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ARE ESP TEXTBOOKS SATISFYING STUDENTS? : A CASE IN IRAN

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to analyze the ESP book taught at Payame Noor University for BA students of Accounting to examine whether the book satisfied students according to their objectives, needs, and wants. To this end, a sample of 35 Accounting students with their age range between 20 and 27 participated in this study. They were asked to answer the questionnaire about their ESP book according to their objectives, needs, and wants. The instrument used for collecting the data was a questionnaire with 30 items prepared by the researchers sampling from existing questionnaires used in different studies to meet the requirements of the study objective. Each item of the questionnaire consisted of five options (Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree and Strongly Disagree) based on Likert Scale about objectives, needs, and wants of the participants. The results indicated that the ESP book for Accounting students in the study satisfied BA students of Payame Noor according to their objectives and needs; however, it did not satisfy them according to their wants. This study could be helpful for educational department of Payame Noor University to improve the quality of English books for ESP classes.

KEYWORDS: Textbook Analysis, Evaluation, Objectives, Needs, Wants, ESP (English for Specific Purposes)

INTRODUCTION

Today, the use of course books in English Language Teaching has gained so much popularity because of the increasing number of ESP books founded in universities or private and state schools and teaching materials. As Richards and Rogers (2001) suggest, course books are significant elements of the curriculum because they make the content specific. Despite some shortcomings such as the failure to present appropriate and realistic language models, inadequate cultural understanding, lack of contextualization of language activities, and so on (Richards & Renandya, 2002), many advantages are stated as its providing a clear framework which both the teacher and the students can easily follow, its serving as a syllabus which includes a planned and balanced selection of language content, its letting the students learn new material, review and monitor progress, its texts with appropriate level for most of the learners (Ur, 1996, Littlejohn, 1998).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Because of the central role of textbooks in the teaching and learning in ELT, it appears indispensable to know that textbooks provide instructional support for students of different fields especially in ESP classes. Textbooks have an important role and influence on the issues which are taught in English classes. Many teachers use textbooks as their curriculum guide and source of lessons (John, 2001). New and in-experienced teachers, or those that have many problems for lesson planning, can take the best use of course books in English Language Teaching (Tyson, 1997). It is good to know that ESP materials should be authentic, up-to-date and relevant for the students' specializations. A textbook is like a good and suitable plan of what is intended and expected. In today's classrooms, textbooks are a key factor and instructional element in many language programs. According to Riazi (2003), after teachers, textbooks are considered to be the next important factor in second/foreign language classrooms. Also, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), in some situations where English is a foreign not a second language, the ESP classroom may be the only source of English. Materials then play a crucial role in exposing learners to the language, and the full range that learners require.

In Iran, textbooks serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that takes place in the classroom (Riazi, 2003). In some situations, the textbook may function as a supplement to the teacher's instruction in the ESL teaching and learning process. For most teachers, textbooks provide the foundation for the content of lessons, the balance of the skills taught, as well as the kinds of language practice the students engage in during class activities. Actually, they shape the content and nature of teaching and learning (Riazi, 2003). Educators as well as learners spend a great deal of their preparation, class and time working with textbook materials because textbooks are primary sources that instructors and educators use throughout the world to guide them in teaching. Textbooks also provide a good framework for teachers to help them in teaching and supporting students in the process of learning. So, Choosing the appropriate textbook for use in the science classroom is not an easy task (Sheldon, 1988). So, at the time of designing an ESP course, the first issue is paying attention to learners' needs and wants. Analyzing the specific needs of a particular learner group determines the 'what and how' of an ESP course (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). While there are numerous proposals for the evaluation of teaching materials, these proposals are much less common in the field of ESP. Considering this important issue is clear when Ansari and Babaii (2002), believe that teachers have the responsibility of evaluating textbooks, so the evaluation of teaching materials is an important part of a teacher's work.

Significance of study

Textbook as a teaching material usually receives a special attention in English courses. It is believed that the textbook is a vital element of English language teaching (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994). Sheldon (1988) also suggests that textbooks are the central core of any language program because they have many advantages in language learning environment. Teachers for using course books in the best way must decide which textbooks are appropriate for their needs and wants. A teacher should consider that the book is in line with students' age and also pay attention to the subjects that are familiar with students' goals in their classes. They must also believe that the book of the course can support instructional needs of learners. The only way to gain this information is through careful analysis and evaluations of textbooks and other curriculum materials (Sheldon, 1988).

