to be the largest correlate of FL ambiguity intolerance, explaining 6.25% (i.e. .252=6.25%) of the variance. Ambiguity tolerance was also found to correlate significantly with the following variable: proficiency level (pre-intermediate, intermediate, advanced), in reading and listening comprehension.

Table 6 : Pearson of correlations of ambiguity tolerance with selected variable

Independent variable	FLCATS (r)
<b>EFL Student Acculturation</b>	
Assimilation	.09
Preservation	.25*
Adaption	.13
<b>Selected socio-demographic variable</b>	
Proficiency level	
High	-.19*
Mid	
low	

\*p <.05

Table 6 presents the unstandardized regression coefficients and intercept, the standard error of the unstandardized coefficients, the standardized regression coefficients, the semi-partial correlations, and the squared multiple correlation coefficient (R<sup>2</sup>) of the model which maximum proportion of variance was explained. The analysis of set-wise regression revealed that preservation, proficiency level, (the higher would have more tolerance of ambiguity) reading/listening ability of FL learners contributed significantly, to the prediction of their ambiguity tolerance. The semi-partial correlation coefficients (Table 6) suggested preservation was the best predictor of FL ambiguity intolerance, accounting for 23.8% of the variance followed by proficiency level of the learners which explained 18% of the variance respectively.

Table 7: Selected multiple regression model for predicting FL ambiguity tolerance

Independent variable	Regression Coefficient	Standard Error	t value	Standardized regression co.	Semi-partial coefficients
Intercept	1.859	.304	6.114		
Preservation	.083	.042	1.989*	.205	.181
English proficiency	-.64	.040	-1.590	-.148	.145

An important result of this study is the confirmation of the speculation that preservation in Schumman`s acculturation theory (1978,1986) was found to be a significant predictor of FL ambiguity. This finding suggests that ambiguity intolerant EFL students were likely to have disposition to resist the TL culture so that their cultural identity would remain intact. In other words, increased cultural preservation can result in reduced contact with the TL group and greater social distance, which exacerbated FL ambiguity.

There are positive correlations between proficiency level of the learners and tolerance of ambiguity. Consistent with previous findings (Baily, Daley, 2000; MacIntyre, Noels,1997), higher proficiency is the predictor of ambiguity tolerant EFL learners . The other studies showed females rather than males are more intolerant of ambiguity as well.

**CONCLUSION**

This study aimed to explore the nature of ambiguity tolerance in reading and listening in a foreign language among tertiary level learners of English and its relationship with acculturation. It determines likely relationship between tolerance of ambiguity and cognitive variable , proficiency level. The findings of this study allow the authors to draw some conclusions. Firstly, the tertiary EFL learners participating in this study reported having a moderate level of ambiguity intolerance in language learning. Cluster analysis confirmed that the majority of the learners have either a high or moderate level of intolerance while only a small number of them have low intolerance. Therefore, it can be said that learners in an EFL context are generally less tolerant of ambiguity. The findings also suggested that there is a significant difference between ambiguity tolerance and learners` language proficiency levels, indicating that the higher the proficiency level, the more tolerant learners become in foreign language learning. One factor that may have impacted this result is that, as learners develop their linguistic knowledge, the need to control every detail in language learning becomes less important, thus resulting in higher tolerance of ambiguity.

The implications of this study are two- fold: pedagogical and further research. Firstly, students were found to have low tolerance of ambiguity. Such levels of intolerance can simply interfere with the learning process. As active agents in this learning process, teachers, then, have responsibilities to assist learners in their efforts to succeed in language learning. They should be prepared to set an agenda and share it with their students to help them increase their awareness of classroom procedures as well as the content to be learnt. As suggested by the literature, when learners are informed about classroom procedures, they feel more comfortable, self-confident and motivated in the language classroom (Dornyei,2005; Williams & Buerden,1997), which may in turn help lower intolerance of ambiguity. Secondly, as this study also indicated, pre-intermediate and intermediate learners tend to be less tolerant of ambiguity. Therefore, it could be more conducive to learning if teachers adopt a teaching approach, especially with such lower proficiency level students, that includes more insight into negative affective factors influencing language learning and acculturation.

An important finding indicates that learners` inclination to resist the TL culture can lead to increased levels of ambiguity intolerance. Hence strategies need to be devised and implemented to allow learners to develop stronger security about their roots and simultaneously reaching out to global world where multilingual and multicultural societies are the norm.

As for implications for further research, we need to note that this study is not without limitations. Firstly, the study did not employ a standard measure of reading/listening comprehension. Neither did it measure the students` proficiency level through standardized placement test. Finally, this study focused on a small number of university level Iranian EFL learners from one educational context. Therefore, it would be fruitful to further explore the relationship between all these variables employing more standardized measures and larger samples.

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#### ABSTRACT

The paper critically analyzes the Semantic Translation from the popular comic The Adventure of Tintin 'The secret of the Unicorn'. Related to translation, culture manifests in two ways. First, the concept or reference of the vocabulary items is somehow specific for the given culture. Second, the concept or reference is actually general but expressed in a way specific to the source language culture. In practice, however, it is suggested that a translator should take into account the purpose of the translation in translating the culturally-bound words or expressions. One of the translation method which is focused on the cultural context is Semantic translation.

This research also describes the practical possibility of loyalty in Semantic translation. Since loyalty as a major translation criterion has been understood in many ways, the present writer feels that it is essential to investigate the subject in order to find the variation of the lexical in the cultural context that is loyal to the source language by using a translation comic The adventure of Tintin 'The Secret of Unicorn' as a case study. The research found that it is possible to find the equivalent of lexical in cultural context that is loyal to the sense and message of the source language.

**KEYWORDS:** The Semantic Translation, The Loyalty Concept, French and English languages, The Translation Comic

#### INTRODUCTION

In the field of visual story, such as comic, the translation allows us to understand the content of the story and also to recognize the writer and their idea. Thanks to the translator, there are many kinds of visual story books are produced in the different languages, so it can be accessed to the reader in whole world. Newmark (1988: 15) has said: "The translator's job isn't limited on transferring the linguistic system of language but they also have to be able to create the appropriate language and acceptable usage to represent the story through the sentence in order to express their idea." It means that they have to be competence on predicting the right word and term which are equivalent to the target language and sending a message from the source text to the target language.

The comic translation is more complicated than the other translation in the others genres, because it doesn't only need the competence of linguistic but also the competence of transferring the culture. The comic book which is translated to the others languages, for example from French to English, is not only transferring the linguistic system but also different culture and the idea of the author to the reader from the source language to the target language. In the process of translation, the competences of translator are important. For consideration, a good translator must not only understand the source language and the target language but also have a skill to understand the situation and the context of the story from the source language and translating that to the target language appropriately. The translators do their job by using the concept, the method and the technique of translation to transfer the sense of source text to the reader of the target language in order to produce the good translation.

The translator might be loyal on translating the source language to the target language by using the equivalence and the correspondence procedure to transfer the sense from the source language to the target language.

There are so many of comics which are translated in English. One of the translation comics which is quite popular in the world is The adventure of Tintin . The series of The adventure of Tintin are distributed in whole world and translated into many languages, including English. As we know, the original language used of the comic The adventure of Tintin is French. It was created by the Belgian cartoonist Georges Prosper Rémi who is known with the name Hergé. There are 23 complete series of The adventure of Tintin. Thanks to the translator, because of their translation, we know very well all the series of The adventure of Tintin and of course we can recognize very well the characters of the casts in this comic, and it is described excellently by the result of their translation.

According to that subject, the present writer proposes the title for the thesis research as 'The Loyalty Concept of Semantic Translation in French – English Translation comic The Adventure of Tintin 'The Secret of Unicorn'.

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

##### *The Loyalty Concept*

The loyalty is an important concept in the translation. It determines the trust of the message from the source language to the target language. It is a principal in whereas the translator who is loyalty to the message of the source language to the target language and culture, to the material and the style of the source text, and also loyal to the sense of the source language. They make the equivalent or correspondence translation to the text of the source language for the readers of the target language.

Kalawole and Salawu (2008) proposed that loyalty in translation is passing of the message from one language into another by producing the same affect in the other language, (in sense and in form), in a way that the reader of the translation would react exactly as the reader of the original text.

Tende in Guidère (2008 : 84) recommended the necessity of a good knowledge of both languages (source language and target language) and a distinction between the sense and the word for the translator to produces a target text which is loyal to the source language. Then, the translators use the loyalty concept in the translation to the literature books by translating the source text according to the message of the author and the sense from the source text.

According to Lederer (1994 : 51 -124) the concepts of Loyalty in translation are the translation is loyal to the author's message, the sense of the translation is equivalence to the source language, the translation has the cultural transfer from the source language to the target language. In the other side, Guidère (2008 : 83-85)

proposed that the loyalty concept is the translation which is loyal to the structure of the source text and correspondence to the source text.

The responsibility that translators have toward their partners is what I call 'loyalty'. The loyalty principle was first introduced into Skopostheorie in 1989 (Nord 1989, cf. Nord 1997: 123 ff.) in order to account for the culture-specificity of translation concepts, setting an ethical limitation on the otherwise unlimited range of possible skopoi for the translation of one particular source text.

#### ***The semantic translation***

The translator tries to translate the words by using the prediction of the cultural context that resemble to the oriented culture on the equivalent sense to the target language. Newmark (1988 : 46) proposed that the semantic translation may translate less important cultural words by culturally neutral third or functional terms but not by cultural equivalents - *une nonne repassant un corporal* may become 'a nun ironing a corporal cloth' - and it may make other small concessions to the readership.