Statement of the problem

In today's classrooms, textbooks are considered as instructional tools and guide. Teachers throughout the world use texts to guide their instruction. So, textbooks greatly influence the delivery of content. They identified textbooks as playing an important role in making supportive plans to classroom activities, by making content available, organizing it, and setting out learning tasks in a form designed to be appealing to students (Schmidt, McKnight, & Raizen, 1997). Even though textbooks are important elements in most of EFL classes, there is no good attention to the process of textbook selection and evaluation. The reason for this maybe is the fact that in the age of communicative teaching, there is no attention to communicative methodologies in ESP classes in the field of English. Yet, regardless of how much focus is on using authentic materials, teachers usually do not have the time and the instructional support to collect and adapt all the necessary materials for their classes. Therefore, it is disappointing that researchers have not provided more guidance to enable teachers and administrators to make wiser decisions (Azizfar, Koosha, & Lotfi, 2010).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions of the study are:

- Q1: Does the ESP book of Accounting major satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their objectives?
- Q2: Does the ESP book of Accounting major satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their needs?
- Q3: Does the ESP book of Accounting major satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their wants?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

A group of 35 students from both sexes (female and male) attended in this study. They were BA students of Accounting from Payame Noor University of Tehran passing their specific English courses related to their major . Their age was between 20 and 27. The sampling technique was availability, so from two classes the subjects participated in the study.

Instruments

The instrument which was used for collecting the data was a questionnaire with 30 items was prepared by the researchers in this way that from different questionnaires of different researchers a questionnaire was prepared with supervision of professors of the field according to students' objectives, needs, and wants that are related to their course book. Each item of the questionnaire consisted of five options (Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree and Strongly Disagree) based on Likert Scale about objectives, needs, and wants of the participants. To assure the reliability of the questionnaire, test-retest method was used and the obtained reliability index of the questionnaire as estimated using the Cronbach's Alpha turned out to be .69 which appears acceptable.

Design

The design of this research is a descriptive survey study in which the researcher used data collection tool like questionnaires for the process of data collection. From time to time it is needed to use a survey in order to understand better how things are really operating in your own, personal environment, in classrooms or other learning settings or to describe the abilities, performances and other characteristics of the learners, teachers and administrators involved in the professional life (Brown, 2002, p. 117).

Procedure

The purpose of this study was analyzing the ESP textbook of Accounting students of Payame Noor University to understand the strengths and weaknesses of the book according to learners' objectives, needs, and wants and looking for appropriate and suitable policies and strategies to improve the quality of the book. So, for collecting the data, a questionnaire with 30 items was prepared by the researcher in this way that from different questionnaires of different researchers a questionnaire was prepared with supervision of professors of the field according to students' objectives, needs, and wants that are related to their course book. Each item of the questionnaire consisted of five options (Strongly Agree, Agree, No Opinion, Disagree and Strongly Disagree) based on Likert Scale about objectives, needs, and wants of the participants. To assure the reliability of the questionnaire, the researcher used retest method among learners of the field. To assure the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher finalized the questionnaire based on experts' comments of the field and edited the questionnaire based on the research questions and hypotheses and used Likert Scale as one standard and accepted criterion in the field of research.

Finally, in order to analyze the data, the researcher considered frequencies and percentages for students' answers given in the questionnaire and used chi-square test to indicate whether differences are statistically significant or not and the null hypotheses about objectives, needs, and wants of Accounting course book are rejected or supported.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This part of the study includes a complete analysis of the results obtained from the data collection process about the research questions of the study. The statistics are shown completely in tables and the results obtained from the data are explained in details to prove the researcher's agreements or disagreements on research questions and hypotheses.

Research question one

The first research question of the study was:

Q1: Does the ESP book of Accounting major satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their objectives.

Objectives of Accounting Textbook

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	120	34.2
Disagree	52	14.8
No Opinion	33	9.4
Agree	47	13.4
Strongly Agree	98	28.2
Total	350	100.0

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Chi-Square Objectives of Accounting Textbook

	Choices
Chi-Square	78.657^a
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a.0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 70.	

Results: The results of the chi-square test ($\chi^2 (4) = 78.657$, $p = .000 < .05$) indicated that the above mentioned differences were statistically significant. In other words, the Accounting students significantly believed that the textbook did not meet their educational objectives. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP book of Accounting major does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their objectives is supported.

Research question two

The second research question of the study was:

Q2: Does the ESP book of Accounting major satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their needs?

Needs of Accounting Textbook

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	66	18.9
Disagree	28	8
No Opinion	42	12
Agree	112	32
Strongly Agree	102	29.1
Total	350	100.0

Chi-Square Needs of Accounting Textbook

	Choices
Chi-Square	76.457^a
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a.0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 70.	

Results: The results of the chi-square test ($\chi^2 (4) = 76.457$, $p = .000 < .05$) revealed that the above mentioned differences was statistically significant. In other words, the Accounting students significantly asserted that the textbook did not meet their educational needs. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP book of Accounting major does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their needs is supported.