The semantic translation is a way to write more pliable and refer more to the rule of the target language, comparing to the faithful translation. In the other hand, this method more concerns to the esthetic and expressive way on translation. For example :

Source language : Il est **un rat de bibliothèque**. (Hoed, 1993 : 18)

Target language : He is **a worm book**. (Hoed, 1993 : 18)

Halliday in Halliday and Hasan (1985: 5) states that there was the theory of context before the theory of text. In other words, context precedes text. Context here means context of situation and culture (Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 7). This context is necessary for adequate understanding of the text, which becomes the first requirement for translating. Thus, translating without understanding text is non-sense, and understanding text without understanding its culture is impossible.

Before that, the definition of culture should be understood by all translators before their created the translation products. From Koentjaraningrat (1996: 80-81) and Hoijer (1967: 106) the culture are (a) culture seen as a totality of knowledge and model for perceiving things, (b) immediate connection between culture and behavior and events, and (c) culture's dependence on norms. It should be noted also that some other definitions claim that both knowledge and material things are parts of culture.

So, the relation between language and culture are proposed by Snell-Hornby (1988: 40) who said that the connection between language and culture was first formally formulated by Wilhelm Von Humboldt. For this German philosopher, language was something dynamic: it was an activity (energia) rather than a static inventory of items as the product of activity (ergon). At the same time language is an expression of culture and individuality of the speakers, who perceive the world through language. Related to Good idea on culture as the totality of knowledge, this present idea may see language as the knowledge representation in the mind.

Nida and Taber explained on "*closest natural equivalent*", however, we can infer that cultural consideration is considered. They maintain that the equivalent sought after in every effort of translating is the one that is so close that the meaning/message can be transferred well.

In this study, in a large part, the basic conceptualizations of loyalty concept in translation are taken from Kalawole and Salawu (2008), Tende, Lederer (1994), Guidère (2008), Skopostheorie (1989). And there are also some theory of semantic translation from Newmark (Newmark (1988), and the theory of Halliday (1985) and Snell-Hornby (1988) about the language and culture.

#### **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The present study is undertaken to examine The Loyalty Concept of Lexical used in Semantic Translation From French – English Translation Comic The Adventure of Tintin 'The Secret of the Unicorn. The present study therefore, seeks to answer the following questions:

1. How to determine the loyal concept of lexical used in Semantic translation ?
2. Is it possible to find the equivalent lexical which is loyal in Semantic translation?

#### **METHODOLOGY**

This research is conducted based on the qualitative method. Alwasilah (2002) said that a qualitative method can be used to uncover and to understand what is behind any phenomenon. The descriptive method is employed to define, classify, analyze and describe the available data. Djajasudarma (1993) proposed that the descriptive method aims to describe factual and explain the character, situation, language phenomena in order to gain a systematic, factual and accurate data".

The process of data collecting can be described as follows :

- Reading the comic
- Conducting close reading strategy on the comic by reading thoroughly and repeatedly
- Collecting textual evidence by taking on the type of data
- Making data presentation and categories the data
- Conducting textual analysis the collected data descriptively
- Drawing conclusion

In this study, the collections of Semantic translation are taken from the translation comic 'The Adventure of Tintin' in French and English version. It was created by the Belgian cartoonist Georges Prosper Rémi who is known with the name Hergé. There are 23 complete series of The adventure of Tintin.

#### **RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

**French : *Vingt...ça me coûte plus cher* (p.1)**  
**English : *Seven...but I'm robbin myself* (p.131)**

Based on the statement "*the culture is about both knowledge and material things*", Value of currency are included of the material thing and automatically it is a part of the culture. In this kind of translation, the translator tried to change the value of currency from Franc to Pound in

order to be acceptable in the target language. The loyalty concept can be seen in the sense and the message which is sent from the source language to the target language, just like what Lederer said about the sense and message indicates the loyalty concept in translation. 'Vingt' that must be translated 'Twenty' in word-to-word translation, is translated "Seven" in pound currency as a result of the loyalty of cultural context in Semantic translation .

In Pragmatic, the way of people talk in certain situation is the cultural context because there is a part of behavior. '*ça me coûte plus cher*' is the way of talk in the bargain situation and a part of cultural context. It must be translated '*I give you a cheaper price*' in word – to –word translation. But in the other hand, in English language, the sentence usually use in the bargain situation and as a behavior of the English people is '*but I'm robbin myself*' and It is a part of the cultural context. In the loyal concept, according to Lederer and Guidère, the sentences send the same sense, and message that can be accepted by the readers from the target language as the loyalty concept in the cultural context.

**French :** *Police Secrète ! Police secrète !* ....Vous direz ça au commissariat ! (p. 3)  
**English :** *Special Branch ! Special Branch !* .....You can tell that to the inspector ! (p. 133)

According to Newmark, in Semantic translation, the terminology is a part of the cultural context, and every language has their terminology word which different from one language to another language but send the same sense and message. '*Police Secrète*' that must be translated as the *secret police* in word-for-word translation, is attached by the cultural context in terminology of English language and translated as *Special Branch*. It is loyal because based on Tende's explanation that the most important thing in translation is the acceptable message in the target language and that must be adapted with their culture. '*Police Secrète*' and *Special Branch* send the same sense and message which is attached by their own culture.

**French :** Il est vraiment *très beau*. (p. 3)  
**English :** It really is *a beauty* (p. 133)

The loyalty concept, according to Guidère, is also included the syntactic aspect in the translation. This kind of translation is attached by the syntactic process when *très beau* which is identic with the beauty in masculine thing, is translated only with *a beauty* which is identical with the feminine thing. It happened because in French is known the classification of masculine and feminine noun as a result of the norms in the structural use in each language, and norms is a part of culture. So, this translation shows the loyalty concept in semantic translation because it does not change any sense and message of the word although both languages brought their own cultural context in field of structural.

**French :** *Saperlipopette* (p. 6)  
**English :** *Great Snakes* (p. 136)

*Saperlipopette* is a term or cursing word in French, it expresses for the shocking situation. The translator transferred it into English with *Great Snakes* which is known as the expression of the negative situation. It is the match translation product when the reader from both languages also can predict the shocking situation from the both cursing word. The cursing word is a kind of behavior and it is a part of the cultural context, it is loyal because it send the same sense and message from the source language to the target language.

**French :** *Mon dieu !* que vous est – il arrive ? (p.10)  
**English :** *Good heaven !* Whatever's happened ? (p.140)

*Mon dieu* and *Good heaven* are the positive word in the shocking or surprising situation. Even though *Mon dieu* is usually translated as *My god* in English but according the cultural context *Good heaven* would be more acceptable for the reader in the target language, because according to Tende's explanation that the most important thing in translation is the acceptable message in the target language and that must be adapted with their culture. *Good heaven* must be more acceptable in certain cultural context of behavior. Somehow, *Good heaven* does not change any sense or message of the source language.

**French :** *Sapristi !*...On me l'a de nouveau vole ! (p. 10)  
**English :** *Goodness gracious !* I've been robbed again (p. 140)

Although *Sapristi* has the negative expression of the situation and *Goodness gracious* is more positive, but according to the cultural context, this translation is possible and acceptable for the reader because it consider the cultural context (behavior) from the target language. Based on Lederer and Guidère, this translation is loyal because it does not change any sense which considers the cultural context of the target language and the message of the source language.

**French :** *Nom d'une pipe !* C'est cet individu qui nous a croisés dans l'escalier, hier soir, en venant chez vous!.....il me souviens : il m'a bouscule !... (p. 10)  
**English :** *Great Scotland yard !* .....That man we met last night on the stairs on our way here!.....I remember now : he bumped into me!..... (p.140)

*Nom d'une pipe* and *Great Scotland yard* are the cursing phrases which represent the negative expression. It is a kind of behavior from the people in the target language in using that sentence in certain situation. it is acceptable because it does not change the sense and the message from the source language although in the word – for – word translation, the source language wasn't translated correctly, but behavior on using the sentence can be acceptable in semantic translation theory which is emphasized in the cultural context. However, that translation is loyal in their cultural context in Semantic translation.

## CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The analysis constitutes on important aspect of practical semantic translation. The assessment of the translation the comic The Adventure of Tintin 'The secret of Unicorn' in this study is based on target language and target culture-oriented translation theories which are usually called as the semantic translation. Particularly, this analysis used the interpretative theory which is focused on 'the sense' rather than 'the word'. This paper attempted to trace the problems of semantic translation in the cultural context. The present writer discovered that emphasis has shifted from the form of the Source text to the responses of the receptor; therefore, the response of the receptor to the translated message now plays an important role in determining the loyalty concept in translation. This implies that the loyalty concept in

translation must then be explained as the degree to which the average reader reacts to the translated message just as the receptor reacts to the original text. This translation is successful by approaching the two ideals needed in semantic translation such as loyal to the sense and the message of the source language.

Finally, it can be concluded that theoretically a text which is embedded in its culture is both possible to translate into other languages. The degree of its closeness to its source culture and the extent to which the meaning of its source text to be retained is very much determined by the purpose of the translation. To close, it is suggested that in the translator considered the procedures explained above to translate culturally-bound words or expressions.