Research question three

The third research question of the study was: Q3: Does the ESP book of Accounting major satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their wants?

Wants of Accounting Textbook

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	26	7.4
Disagree	117	33.4
No Opinion	59	16.9
Agree	76	21.8
Strongly Agree	72	20.5
Total	350	100.0

Chi-Square Wants of Accounting Textbook

	Choices
Chi-Square	61.514 ^a
df	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000
a.0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 70.	

Results: The results of the chi-square test ($\chi^2 (4) = 61.514$, $p = .000 < .05$) confirmed that the above mentioned differences were statistically significant. In other words, the Accounting students significantly believed that the textbook meets their educational Wants. Thus, the null hypothesis as ESP book of Accounting major does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their wants is rejected.

Discussion

Discussion on the first research question

ESP book of Accounting does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their objectives. So, the null hypothesis as ESP book of Accounting major does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their objectives is supported. It is believed that the content of the book is not very helpful to improve learners' knowledge of their specificity in English. There is no consistent pattern and frame in the book and students cannot consider it as a good learning support. So, there was not a proper match between the objectives of the book and objectives of the course and no suitability was shown. The results of this study were not consistent with Garinger's (2002) beliefs in this regard due to his opinion that the objectives of specific textbooks need to be parallel with the objectives of the course. So, there is not a good parallel between the findings of this study and the other related ones in this case.

Discussion on the second research question

ESP book of Accounting does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their needs. So, the null hypothesis as ESP book of Accounting major does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their needs is supported. The reason is that Accounting students' textbook is not in line with students' needs and does not pay attention to their expectations and wishes. The content of the reading passages are not in accordance with the content of their course of studies. Most of the students believed that the content of the textbook was not motivating to receive any response from learners. The results of this category were not in line with the findings of Ghalandari and Talebinejad (2012) that the subject matter of ESP textbooks is compatible to the students' needs and achievement and also there was not any match between the results of this study and Garinger's (2002) idea that the course book should meet the needs of the learners and also need to be appropriate to the intended audience.

Discussion on the third research question

ESP book of Accounting does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their wants. So, the null hypothesis as ESP book of Accounting major does not satisfy BA students of Payame Noor according to their wants is rejected. In Accounting classes teachers pay attention to communication skills and practical issues and fortunately students have some chances to express their ideas and the ESP class teach them whatever they need for their future

jobs. Fortunately, the book considers the interactive and communicative nature and aspects of language teaching. Consequently, it leads to students' involvement and participation in class activities and discussions. The results of this study are based on Farhady's (1995) opinions that reading ability is not the only skill that Iranian students need to improve. He also puts emphasis on the communicative aspect of teaching in the ESP context. Similarly, Grant (1987) points to the communicative aspects of the textbook and believes that as a result of using the textbook, the students should be able to communicate a language and involve themselves in the process of getting and giving information in the class.

CONCLUSION

According to our study, the results indicated the ESP book of Accounting major satisfies BA students of Payame Noor according to their objectives and needs; but it does not satisfy them according to their wants. The following were also the limitations of this study:

- I. The first limitation was that the factor of age was not considered in this study because the researcher was not decided to prove the influence of age on something among learners and it was just mentioned as additional information of participants.
- II. The second limitation was that because most ESP classes at Payame Noor University especially in the field of Accounting are really compact and the time of covering the whole book is limited for teachers, the researcher could not do any interview with students and their professor and just the process of data collection was based on the questionnaire.
- III. The third limitation was the factor of sex which had no role on the results of the study although the participants were from both sexes male and female.
- IV. Finally, the researcher faced some problems through the process of data collection especially for retesting the questionnaire among learners and they participated with some difficulty in this case.

Pedagogical implications

Findings and results of this study could be helpful for educational department of Payame Noor University to improve the quality of English books for ESP classes. There are some good points for department members and educational administration board officials to boost the suitability of ESP courses: It is an important fact that there must be clear objectives in ESP courses, and then based on those objectives relevant and perfect materials should be designed and developed to meet learners' objectives. The time allocated to Accounting courses and other ESP courses of Payame Noor must be increased since professors are faced with many problems for covering all units of the books. Although in ESP classes of Accounting professors pay attention to students' interactions and participations, the classes are boring in many cases because of the book which is more based on reading skills, translation of sentences, and vocabulary drills.

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PERSPECTIVES OF IRANIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TOWARDS THE APPLICATION
OF INTERACTIVE WHITEBOARDS TECHNOLOGY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

This study explored the attitudes of teachers towards the use of interactive whiteboards (IWBs) in English Language teaching and learning contexts, and also sought insights into teachers' actual use of IWBs in English language classes. The study also investigated possible factors affecting teachers' positive and negative attitudes towards IWB technology. Data were collected through questionnaires distributed to 82 teachers in different institutions across Andimeshk, Iran, from Secondary schools. Questionnaire results revealed that teachers have positive attitudes towards the use of IWBs in Math instruction and are aware of the potential of this technology. Responses given in interviews indicated that all Math teachers are supportive of IWB technology in their classes, and observations revealed that IWBs are used with their basic functions in Math classes. The statistical analysis revealed that the more teachers use IWBs, the more they like this technology.

KEYWORDS: Interactive whiteboard (IWB), attitude, Mathematic Teachers, Math Instruction.

INTRODUCTION

With the introduction of computer facilities into the education system, traditional teaching techniques are increasingly being enhanced or even replaced by techniques relying more on technology. Once concentrated in math and science classes, technology has also begun providing benefits to language teaching and learning. One recent popular computer based technology that has emerged is interactive whiteboards (IWBs). IWBs were initially developed for presentations in office settings, but over the last decade, starting from higher education, educational institutions have begun using them. According to some studies and reports based primarily on research in science, math or other content-based classrooms, the use of IWBs makes the learning and teaching atmosphere more enjoyable, creative, and interesting. There are also numerous claims about the benefits and positive impact of IWBs on learning, but these remain largely anecdotal (Levy, 2002).

With the incorporation of IWBs in teaching and learning settings, important changes have been observed in education, such as engaging more students in the lesson, using multimedia sources flexibly, and motivating learners easily. IWBs could be useful supplementary tools for education, providing the opportunity to bring in different kinds of multimedia resources, to access Internet sources with ease, and to increase student interest; however, maximum benefit from this technology, especially in language teaching and learning settings, requires further background knowledge and research (Anderson, 2007). Although there are many descriptive reviews and reports about the use of IWBs, it is beneficial for teachers and students to be familiar with the actual potential of this technology through empirical studies, including gathering the opinions of students and teachers, exploring its actual use in the classroom, and providing pedagogical advice for effective use of this technology.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In recent years, computers and computer-related technologies, such as IWBs, have increasingly begun to be used in language teaching and learning settings. Technologically developed countries such as the UK, the USA, and Australia have invested a great deal of money in such technological equipment. With respect to IWBs in particular, a national survey in England in 2005 found that nearly half (49%) of primary school teachers had used IWBs, and in secondary schools, 77% of math teachers, 67% of science teachers and 49% of English teachers said they had used IWBs (BECTA, 2005). There is increasing interest in the potential of this technology worldwide (Hodge & Anderson, 2007), including in countries like Iran, where, though this technology is quite new, it is attracting educators' attention day by day.

Interactive whiteboards have been argued to provide certain benefits for students. Firstly, using IWBs has been claimed to increase student motivation and enjoyment (BECTA, 2003a). Secondly, they have been shown to enable greater opportunities for participation and collaboration, thus developing students' personal and social skills (Levy, 2002). Thirdly, they may eliminate the need for students to take notes, through the capacity to save and print what appears on the board (BECTA, 2003b). Another benefit is arguably that, with the help of an IWB, teachers can make clearer and more dynamic presentations and in turn the students can manage to deal with more complex concepts (Smith, 2001). It has also been argued that IWBs allow teachers to accommodate different learning styles and to choose materials according to the particular needs of students (Bell, 2002). Moreover, IWBs seem to enable students to be more creative and self-confident in presentations to their classmates (Levy, 2002). Finally, Bell suggests using IWBs for a variety of reasons. Since IWBs are colorful tools, they attract the attention of students and they may be useful not only for visual intelligent students, but also for kinesthetic learners because they allow touching and marking on the board.

IWBs may provide benefits for teachers as well. First of all, IWBs have been shown to provide teachers with a way to integrate Information and Communication Technology (ICT) into their lessons while teaching from the front of the class (Smith, 2001). Secondly, they may allow for spontaneity and flexibility, and for teachers to benefit from a wide range of web-based resources (Kennewell, 2001).

Thirdly, they permit teachers to save and print the notes they or their students write on the board (Walker, 2002). Furthermore, IWBs allow teachers to share materials with their colleagues via intranet at schools and use them again later, which saves time in preparing materials (Glover & Miller, 2001). Finally, interactive whiteboards have been argued to serve as encouraging devices for teachers to change their pedagogical approaches and use more ICT, which in turn can facilitate professional development (Smith, 1999).

Even though there are many reports claiming to show the advantages of IWBs, there are also a few studies pointing out the drawbacks of this technology. In a study conducted by Gray, Hagger Vaughan, Pilkington and Tomkins (2005), researchers found that some teachers complained that IWB-based lesson preparation and planning is time-consuming. Other teachers stated that too much PowerPoint use could lead to a "show and tell" style of teaching that may result in changing the role of the teacher into one of just a presenter of the topic in the classroom. In this case, the teacher may be seen as more passive and as less involved in the teaching process.