#### ***Limitations of the study***

The limitation of study is important to give the frame of the study in order to be focus on certain case that needs to be found. The limitations of this study are :

1. To describe the determination of the loyalty concept in semantic translation
2. To identify the possibility of the loyalty concept in semantic translation

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#### ABSTRACT

The present study is an attempt to investigate the comparative effect of teaching metacognitive strategies and cooperative learning on the reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners. To fulfill the purpose of this study, a group of 90 male and female intermediate learners of Aryanpour School of Culture & Education in Tehran, Iran took a piloted sample Preliminary English Test (PET) as a proficiency test and 64 of them were selected as homogenous learners and were divided into two experimental groups. One experimental group received metacognitive strategies based on Chamot & O'Malley's "Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)" (1994), and the other one cooperative learning based on "Cooperative Learning" Model by Novak, (1991). To make sure that the students were not significantly different in terms of their reading comprehension ability, they were given a piloted reading comprehension pretest. Both groups were instructed by the same teacher (one of the researchers) using the same material -American Headway. At the end of the training, 18 sessions, a piloted post-test of reading comprehension was administered to both groups. The analysis of the test scores using *t*-test revealed that the experimental group which received metacognitive strategy training did statistically better in their post-test, which means that an increase in students' performance in reading comprehension due to the effect of teaching metacognitive strategies was occurred. The implication is that metacognitive strategy training can be included in regular English reading courses. This result may help EFL teachers to bear in mind the beneficial of teaching strategies especially when dealing with reading comprehension.

**KEYWORDS:** Cooperative Learning, EFL Learners, Metacognitive Strategies, Reading Comprehension,

#### INTRODUCTION

One of the most necessary and vital skills that a person has to acquire in his/her life is reading. This is understandable as reading has always been connected with knowledge, maturation of thoughts, advancement, modernization and so forth. Nearly every aspect of life involves reading. Reading is a receptive skill, similar to listening, during which readers decode the message of the writer and try to recreate it anew (Rashtchi & Keyvanfar, 2010). In fact, reading can be seen as a dialogue between the reader and the text or between the reader and the author. According to Chastain (1988),

*Reading is a process involving the activation of relevant knowledge and related language skills to accomplish an exchange of information from one person to another. Reading requires that the reader focus attention on the reading materials and integrate previously acquired knowledge and skills to comprehend what someone else has written. (p. 216)*

It is a complex cognitive process of decoding symbols in order to construct or derive meaning (reading comprehension). Reading is seen as an extremely complex activity involving a combination of perceptual, linguistic and cognitive abilities (Brumfit, 1980).

Effective reading is not something that every individual learns to do (Nunan, 1999). Learning to reading is difficult especially for those reading in a second or foreign language because it is an essential skill to acquire knowledge and exchange information (Chien, 2000; Dlugosz, 2000; Huang, 2005; Salinger, 2003). However, most English instructors still focus on correcting the learners' grammar or increasing their vocabulary (Chi, 1997; Griffiths, 2008; Tsao, 2004). To improve learners' reading abilities, effective strategies and assistant tools should be carefully considered (Cassata-Widera, 2008; Lin, 2008; Zittle, Johari, & Eastmond, 2005). Successful readers use a flexible repertoire of strategies and cues to comprehend texts and to solve problems with unfamiliar structure and vocabulary which is quite difficult for second language learners to achieve. But the instructors seldom teach learners how to use learning strategies effectively to improve their reading comprehension; consequently, learners cannot master this language skill effectively (Berkowitz, 1986; Carnine and Carnine, 2004; Chi, 1997; Griffiths, 2008; Rivard & Yore, 1992; Tsao, 2004).

Strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills (Oxford, 2002). These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. They are tools for the self-directed involvement necessary for developing language skills (Oxford, 1990).

Among these strategies, metacognitive strategies are considered as the most essential ones in developing learners' skills (Anderson, 1991). Metacognitive strategies are related to how we think and learn (Ashman & Conway, 1993). The aim of these strategies is to teach the learners how to set objectives, how to be effective and independent. It was emphasized by O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) that learners without metacognitive approaches have no direction or ability to monitor their progress, accomplishments, and future learning directions. On the other hand, learners who have developed their metacognitive awareness are likely to become more self-regulating and autonomous language learners (Hauck, 2005). According to Paris and Jacobs (1984), "metacognitive strategies help students to focus attention in an understanding of the content, to connect past knowledge with new information and to code them in their memories" (p. 2083-2093). These strategies also involve readers' deliberate mental behaviors for directing and controlling their cognitive strategy processing needed for successful performance (Phakiti, 2003).

The current understanding of reading strategies has been shaped significantly by research on what expert readers do (e.g., Bazerman, 1985; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Through metacognitive strategies, a reader allocates significant attention to controlling, monitoring, and evaluating the reading process (Pressley, 2000; Pressley, Brown, El-Dinary & Afflerbach, 1995). Regarding the above-mentioned discussions it seems that the metacognitive strategies are considered as essential elements in learning reading comprehension.

Another possible solution to increase the learners' ability in reading comprehension skill is creating an environment in which the learners will have opportunities for their participation. In this regard many ways have been proposed, one of them is cooperative learning (CL).

Cooperative Learning with its roots in ancient tribal customs has traditionally been a part of educational practice. Its effectiveness has been documented through hundreds of research studies (Johnson & Johnson, 1986; Kagan, 1986; Slavin, 1988).

As Barros, Rodriguez-Artacho, and Verdejo (1998) state, "Cooperative Learning is originally based on the social constructivist view of learning and as a major teaching/learning strategy, aims to make instruction more relevant and students more responsible" (p. 45). Cooperative Learning refers to instructional method that students work together in small groups to accomplish shared learning goals. It is a successful teaching strategy in which small teams, each with students of different levels of ability, use a variety of learning activities to improve their understanding of a subject (Bramlett, 1994). Dohron (2002) describes cooperative learning as the use of small groups for instructional purposes that require students to work together for their own and each other's learning. Dohron (as cited in Zuheer, 2008) adds,

*In order for cooperative learning groups to be cooperative in nature, the students in the groups must believe that all the group members are equally important to the success of the group. They must be able to use the appropriate interpersonal and small-group skills that are needed to work cooperatively. (p.45)*

Each member of a team is responsible not only for learning what is taught but also for helping teammates learn. In this process, students are assigned to groups of two to five members by the instructor for the purpose of achieving academic and social tasks (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1998).

By now, it is not perhaps redundant to say that through "cooperative learning" and "metacognitive" strategies, the teacher can involve most of the students in the use of language, and teach them how to use their thinking strategies for better understanding of the text. But to find out how cooperative learning and metacognitive strategies work as improving elements for better reading comprehension, this study is conducted to see whether or not cooperative learning and metacognitive strategies have significant effect on reading comprehension of EFL learners.

## REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### *Metacognitive Strategies*

Metacognitive strategies "are higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring or evaluating the success of a learning activity" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 44). In simple terms, metacognition is thinking about thinking. Its scholarly description comes from cognitive psychology that approaches metacognition as one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them. Active monitoring, consequent regulation and orchestration of these processes to achieve a goal also seem to be the necessary components of metacognition (Flavell, as cited in Goh, 2008). In link with this definition, metacognitive development can be described as conscious development in one's metacognitive abilities, such as the move to greater knowledge, awareness and control of one's learning, selecting strategies, monitoring the progress of learning, correcting errors, analyzing the effectiveness of learning strategies, and changing learning behaviors and strategies when necessary (Ridley, Schutz, Glanz, & Weinstein, 1992).

O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Mazaneres, Russo, and Kupper (as cited in Vianty, 2007) stated that "metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation of learning after the language activity is completed" (p. 506). Metacognitive strategies also involved readers' deliberate mental behaviors for directing and controlling their cognitive strategy processing for successful performance (Phakiti, 2003).

Among native English speakers learning foreign languages, Purpura (1999) found that metacognitive strategies had a significant, positive, direct effect on cognitive strategy use, providing clear evidence that metacognitive strategy use has an executive function over cognitive strategy use in task completion. Studies of EFL learners in various countries (e.g., in South Africa, Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; in Turkey, Oxford, Judd, & Giesen, 1998) uncovered evidence that metacognitive strategies are often strong predictors of L2 proficiency.

### *Cooperative learning*

Cooperative learning is one strategy for group instruction which is under the learner-centered approach. Slavin (1995) describes cooperative learning as an instructional program in which students work in small groups to help one another master academic content (Slavin, 1995). Cooperative learning involves students working together in pairs or groups. They are a team whose players must work together in order to achieve goals successfully (Brown, 1994). In addition, cooperative learning is a within-class grouping of students who learn to work together on specific tasks or projects in such a way that all students in the group benefit from the interactive experience (Kessler, 1992). As Johnson (2005) puts it, cooperation is not assigning a job to a group of students where one student does all the work and the others put their names on the paper. It is not having students sit side by side at the same table to talk with each other as they do their individual assignments as well. It is not having students do a task individually with instructions that the ones who finish first are to help the slower students. On the contrary, cooperative learning is a teaching strategy in which small teams, each with students of different levels of ability, use a variety of learning activities to improve their understanding of a subject. Each member of a team is responsible not only for learning what is taught but also for helping teammates learn, thus creating an atmosphere of achievement. Students work through the assignment until all group members successfully understand and complete it.