Smith, Higgins, Wall and Miller (2005) revealed that in order to use IWBs to their full potential and avoid such problems, there is a tremendous need for training and technical support for teachers. Teachers should be confident in using this technology, which can only be achieved by special training. Without training, the claimed benefits may not be experienced by the learners and teachers. Glover and Miller (2001) conducted another study that supports this idea, emphasizing many teachers' lack of overall ICT competence. Yet another problem that may arise with the introduction of IWB technology is a financial one. Schools have to spend a considerable amount of money in order to equip classrooms with this technology.

Since the late 1990s there has been an increasing use of technology in educational settings worldwide. Computer facilities such as wireless net, interactive whiteboards, and multimedia devices have started to enhance teaching and learning processes. Interactive whiteboards (IWBs) are a relatively recent technology, so there is not a great deal of scholarly literature relating to attitudes towards their use. The articles in the educational press and newspapers offer only anecdotal evidence and advice and the existing small-scale studies do not provide a full picture – particularly with respect to IWB use in the area of language instruction.

Various studies have investigated the attitudes of students and teachers towards CALL (Arkin, 2003; Bebell, O'Conner, O'Dwyer, & Russell, 2003) and several studies have looked at the student and teachers attitudes towards the use of interactive whiteboards in particular (Armstrong, Cardini, Castle, 2007; Schmid, 2006; Wall, Higgins, Smith, 2005). Of the latter studies only two looked specifically at IWB use in language learning contexts (Gray et al., 2005; Schmid, 2006), and of these, both were small-scale qualitative studies looking at specific groups of ESL learners and teachers.

The literature lacks therefore large-scale studies surveying specifically language teachers', learners', and administrators' views about the use of IWBs in EFL contexts and exploring the possible factors affecting these stakeholders' positive or negative attitudes towards IWB technology.

In Iran, Andimeshk, IWB technology is fairly new and there are not many institutions that use it currently for language teaching purposes. Since research studies may be helpful to educators deciding whether or not to invest in this new technology, this study will be a starting point to show the overall picture of IWB use in Iran, Andimeshk, student and teacher openness to their use, and their overall potential for language instruction. This study will include all of the stakeholders in language instruction settings by exploring teachers', students', and administrators' attitudes both qualitatively and quantitatively, so that educators may decide whether they should incorporate this technology into their teaching process or not.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1) What are the attitudes of Iranian EFL teachers towards interactive whiteboards?
- 4) How are IWBs used in EFL classrooms in Iran, Andimeshk?
- 5) What factors may influence Iranian students' and teachers' attitudes towards the use of IWBs in EFL classrooms?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

IWB technology is becoming more and more widespread day by day since it appears to offer teachers and students opportunities to facilitate teaching and learning. Although there are many claimed benefits of IWB technology, it is the teachers who will have to exploit the features of IWBs and integrate them with their current teaching methodologies, and students who will be expected to be ready for such changes. Effective integration can be achieved once it is understood how much training is needed, how open teachers and students are to the idea of IWB use, and how much support can be expected from administrators. Since the literature lacks broad empirical studies investigating students' and teachers' attitudes towards IWB technology in language instruction, this study might provide more empirical results, including both qualitative and quantitative data, showing how language teachers and EFL students perceive IWB technology, and ultimately may help both teachers and students maximize the benefits of IWB technology.

This is the first study that will investigate the attitudes of students, teachers, and administrators towards the use of IWBs in language instruction settings in Iran, Andimeshk. Before deciding on whether to invest in any new technology, educators need to understand how much this technology may contribute to their particular teaching and learning process, and need to be aware of opinions of the people who are using this technology currently. This study will enable Iranian educational institutions in the language teaching field to make informed decisions about whether to invest in this technology, and to better understand what they need to do if they decide to make this commitment.

METHODOLOGY

Since this study was limited by the number of educational institutions that use IWB technology, there could not be equal distribution of the types of institutions. This study was conducted, therefore, in thirteen different educational institutions where IWB technology is used in Andimeshk.

Some of the students who participated in the study were preparatory class students in universities and high schools, others were in language schools taking English courses at different levels, and others were primary school students taking English classes at least two days a week. In any one institution, not all classrooms using IWBs in English

classes were necessarily surveyed. In any institution, if there were more than three classrooms where IWBs were installed, the three classes in which IWB had been used most often were surveyed.

If the students' IWB exposure was the same, one sample from each grade and level was chosen at random. The age of students ranged from 6 to mid-40s since there were educational institutions ranging from primary school to language school. The highest student population in this survey belongs to university students (45%).

The teachers surveyed also came from these thirteen different educational institutions, and therefore ranged from primary school teachers to university instructors. They had varying degrees of experience in teaching English, with the majority (83%) having between 1-10 years experience. Among all English teachers in any institution, only the ones with actual experience using this technology were involved in the survey. In order to see the actual use of IWBs in English classes, three hours of English lessons were observed. Two of these classes were observed in one university, and the other was observed in a secondary school. The criterion for choosing the lesson to be observed was the amount of the teacher's experience in using this technology.

Lastly, three administrators were interviewed to investigate their attitudes towards the use of IWBs. All administrators were from universities and they were chosen because they had either had enough knowledge about IWB technology or had participated in the decision-making process to purchase the IWB technology.

Instruments

Survey techniques and instruments were used in order to collect data in this study. Two questionnaires were employed in this study in order to collect data about the attitudes of students and teachers towards IWBs in language teaching and learning settings. Both the student and teacher questionnaires included five point Likert-scale items, open-ended and multiple-choice items, and apart from primary and secondary school students, the rest of the participants signed a consent form.

The first questionnaire elicited information about the attitudes of students towards IWB use in English lessons. The other questionnaire explored the attitudes of EFL teachers towards IWB use in the classroom settings. While writing the questions in the questionnaire, the researcher was inspired by Moss et al (2007) questionnaire on teacher and student perceptions of IWBs in core subjects.

Some teacher and student responses in Levy's (2000) study were also used to prepare the questionnaire items for this study. After the writing of the final version of the student's questionnaire in English, the questions in the student's questionnaire were translated into Iranian by the researcher and checked by a fellow English teacher, in case student participants would not understand some of the statements in English.

However, the teacher's questionnaire was written in English because it was felt that EFL teachers would easily understand the questionnaire items. In order to improve the questionnaires, a pilot study was conducted in Middle East Technical University's Foreign Languages Department. Forty students and five teachers participated in the study in total. After the study, two vague items in the teacher's questionnaire were changed in order to be clearer.

The reliability check with Cronbach Alpha resulted in the score of 0.79 for student's questionnaire and 0.78 for teacher's questionnaire. In the teacher's questionnaire, three opposite items were excluded before the reliability check. In order to explore the attitudes of administrators towards the use of IWBs, an interview protocol was used. I conducted these interviews with the heads of the Foreign Languages Departments in three different universities. They were the administrators of the preparatory programs. The reason for including administrators in this study is that their attitudes are also important while deciding to purchase this technology and provide additional support for teachers. There were six questions in total, exploring the factors influencing their institutions' decision to purchase IWBs, their opinions about the benefits of IWBs, the most common problems stated by the EFL teachers, and general background information about the institution.

For the last research question, a video recording procedure was conducted. The purpose of this procedure was to observe the actual ways in which of EFL teachers used or benefited from IWBs in language classes.

Procedure

It was learned that approximately seventy different institutions possess this technology, but only about twenty of them use it in language classes. I phoned the administrations of the institutions that use IWB in language classes to learn whether they actually use this technology or not. I found out that even though some of these institutions had purchased IWBs, they were not using them actively, maybe due to the need for training.

Some of the institutions requested official permission from the director of education in different cities, so I excluded those institutions from my list since it would take a long time to get that permission. At the end of this initial searching step, I made a list of fifteen institutions that use IWBs in EFL classrooms, and which consented to take part in this study. Two of the institutions ultimately did not send back the questionnaires, leaving a total of thirteen institutions surveyed. The return rate, in this case, is approximately 80% with student's questionnaire and 19% with teacher's questionnaire.

A preparatory classroom was selected randomly, taking into consideration that they had some degree of IWB use experience. Two teachers who had been using this technology for one year were selected for the piloting. The student questionnaires were distributed to the EFL students in the preparatory class and all the students completed the questionnaires.

The other questionnaire, which was designed for the teachers who use IWBs in English classes, was distributed to the teachers and five teachers completed this questionnaire. The researcher requested the students and the teachers to comment on unclear statements and to express their thoughts about the questions and the survey itself. The time spent for each questionnaire was also recorded. After the piloting, minor changes to improve the questionnaires were made with the help of the teachers' oral and written comments and the students' feedback.

After the minor changes in the questionnaires were made, the questionnaires were distributed to fifteen institutions by post. Three interviews were then held with the heads of three institutions. Six questions were asked to learn their beliefs about this technology. Three hours of English classes were recorded in different institutions, using a digital video camera. After the recording, the tapes were analyzed using a checklist to define the ways in which English teachers used this technology. The checklist, which was compiled on the basis of uses mentioned in the literature on IWBs, consisted of different activities and ways of IWB use, such as bringing in materials from the Internet.

Data analysis

All the items in the questionnaires were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), with the exception of the two open-ended questions at the end of both the teachers' questionnaire and students' questionnaire.