Cooperative learning has been found to be both an effective instructional method (Slavin, 1996) and a successful way to enhance social and academic development among children (Deen, Bailey, & Parker, 2001; Johnson & Johnson, 2003; Slavin, 2000). The end product of cooperative learning is collaboration and joint ownership. Also, researchers have found that students not only feel more engaged but also perceive that their learning task is more important when working in a small group than during large-group instruction (Peterson & Miller, 2004). The most important goal of cooperative learning is to provide students with the knowledge, concept, skills, and understanding they need to become happy and contributing members of the society (Slavin, 2001).

Cooperative Learning focuses on achievement and is goal oriented. In Cooperative Learning, each individual goal oriented efforts contribute to others' goal attainment. Cooperative goal structures create a situation in which the only way group members can attain their own personal goal is if the group is successful. Therefore, to meet their personal goals, group members must help their teammates to do whatever helps the group to succeed or to encourage their teammates to give in their best efforts.

#### **Reading Skill**

Reading is considered as one of the most important skills which despite lots of research and due to its complicated nature sounds impossible to be described in a single comprehensive definition. According to Grabe (1991), simple definitions typically misinterpret complex cognitive processes such as reading. Aebersold and Field (1997) also note that, "The act of reading is neither completely understood nor easily described. In the most general terms we may say that reading involves the reader, the text, and the interaction between reader and text" (P. 5). They further state that reading is what happens when people look at a text and assign meaning to the written symbols in the text.

Chastain (1988) mentioned that as it is true for other skills, reading is a process involving the activation of relevant knowledge and related language skills to exchange information from person to person. He believes that reading is a receptive process in that the reader is receiving a message from a writer. Reading also is known as a decoding process, since language is regarded as a code and the reader must figure out the meaning of the message. In Goodman's view (1967), "Reading is a psychological guessing game in which the reader constructs, as best as he can, a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display" (P. 135). He further states that reading is an ongoing process in which the reader selects the most productive language cues from the text to help him predict what comes next. Celce-Murcia (2001) maintains that, "reading as an interactive, socio-cognitive process involves a text, a reader, and a social context within which the activity of reading takes place" (P. 154).

#### **RESEARCH QUESTION**

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following research question was posed:

Is there any significant difference between the impact of metacognitive strategies and cooperative learning on EFL learners' reading comprehension?

#### **METHODOLOGY**

##### **Participants**

To fulfill the objective of this study, 64 male and female intermediate EFL learners with the age range of 18-60 studying in Aryanpour School of Culture & Education in Tehran, Iran participated in this study. These participants were non-randomly selected and homogenized through a piloted Preliminary English Test (PET) among 90 learners. The participants whose scores are one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected. Then, the homogenized participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups, each containing 32 participants. One experimental group treated with metacognitive strategies and the other one with cooperative learning.

It is worth mentioning that a group of 30 students with almost similar characteristics to the target sample participated in the pilot study of proficiency test (PET) and reading pre & post-tests. Also, both researchers assessed writing & speaking sections of the PET based on the specific rating scales.

##### **Instrumentation**

To fulfill the purpose of the study the following instruments were used:

##### **Preliminary English Test (PET)**

The researchers used a sample of PET for homogenizing the participants in terms of their general language proficiency at the beginning of the study which covers the four main language skills: reading (35 items), writing (7 items), listening (25 items), and speaking. The PET test used in the study was a sample of the Preliminary English Test (PET) adopted from "Objective PET" by Louise Hashemi and Barbara Thomas (2010), Cambridge University Press. The allotted time for this test was an hour and thirty minutes. The Cronbach's Alpha was employed for this purpose and an acceptable reliability of .83 was obtained.

##### **Writing Rating Scale of PET**

The rating scale used to rate the writing section of PET was the one provided by Cambridge under the name of *General Mark Schemes for Writing*. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale including the rating scale of 0-5.

##### **Speaking Rating Scale of PET**

The rating scale used to rate the oral proficiency of the subjects was the predetermined official Cambridge General Mark Schemes for speaking. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale including the range of scores from 0 to 5.

##### **Pretest and Post-test of Reading**

The tests were adopted from "Objective PET" by Louise Hashemi and Barbara Thomas (2010), Cambridge University Press. The learners were given a pretest to make sure they are not significantly different in terms of their reading comprehension ability before employing treatment. And they were given a post-test at the end of the study to see which group did better. Both tests had 35 items done in 40 minutes each.

##### **Material**

All the subjects in this research study received instruction based on "New Headway Second Edition" by John and Liz Soars (2009), Oxford University Press.

##### **Procedure**

To achieve the purpose of the study and to address the research question, the following procedures were followed. 90 male and female students with age range of 18-60 were randomly selected from intermediate level classes at Aryanpour School of Culture & Education in Tehran. Prior to the treatment, a sample PET test was piloted among a group of 30 students with almost similar characteristics of the representative sample. Then the three characteristics of individual items (Item Facility, Item Discrimination, and Choice Distribution) were calculated and two malfunctioning items were discarded from the test battery. The Cronbach Alpha formula was employed for calculating the reliability of the tests' scores gained by the participants. The writing part was rated according to the rating scale provided by Cambridge for PET by the researchers. First, the rating scale was shared between them and then in order to make sure that both had the same understanding of it, a few papers were rated by both. Since it was shown that there was consistency between the papers they rated, the researchers moved to the actual practice. Later on, the inter-rater reliability was calculated on the basis of the ratings done by both

researchers for the pilot test of PET. Since there was an acceptable consistency between the two raters, the researchers went through the same procedure for the main participants.

An already piloted PET was given to 90 intermediate level students of Aryanpour School of Culture & Education who were selected randomly. The reading and listening parts were scored objectively, each question received 1 point. For the writing part, the first sub-part includes 5 items and each received 1 point and for the two other sub-parts which required students to write paragraphs the scoring was based on the analytic scale for rating writing tasks of PET by researchers. Also, the speaking part of PET was rated according to the rating scale provided by Cambridge General Mark Schemes for speaking following the same procedure for correcting writings. Based on the obtained results, 64 students whose score fall between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants of the study. The 64 participants were randomly divided into two groups, each group with 32 participants; one experimental group which received teaching the metacognitive strategies and another experimental group which followed the cooperative learning strategy. To make sure that the students were not significantly different in terms of their reading comprehension (the dependent variable of the study) they were given a piloted reading comprehension pretest. All the participants were taught using the same material and they received the same amount of instruction. All classes comprising the two groups were instructed by the same teacher (one of the researchers). The course consisted of 18 sessions, two hours each, spanning over a period of approximately six weeks.

#### *The Metacognitive group*

In this experimental group the students received instructions for metacognitive strategies. Chamot & O'Malley's "Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)" (1994), was chosen to apply for strategy training. The sequence of instruction in the CALLA approach is a five phase recursive cycle for preparation, presentation, practicing, evaluating, and applying learning strategies.

The descriptions of the above-mentioned stages are as follows:

*Preparation:* In this phase, the teacher explained the importance of the metacognitive strategies and one or more metecognitive strategies were explained in each session. The learners in this phase used the strategies to plan and create their ideas. For example, they were given a limited time to create ideas on the topic to talk with the class.

*Presentation:* The teacher talked about the characteristics, usefulness and the application of the strategies explicitly and made clear through some related examples. Then the learners used the strategies to organize their own created ideas and used them more related and effectively to the topic.

*Practicing:* In this phase the learners had the opportunity of practicing the learning strategies with an authentic learning task.

*Evaluating:* There were some activities used in this phase for evaluation, such as self- questioning, debriefing discussions after using the strategies. Learners shared their ideas with the teacher one by one and got hints from her, or they shared it with the class and had a whole class discussion.

*Applying learning strategies:* In this final phase the learners were encouraged to:

- 1) Use the strategies they find more useful;
- 2) Apply these strategies to new contexts; &
- 3) Devise their own individual combinations and interpretations of metacognitive learning strategies.

#### *The Cooperative Group*

In the second experimental group which received cooperative learning, considering the number of the learners (32) they were grouped into eight groups of four. One important point was that competitiveness was de-emphasized and the group work was encouraged. In these groups the teacher focused on the four main steps of cooperative learning by Novak (1991) in every session of the reading tasks. The learners were aware of the steps which were: planning, Acting, Observing and Reflecting.

The descriptions of the above-mentioned stages are as follows:

*Planning:* After grouping the learners, the teacher and students started a discussion based on the topic of the reading passage and students gave their own ideas. Then, they discussed the topic in groups.

*Acting:* The learners read the text in a given time, and then start to restate what they read and compared it with their first discussion. In this step, the learners also helped each other with any difficulty and tried to facilitate one another's understanding.

*Observing:* The teacher changed the group members and asked them to discuss what they read, with new group members, while doing her own observation.

*Reflecting:* The teacher evaluated the procedure according to the learners' group evaluation and feedback.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### *Descriptive Statistics of the PET Proficiency Test Piloting*

Prior to the administration, the PET test, reading comprehension pretest, and reading comprehension post-test were piloted with 30 learners of almost the same characteristics to make sure that the tests could be used confidently for screening.

The PET consisted of 67 items including three sections of reading (35 items), writing (7 items), and listening (25 items) and also another section for speaking. The test was administered to a group of 30 intermediate-level EFL learners at the Aryanpour School of Culture & Education bearing almost the same characteristics as the target sample. All items went through an item analysis procedure and two items were discarded due to their malfunctioning characteristics.