In the interview with the administrators, there were six questions and they were analyzed through categorization of the responses in terms of positive and negative opinions. For every item statistically analyzed, frequencies and percentages were calculated. In terms of mean scores and standard deviations, the researcher excluded the option "No idea" from the variables in order to see only the degree of actual agreement and disagreement among the participants expressing a clear opinion.

Therefore, the calculation of mean scores ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. In this case, the scores between 1.00 and 1.75 meant that the participants showed their strong disagreement with a certain statement, 1.76-2.50 indicated disagreement, 2.51-3.25 showed agreement, and 3.26-4.00 corresponded to strong agreement. In order to find whether there was a significant relation between different variables such as age, hours of IWB use/exposure and students' and teachers' having positive or negative attitudes towards IWBs, one-way ANOVA tests were performed. Interviews with the administrators were taped and transcribed by the researcher.

The transcript data were categorized according to administrators' positive or negative attitudes towards the use of IWB technology. The video records were analyzed and categorized according to the ways that teachers use IWBs in the literature. In addition, the open-ended responses from the students were first translated into English, and then categorized according to the sections in the analysis of the questionnaire data gathered from the students. Later, after each section of the analysis of the student questionnaire results, the related responses were added to the relevant sections in order to support or contradict with the students' or teachers' Likert-scale responses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

With the exception of section three, in which there were two open-ended response items, all sections in the questionnaires were analyzed statistically. The Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 11.5 was used to compute frequencies and percentages of each Likert-scale question.

All the Likert-scale items consisted of a 5-point format: strongly agree, agree, no idea, disagree, and strongly disagree. While calculating means and standard deviations, the option “No idea” was excluded from the variables in order to see only the degree of actual agreement and disagreement among the participants. ANOVA tests were also calculated to see whether there was a significant relationship between attitudes and various participant factors, including age, years of teaching experience, hours of IWB exposure, and type of the institution worked in. In addition, responses from the two open-ended questions were grouped according to the similar questions in the second section of the questionnaire and were discussed after each statistical analysis.

The interview transcript data were analyzed according to the responses of interviewees for each of the six questions. The researcher examined all the responses for each question in order to find similarities and differences between the attitudes of the administrators.

Finally, the observation data were analyzed in order to reflect the actual use of IWBs in English lessons and to what extent the potential of IWBs is exploited.

The results obtained from the analysis of the questionnaires are presented in four parts below. In the first part, the analysis of questions in the student questionnaire is presented according to six categories: learning, technical issues, affective factors, motivation, time/organization, and differences between IWBs and traditional whiteboards. In the second part, the responses given to the questions in the teacher’s questionnaire are shown according to four categories: teaching, attitudes, motivation, and training. In the third part, the data gathered from the interviews are presented according to the six questions asked, and the similarities and differences between the interviewees’ responses for each question addressing attitudes towards the use of IWBs are analyzed. The final part of this chapter is devoted to a presentation of the various ways of actual IWB use in English classes as seen during the class observations.

Part 2: Teachers’ Attitudes towards the Use of Interactive Whiteboards

Section 1: Teachers’ Attitudes Related to IWBs as Teaching Tools

The nine questions in this section of the teacher’s questionnaire investigated teachers’ attitudes towards the use of IWBs as teaching tools. Generally, the proclaimed benefits of IWBs such as saving time, enabling teachers to reach different sources, saving and printing students’ work or examples, easing review, and allowing the opportunity to interact with the class face to face were included in the questionnaire statements to learn the teachers’ feelings about these features of IWBs. The researcher also wanted to learn whether the teachers feel that they are more effective, efficient, and better managers of their classes when using IWBs.

Q1: Using the IWB resources reduces the time I spend writing on the board.

Q2: When using IWBs in the classroom, I spend more time for the preparation of the lesson.

Q3: I think using IWBs makes it easier to reach different sources and display them to the whole class immediately.

Q4: IWBs are beneficial for saving and printing the materials generated during the lesson.

Q5: I can give explanations more effectively with the use of IWBs.

Q6: With the help of using the IWB, I can easily control the whole class.

Q7: I think IWBs can be a good supplement to support teaching.

Q8: Using IWBs makes me a more efficient teacher.

Q9: Using IWBs makes it easier for a teacher to review, re-explain, and summarize the subject.

According to the mean scores in this table, except for the statement that using IWBs requires more preparation time, the teachers agreed with all statements in this category. The highest mean score belongs to question seven, which indicates that nearly all of the teachers (90%) agree or strongly agree that IWBs can be a good supplement for the language teaching process.

The questions in this section can be categorized into two subcategories:

Questions related to the benefits of IWBs and questions related directly to the opinions of teachers. Q7 and Q8 can be included in the category of teachers' opinions about IWBs and the rest could be mentioned in the category of benefits and drawbacks of IWBs. Of the second group, the results of the third item show that a majority of the teachers responded positively that IWBs make it easier for them to reach different sources and show them to the whole class at the same time.