Following the piloting of the test, the mean and standard deviation of the raw scores and the reliability were calculated. The mean and the standard deviation of this administration were found to be 70.20 and 7.46 respectively.

Also, Cronbach's Alpha was employed for calculating the reliability and an acceptable reliability of .83 was obtained. After deletion of the 2 malfunctioning items, the reliability of the test shifted to .87.

There were two writing tasks in the test rated by the two researchers using the predetermined PET rating scale. The rating scale used in this study was the official Cambridge General Mark Schemes for Writing. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale including the range of scores from 0 to 5.

In order to calculate the inter-rater reliability between the two researchers, the Pearson correlation coefficient was used. The results showed that there was a significant correlation (.85) between the two raters in the piloting of Writing Part 2 and (.79) in the piloting of Writing Part 3.

The speaking part of the proficiency test (piloting) was also rated by researchers using the predetermined PET rating scale. The rating scale used for this aim was the official Cambridge General Mark Schemes for speaking. The rating was done on the basis of the criteria stated in the rating scale including the range of scores from 0 to 5.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was also used in order to calculate the inter-rater reliability. The results showed that there was a significant correlation (.76) between the two raters/researchers.

**Descriptive Statistics of the PET Proficiency Test Administration**

After the procedure of piloting the PET test, it became an instrument to homogenize the students for this study. On the whole, 90 students participated in the test administration. After the administration of the test, descriptive statistics were conducted just as was done in the piloting phase. Table 1 shows these statistics with the mean of 80.12 and the standard deviation of 8.23.

*Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the PET Administration*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
VAR00005	90	58.00	91.00	80.1211	8.2384
Valid N (listwise)	90				

The reliability of the PET in this actual administration for homogenization of the subjects was calculated too (Table 2). An index of .91 reassured the researchers of the reliability of this test.

*Table 2: Reliability of the PET Administration*

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.91	65

From among the 90 students who took the test, 64 students' scores who fell between one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected to participate in this study. The 64 participants were randomly divided into two experimental groups -Metacognitive (32 participants) & Cooperative (32 participants).

**Descriptive Statistics of Reading comprehension Pretest Piloting**

Before starting the treatment, a "Reading Comprehension Pretest" was administered by the researchers to know the students' reading comprehension ability before the treatment. The test was thus piloted with 30 students prior to its real administration and the descriptive statistics and reliability were calculated (Tables 3 and 4 respectively).

*Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Reading comprehension Pretest Piloting*

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
VAR00001	30	1.00	11.00	12.00	11.940	4.6692	21.756	-.183	.427
Valid N (listwise)	30								

*Table 4: Reliability of the Reading Comprehension Pretest Piloting*

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.819	35

**Descriptive Statistics of the Reading Comprehension Post-test Piloting**

The researchers administered a parallel form of the Reading Comprehension pretest as post-test among the experimental and control groups once the treatment was completed in order to compare the post-test of both groups to see whether there was any improvement for each group in comparison to their previous stage. The Reading Comprehension Post-test was thus piloted with 30 students prior to its real administration and the descriptive statistics and reliability were calculated (Tables 5 and 6).

*Table 5: Descriptive Statistics of the Reading Comprehension Post-test Piloting*

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
VAR00004	30	5.00	10.00	15.00	10.5600	3.20955	10.2455	-.059	.427
Valid N (listwise)	30								

Table 6: Reliability of the Reading Comprehension Post-test Piloting

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.833	35

It should be mentioned that, after calculating item facility, item discrimination and choice distribution no malfunctioning item was observed in pretest and post-test of reading comprehension.

**Checking the Normality**

The present data were measured on an interval scale, and none of the subjects' perform dependently on the tests. The assumption of normality is also met. As displayed in Table 7 the values of skewness and kurtosis are within the ranges of +/- 2.

Table 7: Normality Assumptions

Group		N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Meta-Cognitive	PET	32	-.193	.414	.755	.809
	Pretest	32	.218	.414	-.808	.809
	Post-test	32	-1.032	.414	-.213	.809
Cooperative	PET	32	-.196	.414	.262	.809
	Pretest	32	-.301	.414	-1.114	.809
	Post-test	32	-.642	.414	.002	.809

The assumption of homogeneity of variances will be discussed after reporting the results of the independent *t*-test.

**Descriptive Statistics of the Pretest of Reading Comprehension by Groups**

An independent *t*-test was run to compare the meta-cognitive and cooperative groups' mean scores on the pretest of reading comprehension in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of reading ability prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 8 the mean scores for meta-cognitive and cooperative groups on the pretest of reading comprehension are 22.13 and 22.63 respectively.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of Pretest of Reading Comprehension by Groups

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Meta-Cognitive	32	22.13	5.428	.960
Cooperative	32	22.63	5.154	.911

The results of the independent *t*-test ( $t(62) = 1.88, P = .064 > .05, r = .23$  it represents a weak to moderate effect size) indicate that there was not any significant difference between meta-cognitive and cooperative groups on the pretest of reading comprehension test (Table 9). Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of reading ability prior to the main study.

Table 9: Independent *t*-test of the Means of Pretest of Reading Comprehension by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		<i>t</i> -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	.033	.855	1.889	62	.064	2.500	1.323	-.145	5.145
Equal variances not assumed			1.889	61.834	.064	2.500	1.323	-.145	5.145

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met (Levene's  $F = .033, P = .855 > .05$ ). That is why the first row of Table 9, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

An independent *t*-test is run to compare the meta-cognitive and cooperative groups' mean scores on the post-test of reading comprehension in order to probe their effect on the reading ability of the students. As displayed in Table 10 the mean scores for meta-cognitive and cooperative groups on the post-test of reading comprehension are 31.53 and 28.19 respectively.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics of Post-test of Reading Comprehension by Groups

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Meta-Cognitive	32	31.53	4.016	.710
Cooperative	32	28.19	3.237	.572

The results of the independent *t*-test ( $t(62) = 3.667, P = .001 < .05, r = .42$  it represents an almost large effect size) indicate that there is a significant difference between meta-cognitive and cooperative groups on the post-test of reading comprehension test (Table 11). The experimental group which received metacognitive strategy training did statistically better in their post-test, which means that an increase in students' performance in reading comprehension due to the effect of teaching metacognitive strategies was occurred.

Table 11: Independent *t*-test of the Means of Post-test of Reading Comprehension by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		<i>t</i> -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	2.046	.158	3.667	62	.001	3.344	.912	1.521	5.167
Equal variances not assumed			3.667	59.327	.001	3.344	.912	1.519	5.168

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met (Levene's  $F = 2.04$ ,  $P = .158 > .05$ ). That is why the first row of Table 11, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" is reported.

#### Empirical Validity

The Pearson correlations between the PET and pretest & post-test of reading comprehension are employed as the empirical validity indices of the latter two tests. The statistically significant correlation between the pretest ( $r(62) = .51$ ,  $P = .000 < .05$ ) and post-test ( $r(62) = .34$ ,  $P = .005 < .05$ ) with the PET test indicate that the pretest and post-test of reading comprehension enjoy empirical validity (Table 12).

Table 12: Empirical Validity

		PET
Pretest	Pearson Correlation	.511**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	64
Posttest	Pearson Correlation	.347**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005
	N	64

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

#### CONCLUSION

The analysis of the scores using the independent sample *t*-test showed that the mean score of the metacognitive and cooperative groups on the post-test of reading comprehension were 31.53 and 28.19 respectively. Also, the analysis of the test scores using *t*-test revealed that the experimental group which received metacognitive strategy training did statistically better in their post-test, which means that an increase in students' performance in reading comprehension due to the effect of teaching metacognitive strategies was occurred. To conclude, it seems that using metacognitive strategies make the learners have better understanding of the reading text. Also, learning these strategies help students to find out what they want or what they need to know. Oxford (1990), also says that learners who are more aware of strategies and more advanced seem to use the strategies better. This again shows the importance of improving the students' metacognitive strategies in teaching and learning. Studies proving the effectiveness of strategy training are likely to convince English teachers, teacher trainers, course book writers and curriculum designers to be more aware of the benefits of strategy training and include these strategies in their lessons, course books and curricula.

As reported in Dhib-Henia's study (2003), a traditional approach to reading comprehension fails to equip students with highly developed and positive strategies required for comprehending the text they read. The teachers should help students to become efficient readers and enhance their reading ability. Gradually, the students need to be moved from dependency on the teacher to more independent readers. This independence can be achieved by assisting them in being efficient in the use of certain strategies. As suggested by Salataci & Akyel (2002), strategy instruction has a positive effect on students' reading strategy use and reading comprehension in English. In this regard, Dhib-Henia (2003) has provided quantitative and qualitative evidence about the efficiency of metacognitive strategy training on the way that university students function in their reading. According to Zhang (2001), if researchers could ascertain EFL readers' metacognitive strategic knowledge, it would help teachers make a more informed choice in teaching second language or foreign language reading.

At the end, it is worth mentioning that like any study, this research faced some limitations, which has to be taken into consideration while attempting to generalize its findings. The number of the male and female participants was not the same so, the researcher was provided with the unequal number of male and female participants. There was no determined age range of participants and the classes were filled with any adults ages 18 up to 60. Therefore, the findings of the study may not be generalizable to other age groups.

#### Suggestions for Further Research

The following are suggested for further studies:

1. Lysynchuk, Pressley, d'Ailly, Smith, and Cake (1989), however, noted that one of the major problems in intervention research studies of reading comprehension strategy instruction was an exclusion of the examination of long-term effects of strategy instruction. Unfortunately, the current study also did not examine long-term effects (the intervention in this study occurred in approximately 7 weeks). Thus, further research should examine long-term effects of metacognitive and cooperative strategies on students' reading comprehension performance.

2. According to National Reading Panel (2000), vocabulary is critical to reading comprehension. In this study, however, vocabulary performance was not included as a dependent measure. Future research examining effects of metacognitive strategies on vocabulary of students is recommended.
3. It is suggested that in future research a large size of subject be included in the research. The more subjects will result in greater reliability and validity.

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**THE EFFECT OF RECEIVING ELECTRONIC FEEDBACK AND THE EFFECT OF GENDER ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE WRITING PERFORMANCE**

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**ABSTRACT**

The current study tries to suggest the findings obtained in a research project investigating whether development in writing performance has resulted from applying electronic feedback (email) in writing class. This study attempts to examine the difference between electronic writing modes and old-fashioned writing styles. The project has forty participants studying English in Karoon Language Institute of Tooyserkan, Iran who were chosen through the present intact classes and attended two different EFL writing courses; a computerized classroom and a traditional one. Then the results and findings were investigated. The major finding demonstrated that e-mail users made enhancement in their writing achievement. Another finding suggests that female users (in the electronically oriented group) showed a greater improvement on their writing performance than male users.

**KEYWORDS:** E-mail, English Language, Feedback, Writing

**INTRODUCTION**

Nowadays computers and technology ingrained in different parts of our life. By the advent of IT, communication becomes easier and distance between people become closer. It makes this chance for people to communicate to each other in different parts of the world at a same time. One of the most common forms of technology is Internet and e-mail which pervade our daily life and because of they have been replaced for all means of traditional communication they have had a distinctive place in every part of life. Soon afterwards www started to be utilized in education especially in learning context. Their importance as a tool for developing learning cannot be regarded (Vargas, 2010). They have made foreign language materials easy to access and use and help learners experience the target language. They suggest numerous benefits in educational domain, such as greater levels of participation (Gonzalez-Bueno, 1998 as cited in Shang, 2007), more motivation and interest (Skinner & Austin, 1999 as cited in Shang, 2007), reducing anxiety (Kupelian, 2001 as cited in Shang, 2007), becoming familiar with the aspects of syntax and semantic knowledge (Chen, 2008), more language functions (Wang, 1998 as cited in Shang, 2007), etc. By considering these beneficial aspects and growing understanding of its potentials there is an emphasis of various application of this novel technology in more practical aspect of teaching and learning situations.

With these descriptions, it is expected that research's results provide a path for teachers to benefit from the hypothesis; e-feedback can be seen as a supplement in better teaching and learning writing foreign language.

**Rationale**

As the topic of this project suggests the study aims to investigate the efficiency of using electronic feedback on the promotion of language writing performance with regard to the gender of learners. According to the research questions, it attempts to see the effect of computer work in writing skill. That is to say, it tries to report if it is economical and cost effective for teachers, students and institutes to employ computers at school. In other word, it tries to show if some positive outcomes in writing skill have been made by means of email transmission. In so doing, it is going to explore whether males e-mail users make a significant difference in their achievement in writing English as a foreign language. For these purposes, following hypotheses are presented:

N<sub>01</sub>: There is no significant difference between e-mail users vs. traditional group in their achievement in writing English as a foreign language.

N<sub>02</sub>: There is no significant difference between male and female email users in their achievement in writing English as a foreign language.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

***Research on E-mail in the Teaching of ESL Writing***

Various studies have looked at the role of multimedia feedback in electronic class. And most of these studies make support teaching and learning grammar and writing skill via email. For instance Sullivan and Pratt (1996) have established from their research that over fifteen weeks students in the computer-assisted classroom showed a significant gain in writing due to the networked computers. Students in the C.A classroom demonstrated not only more interest in discussions, and, subsequently, more practice writing English.

In 2000, Gonzalez-Bueno and Perez (as cited in Kupelian, 2001) have investigated the effect of using e-mail on writing dialogue journals on learners of Spanish as an L2. Results demonstrated that students who used e-mail for their dialogue journals out-performed those who used pencil and paper in the amount of language generated.

Similarly, Al-Jarf (2001) conducted a study in which 113 ESL female freshmen students in their writing course in Saudi Arabia were exposed in two different writing instructions: traditional in-class writing instruction in control group and a combination of traditional and online (web-based) writing instruction. Results revealed that the experimental group made more gains as a result of web-based instruction. So, Web-based instruction seemed to be an important factor in enhancing the writing quality of ESL students. Therefore, it can be suggested that the use of web-based instruction as a supplement to traditional in-class writing instruction was significantly more effective than using traditional writing instruction alone.

Similar findings were generated in Liao' study (2002) as cited in (A Razak & Asmawi, 2004) when she established an e-mail key pals project with her students in Sophomore EFL Writing at National Chung Hing University (NCHU). Her findings indicated that e-mailing improved EFL learners' writing abilities as it provided practice in reading and writing using the target language to express ideas and opinions to real audience.

A related study was performed by Chuo (2007) to investigate the effects of the WebQuest Writing Instruction (WQWI) program on Taiwanese EFL learners' writing performance. The results indicated that students in the WQWI class improved their writing performance significantly more than those in the traditional classroom writing class. The findings suggested that integrating web resources into EFL writing instruction was effective for enhancing students' writing performance and provided a positive learning experience. The findings of this research also support those of Shang (2007) who carried out a research on email application with 40 non-traditional EFL students in an intermediate reading class at a university in Taiwan. Results demonstrate that the nature of email application promote written accuracy and sentence complexity. The findings and suggestions emerging from the mentioned studies are in line with results of other studies like, Li (2000) as cited in Shang (2007) who examined the linguistic characteristics of 132 emails of ESL students in tasks that differed in terms of purpose, audience interaction, and task structure. Statistical results showed that in email tasks involving audience interaction, students tended to produce syntactically and lexically more complex texts.

Recently, Bridge and Appleyard (2008) tried to make comparison between electronic and paper-based assignment submission and feedback. 47 radiotherapy physics students submitted assignments and received feedback via features within the Virtual Learning Environment Blackboard. Results indicated that 93% of students preferred having their feedback available online rather than printed and handed to them. Overall, students preferred online assignment management to postal or physical hand-in.

## METHODOLOGY

### *Participants*

In this research 40, 20 males and 20 females Iranian English language learners in Karoon Language Institute of Tooyserkan, Iran participated. Students were from 16 to 18 years- of -age at an intermediate English level. The students were chosen through intact groups and were divided into four groups, two groups as the control groups and the two others as the experimental groups and their homogeneity was confirmed by Nelson Test. Four groups took a pre-test (first writing) and a post-test (last writing) English language writing skill. Then the experimental groups received the treatment (writing and receiving feedback electronically). The two other control groups had their traditional writing class (paper-based correction of errors).

### *Instrumentation and Materials*

The first instrument was Nelson English Language Test developed by WS Fowler and Norman Coe and was published 1976, which was used to determine the homogeneity of the learners. The book consisted of three different levels of tests from elementary to advance. It is necessary to mention that researcher chose intermediate level which involved 40 tests which contained 50 items (it is included in appendix) and students had to choose the correct answer from four choices. In the current study, for calculating reliability of the test the researcher used Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 (K-R21), and reliability of .73 was achieved for the Nelson pre-test that is considered appropriate for the research purpose. It is worth mentioning that due to the fact that Nelson Test is a standardized test of proficiency, and the index of reliability includes .73, consequently, its validity was assumed to be satisfactory (see Appendix A).

And the other instrument which was used in the study was four students' papers, their pre and post writing, which the students were expected to write during the project. And the last instrument was Yahoo Mail. It was the main instrument which was used in this project. It was able to provide feedback for students about their mistakes such as spelling, capitalization, subject-verb agreement and punctuation,...and the correct forms were suggested, so the learners had the opportunity to benefit from these suggestions.

### *Procedure*

As mentioned before, this study has four groups, two groups as the control groups and the two others as the experimental groups, as a result it includes one male control group, one male experimental group, one female control group and one female experimental group and their close homogeneity was confirmed by Nelson Test. They attended in two different classes, control groups in traditional class and experimental groups in electronic one. Then process methodology was employed in both classes. Control groups received traditional classroom instruction and met in a traditional environment the entire time and they are expected to write compositions and received researcher's feedback on their papers. Meanwhile, the learners of experimental groups met in the electronic classes in which included writing their compositions in Yahoo Mail and sending them to their teacher's mail and receiving feedback electronically. The e-class lessons which were used in the experimental setting directed students in carrying out their assignments by guiding them in completing their writing assignments on the computer. The only difference between the four classes was the students' use of networked computers in two classes. Each class was expected to write four compositions which they were scored based on IELTS Writing band descriptors which its table and its components are included in the appendix (see Appendix B).

### *Variables and Data Analysis*

The researcher has employed a quasi-experimental design which was performed with one independent variable (method of teaching: computerized or traditional setting) investigated through application of email. In the present research, the following statistical steps were taken.

First, statistical procedures were used to check the homogeneity level of learners. Secondly, the main cause of promotion of writing ability in this research was determined. Therefore, a t-test was used to observe the effectiveness of e-instruction in experimental groups.

Thirdly, a t-test was used to test any significant differences in the promotion of writing skill as a result of applying email between email users and non-users.

At the end, another sample of t-test was run too, to explore any significant difference between male users and female users in their writing achievement with regard to their gender.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first statistical test was Mann-Whitney test which is used to compare the difference between the means. In this case, the researcher used it to ensure that the difference between the two groups regarding their writing skill was not significant. The results indicated that the level of significance of the obtained index of sig. (.397) does not exceed .05. In other words, the probability level in this test was less than .05 ( $p < .05$ ). Hence, the difference between the mean scores of the two groups on pretest was found to be non significant and both the groups were found to be almost equal before intervention.

As we mentioned before, the experimental group received treatment. So, to measure the effectiveness of e-instruction on their writing performance, another Mann-Whitney test was run as a t-test to compare the results of the students in experimental and control groups on the post-test.

The results revealed that the difference between the groups is meaningfully significant at .000 level which is well above the conventional level of .05. The probability level in this test was higher than .05 and the significant level which was assumed by the researcher was ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, there is a significant difference between the two groups in favor of experimental group. In so doing, the students who received e-assignments had a better performance compared to those in the second group who participated in traditional context.

The next statistical test, Wilcoxon Test, deals with the comparison of the results of the students in experimental and control groups on their pre-test and post-test. Two pairs of t-test were used to investigating significant differences between pre-test and post-test of control and experimental groups.

Results showed that experimental group was significantly better on the post-test compared to the pre-test. Because t-value was .021,  $p < .05$ , it means the outcomes of learners' final writing was higher than in their pre-test, which is an indication of the effect of email on improving students' knowledge.

However, a sample of t-test in control group demonstrated same results too. The estimated-t showed improvement in the students' performance from the pre-test to post-test too. It means that the feedback provided by computer and the one which provided by the instructor had a similar effect on their final writing achievement.

And the last one is related to the comparison of the male and female subjects in the experimental group on their post-test. To meet this aim, a Mann-Whitney Test as t-test was run to explore the difference between writing performance post-test scores in the male and female users. In this case, the level of significance (.000) indicates that the difference between the means is absolutely significant. In other word, the scores of the female users revealed that female users performed better than male users did. It helps the researcher to conclude that female users outperformed male users quite significantly on the post-test in the experimental group.

### **Discussion**

Research Question 1, "Is there any significant differences between e-mail users vs. traditional group in their achievement in writing English as a foreign language?"

The results obtained through the application of Mann-Whitney test as a t-test revealed that significant differences between mail-users and paper-pen users were found. It was suggested that the students exposed to e-instruction were better performers. In other word, applying e-mail had a stronger positive effect on students' writing skill than traditional style. This improvement was brought about by the corrective nature of the email activity that provides a room for some common writing rules such as spelling, punctuation, and capitalization in which some grammatical mistakes are addressed by underlining and the students are provided with some choices that help learners to polish their written document with the suggested replacements and make a grammatical accurate written language. Thus it is evident that e-mail is a writing tool that can help students to write English effectively.

Also, in the next phase the null hypothesis: "There is no significant difference between e-mail users vs. traditional group to their achievement in writing English as a foreign language" was tested too. Two pairs of t-tests were used to investigate significant differences between pre-test and post-test of control and experimental groups. Results suggested enhancement in the students' performance in both groups from the pre-test to post-test. It can be said that both paper-pen method and computer method are effective to different degrees. Although results showed that both methods (paper-based and computer-based) were effective in improving writing skill but, the effect for the computer-based group is greater proving that teaching writing through electronic medium can lead to higher achievement in writing skill. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

With regard to the second research question: "Is there is any significant difference between male and female email users in their achievement in writing English as a foreign language.", the results outlined in previous pages already indicated the rejection of the second null hypothesis because significant differences were observed between the male and female experimental groups in favor of the female group. In other words, writing composition of the female experimental group was better in comparison with the males. The scores on the e-assignments revealed that females in the e-setting performed better than what males in the similar condition did. It can be concluded that the treatment in the female experimental group has been more effective than the male one. In these two classes, the girls showed perseverance and interest when they were going through the treatment. They also made fewer mistakes than the boys did. On the contrary, the boys were less motivated and did not notice to what they were writing. They made many mistakes and did not pay attention to the underlined words or phrases. As a result, female users made a great difference on the level of writing skill at the end of the course. Therefore, the hypothesis is strongly rejected.

### **CONCLUDING REMARKS**

In sum, the analysis conducted here revealed that the electronic medium could bring some positive changes in the outcome of learners' final writings and enhance grammatical written accuracy. This is because email generates a room for correcting some common grammatical problems therefore, students who are afraid of making mistakes can benefit from the immediate feedback which offers new opportunity for students to make their writing more organized through self-correction in a non-threatening atmosphere which leads to be independent of teacher. It may be due to computer can be a very important source of providing input which is authentic which facilitates learning. It is interesting to note that as students paid more attention to grammatical accuracy, they tended to decrease the number of mistakes. Therefore, it is evident which supports our claim that using e-mail as a technique in writing classes for EFL students improve their English writing.

The findings of this research also support those of Carter and Nunan (2002 cited in Ghalami Nobar and Ahangari, 2012) who had suggested that the repetitive nature of input through internet assists learners in understanding linguistics cues. Therefore, learners can easily engage in language practice and real learning context.

The findings having emerged from this study are in line with several studies such as Shaver's (1986), and Allen and Thompson's study (1995) as cited in (Al-Jarf, 2001) who found that using a computer assisted collaborative writing by L1 elementary, middle, high school and college students increased the quantity of writing instruction and the amount of student writing more than those using traditional instruction. Also, in Al-Jarf's study (2001) Web-based instruction seemed to be an important factor in enhancing the writing quality of ESL students. It helped enhance their writing ability (achievement) and resulted in a significant improvement in their posttest (achievement test) scores.

These findings support those of Cooper and Selfe (1990; Spitzer's, 1989 cited in Sullivan & Pratt, 1996) which had noted the advantages of using networked computers for writing. Therefore, it can be suggested that the use of web-based instruction as a supplement to traditional in-class writing instruction was significantly more effective than using traditional writing instruction alone.

Although the findings in this research have provided answers to research questions but, in order to raise generalizability of the results following list of recommendations is suggested for further study:

- This study was performed to explore the effect of computer-based feedback on EFL writing performance. Further research can be suggested to investigate the usefulness of e-feedback on other skills such as speaking, reading, listening, and so on.
- This study has been performed on a group of intermediate language learners. Although it worked for them, we cannot make sure that it will work for all language learners. Thus, it can be a good idea to carry out same research for other levels and larger groups of students or in higher education such as college or university.
- Since this study examines only implementation of email into EFL writing instruction, one area that does seem worthy of investigation is exploring the effect of incorporating other aspects of web technologies such as synchronous discussion among students in the class, or collaborative projects with other groups of students besides email in curriculum to enhance learning.

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## Appendix

### Choose the correct answer. Only one answer is correct.

Last June my brother...1..... a car. He had had an old scooter before, but it....2.... several times during the spring. "What you want is a second-hand Mini," I suggested. "If you give me the money," he said,".....3....one tomorrow." "I can't give you the money," I replied," but what about Aunt Myra. She must have enough. We...4....her since Christmas but she always hints that we...5..... go and see her more often."

We told our parents where we were going. They weren't very happy about it and asked us not to go. So...6.....But later that same day something strange.....7..... A doctor.....8..... us that Aunt Myra.....9.....into hospital for operation.".....10.....go and see her at the same time," said my mother. "You two go today, but don't mention the money."

When we...11....., Aunt Myra.....12....."I m not seriously ill," she said, "but the doctor insists that.....13.....to drive my car. You can have it if you promise.....14..... me to the seaside now and again." We agreed, and now we quite enjoy our monthly trips to the coast with Aunt Myra.

- 1) A. wanted to buy
- 2) A. was breaking down
- B. wanted buying
- C. liked to buy
- D. liked buying
- B. was breaking up

- 8) A. rang for telling
- 9) A. had gone
- B. rang to tell
- C. rung for telling
- D. rung to tell
- B. had been

- C. had broken down  
 D. had broken up  
 3) A. I get  
 B. I'm getting  
 C. I'm going to get  
 D. I'll get  
 4) A. are not seeing  
 B. haven't seen  
 C. didn't see  
 D. don't see  
 5) A. should  
 B. shall  
 C. would  
 D. will  
 6) A. that we haven't  
 B. that we didn't  
 C. we haven't  
 D. we didn't  
 7) A. occurred  
 B. took the place  
 C. passed  
 D. was there
- C. has gone  
 D. has been  
 10) A. We may not all  
 B. We can't all  
 C. All we can't  
 D. All we may not  
 11) A. have come there  
 B. were arriving  
 C. got there  
 D. came to there  
 12) A. was seeming quite happily  
 B. was seeming quite happy  
 C. seemed quite happily  
 D. seemed quite happy  
 13) A. I'm meeting so old  
 B. I'm getting too old  
 C. I get so old  
 D. I get too old  
 14) A. taking  
 B. bringing  
 C. to take  
 D. to bring

**Choose the correct answer. Only one answer is correct.**

15. Can this camera..... good photos?  
 A. make                      B. to make                      C. take                      D. to take
16. Who was the first person.....today?  
 A. spoke to you                      B. you spoke to                      C. you spoke                      D. whom you spoke
17. I can't find the book.....  
 A. nowhere                      B. everywhere                      C. anywhere                      D. somewhere
18. There was a house at.....  
 A. the mountain foot                      B. the foot of the mountain  
 C. the feet of the mountain                      D. the mountain's foot
19. A person who talks to ..... is not necessary mad.  
 A. himself                      B. oneself                      C. yourself                      D. itself
20. I'll be 13 tomorrow,.....?  
 A. am I                      B. aren't I                      C. won't I                      D. will I
21. Did you hear.....Julie said?  
 A. what                      B. that                      C. that what                      D. which
22. Spanish people usually speak ..... than English people.  
 A. quicklier                      B. more quicklier                      C. more quickly                      D. more quicker
23. That old lady can't stop me.....he tennis match on my radio.  
 A. to listen                      B. listening                      C. listen to                      D. listening to
24. I haven't got a chair.....  
 A. to sit                      B. for to sit on                      C. to sit on                      D. for sitting
- 25.....at the moment, I'll go the shops.  
 A. For it doesn't rain                      B. As it doesn't rain  
 C. For it isn't raining                      D. As it isn't raining
26. Bill drinks..... whisky.  
 A. any                      B. none                      C. too many                      D. so much
- 27.....are very intelligent.  
 A. Both of them                      B. Both them                      C. Both they                      D. The both
28. In a shop.....customers.  
 A. it is important pleasing                      B. it is important to please  
 C. there is important pleasing                      D. there is important to please
29. Don't leave your shoes on the table.  
 A. Put off them!                      B. Take them off!  
 C. Pick them off!                      D. Pick up them!
30. ....in my class likes a teacher.  
 A. All persons                      B. All pupils                      C. Everyone                      D. All people
31. We expected about 20 girls but there were..... people there.  
 A. another                      B. others                      C. some                      D. more
32. Your bicycle shouldn't be in the house!  
 A. Take it out!                      B. Get out it!                      C. Put it off!                      D. Take away it!
33. What time does the bus.....Bradford?  
 A. go away to                      B. go away for                      C. leave to                      D. leave for
34. She.....be Canadian because she's got a British passport.  
 A. can't                      B. isn't able to                      C. mustn't                      D. doesn't need
35. "Our daughter.....", they said.  
 A. was born since three years                      B. is born for three years ago  
 C. was born three years ago                      D. has been born since three years ago
36. When..... English?  
 A. has he begun to study                      B. has he begun study  
 C. did he begin to study                      D. did he begin study

37. Do you want some cheese? No,.....  
A. I've some still                      B. I still have much  
C. I don't want                         D. I've still got some
38. Brenda likes going to the theater and .....  
A. so do I                      B. so go I                      C. so I like                      D. so I am
39. .... from London to Edinburgh!  
A. How long there is                      B. What a long way it is  
C. What distance is there                      D. How long is
40. He's a good guitarist, but he plays the piano.....  
A. quick well                      B. too hardly                      C. very good                      D. much better
41. When you go to the shops, bring me.....  
A. fruit tin                      B. a fruits tin                      C. a tin of fruit                      D. a tin of fruit
42. Molly doesn't eat fish.  
A. So doesn't John.                      B. Neither does John.  
C. John doesn't too                      D. John doesn't that either
43. The airport is five miles.....  
A. away from here                      B. from here away  
C. far from here                      D. far away from here
44. Please ask .....and see me.  
A. to Bill to come                      B. Bill to come                      C. to Bill come                      D. Bill come
45. She always buys.....my birthday.  
A. anything nice to                      B. anything nice for  
C. something awful to                      D. something awful for
46. Aren't they friends.....?  
A. of yours                      B. of you                      C. to yours                      D. to you
47. She hardly ever eats.....potatoes.  
A. or bread or                      B. bread or  
C. neither bread or                      D. neither bread nor
48. This is the record we.....  
A. like so much                      B. are liking so much  
Like it much                      D. like it much are liking it much
49. She's going to buy.....new trousers.  
A. some pair of                      B. some                      C. a couple of                      D. this
50. Is she going to school? No, .....  
A. she doesn't                      B. she's cycling                      C. she gets by bus                      D. to the shops

**IELTS Task 2 Writing band descriptors (public version)**

Band	Task Response	Coherence and Cohesion	Lexical Resource	Grammatical Range and Accuracy
9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>fully addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>presents a fully developed position in answer to the question with relevant, fully extended and well supported ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses cohesion in such a way that it attracts no attention</li> <li>skilfully manages paragraphing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of vocabulary with very natural and sophisticated control of lexical features; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of structures with full flexibility and accuracy; rare minor errors occur only as 'slips'</li> </ul>
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>sufficiently addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>presents a well-developed response to the question with relevant, extended and supported ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>sequences information and ideas logically</li> <li>manages all aspects of cohesion well</li> <li>uses paragraphing sufficiently and appropriately</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of vocabulary fluently and flexibly to convey precise meanings</li> <li>skilfully uses uncommon lexical items but there may be occasional inaccuracies in word choice and collocation</li> <li>produces rare errors in spelling and/or word formation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a wide range of structures</li> <li>the majority of sentences are error-free</li> <li>makes only very occasional errors or inappropriacies</li> </ul>
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>addresses all parts of the task</li> <li>presents a clear position throughout the response</li> <li>presents, extends and supports main ideas, but there may be a tendency to over-generalise and/or supporting ideas may lack focus</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>logically organises information and ideas; there is clear progression throughout</li> <li>uses a range of cohesive devices appropriately although there may be some under-/over-use</li> <li>presents a clear central topic within each paragraph</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a sufficient range of vocabulary to allow some flexibility and precision</li> <li>uses less common lexical items with some awareness of style and collocation</li> <li>may produce occasional errors in word choice, spelling and/or word formation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a variety of complex structures</li> <li>produces frequent error-free sentences</li> <li>has good control of grammar and punctuation but may make a few errors</li> </ul>
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>addresses all parts of the task although some parts may be more fully covered than others</li> <li>presents a relevant position although the conclusions may become unclear or repetitive</li> <li>presents relevant main ideas but some may be inadequately developed/unclear</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>arranges information and ideas coherently and there is a clear overall progression</li> <li>uses cohesive devices effectively, but cohesion within and/or between sentences may be faulty or mechanical</li> <li>may not always use referencing clearly or appropriately</li> <li>uses paragraphing, but not always logically</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses an adequate range of vocabulary for the task</li> <li>attempts to use less common vocabulary but with some inaccuracy</li> <li>makes some errors in spelling and/or word formation, but they do not impede communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a mix of simple and complex sentence forms</li> <li>makes some errors in grammar and punctuation but they rarely reduce communication</li> </ul>
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>addresses the task only partially; the format may be inappropriate in places</li> <li>expresses a position but the development is not always clear and there may be no</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>presents information with some organisation but there may be a lack of overall progression</li> <li>makes inadequate, inaccurate or over-</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses a limited range of vocabulary, but this is minimally adequate for the task</li> <li>may make noticeable errors in</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>uses only a limited range of structures</li> <li>attempts complex sentences but these tend to be less accurate than simple sentences</li> </ul>



<b>4</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ conclusions drawn</li> <li>▪ presents some main ideas but these are limited and not sufficiently developed; there may be irrelevant detail</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ use of cohesive devices</li> <li>▪ may be repetitive because of lack of referencing and substitution</li> <li>▪ may not write in paragraphs, or paragraphing may be inadequate</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ spelling and/or word formation that may cause some difficulty for the reader</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ may make frequent grammatical errors and punctuation may be faulty; errors can cause some difficulty for the reader</li> </ul>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ responds to the task only in a minimal way or the answer is tangential; the format may be inappropriate</li> <li>▪ presents a position but this is unclear</li> <li>▪ presents some main ideas but these are difficult to identify and may be repetitive, irrelevant or not well supported</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ presents information and ideas but these are not arranged coherently and there is no clear progression in the response</li> <li>▪ uses some basic cohesive devices but these may be inaccurate or repetitive</li> <li>▪ may not write in paragraphs or their use may be confusing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ uses only basic vocabulary which may be used repetitively or which may be inappropriate for the task</li> <li>▪ has limited control of word formation and/or spelling; errors may cause strain for the reader</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ uses only a very limited range of structures with only rare use of subordinate clauses</li> <li>▪ some structures are accurate but errors predominate, and punctuation is often faulty</li> </ul>
<b>3</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ does not adequately address any part of the task</li> <li>▪ does not express a clear position</li> <li>▪ presents few ideas, which are largely undeveloped or irrelevant</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ does not organise ideas logically</li> <li>▪ may use a very limited range of cohesive devices, and those used may not indicate a logical relationship between ideas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ uses only a very limited range of words and expressions with very limited control of word formation and/or spelling</li> <li>▪ errors may severely distort the message</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ attempts sentence forms but errors in grammar and punctuation predominate and distort the meaning</li> </ul>
<b>2</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ barely responds to the task</li> <li>▪ does not express a position</li> <li>▪ may attempt to present one or two ideas but there is no development</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ has very little control of organisational features</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ uses an extremely limited range of vocabulary; essentially no control of word formation and/or spelling</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ cannot use sentence forms except in memorised phrases</li> </ul>
<b>1</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ answer is completely unrelated to the task</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ fails to communicate any message</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ can only use a few isolated words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ cannot use sentence forms at all</li> </ul>
<b>0</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ does not attend</li> <li>▪ does not attempt the task in any way</li> <li>▪ writes a totally memorised response</li> </ul>			



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