Regarding the responses related to the ninth question in this section, it can be seen that a majority of the teachers believe that IWBs enable them to review, summarize, and reexplain a subject in an easy way. If we look at the results of the fourth question, we see that 73% of the teachers agreed that IWBs are useful for saving and printing out their students' work. Nearly two thirds of the teachers believe that they can give explanations more effectively by using IWBs. The results of the first question reveal that 78% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that using IWB-based resources reduces time spent in writing on the board during the lessons. Looking at the responses given for the sixth question, 72% of the teachers agreed that they could easily control the whole class from the front of the class.

For the second question, which has the lowest mean score in this category, 59% of the teachers disagreed with the idea that preparing for IWB-based lessons takes more time than for a regular lesson. This may indicate that these teachers use special software programs designed for certain textbooks because these programs provide a lot of different activities, exercises, and tests for the teachers, which eases the teachers' job in preparing extra materials. On the other hand, the results also reveal that 32% of the teachers agree with this idea, which suggests that these teachers try to prepare their materials by themselves, so they have to look for special materials and create appropriate materials for IWBs.

In terms of the results of the two questions related to teachers' opinions, nearly two thirds of the teachers agreed with the notion that using IWBs makes them more efficient teachers in the classroom. It is also seen that 90% of the respondents believe that IWBs can be used for supplementing the lessons, resulting in the highest mean score for any question.

Taking the open-ended responses into consideration, three teachers stated that using IWBs saves time for the teacher. Two teachers also reported their feelings that IWB-based lessons are more interesting for the students and therefore the teacher can teach more effectively. In the words of one of these teachers:

I think this technology is a great opportunity for the students and the teachers because my lessons become more interesting by using IWBs and I can include a great variety of sources (Teacher 7).

On the other hand, one teacher complained that the IWB software that was designed for the course book does not contain anything different from the units of the textbook, so he suggested generally that these supplementary materials should be improved.

Section 2: Teachers' General Attitudes toward the Use of IWBs

These seven questions aimed to investigate teachers' general attitudes towards the use of IWBs. The questions can be divided into subcategories of positive attitudes/feelings and negative attitudes/feelings. Q10 and Q12 may be thought of as positive attitudes because they directly looked at whether the teachers like using this technology and whether they have positive attitudes towards it. On the other hand, Q11, Q13, Q14, and Q16 can be considered as negative attitudes since they explored the negative feelings of the teachers while using IWBs, their negative attitudes towards this technology, their concerns about their students' readiness to use this technology, and doubts about their own readiness to use IWBs. Q15 is directly related to the preference of a traditional way of teaching over IWB technology, so it can be included in the negative category as well.

Q10: I like using IWB technology in my lessons.

Q11: I feel uncomfortable using IWBs in front of my students.

Q12: I have positive attitudes towards the use of IWBs in language instruction.

Q13: I have negative attitudes towards the use of IWBs in language instruction.

Q14: I do not think my students are ready for this technology.

Q15: What I do in class with traditional methods is sufficient for teaching English.

Q16: I am not the type to do well with IWB-based applications.

In terms of mean scores calculated, the teachers strongly agreed with questions ten and twelve, whereas they disagreed or strongly disagreed with the rest of the questions in this category. As is seen in Table 11, these remaining questions were actually expressing negative opinions, so the teachers' disagreement with them shows an overall positive attitude, and thus a consistency among the participants' responses is evident.

The results show that the majority of the teachers agreed that they like using IWBs in their lessons, and that they have positive attitudes towards them. Supporting this finding, only 6% of the teachers responded that they have negative attitudes.

There is a more mixed response when it comes to the question of whether there is a need for IWBs. Although 61% disagree that their traditional methods are sufficient to teach English, 25% agreed with this statement, which indicates that some teachers do not see the necessity of introducing this new technology into the teaching process. By disagreeing with question 11, the majority of teachers made it clear that using IWBs does not make them uncomfortable in front of their students, and most teachers (72 of the 82 surveyed) were confident that they themselves were suited to using this new technology.

Finally, in terms of what the teachers' attitudes towards their students' readiness for IWB use, more than two thirds of the teachers (79%) agreed that their students are 'ready' for this kind of technology.

Section 3: Teachers' Attitudes in terms of Motivational Issues

The questions in this section intended to investigate teachers' attitudes in terms of motivational issues. This section consisted of four questions in total. The questions aimed to gather information about teachers' opinions whether they think that using of IWBs makes lessons more enjoyable and interesting, helps keep the students' attention longer, and increases interaction, motivation, and participation of the students during the lessons.

Q17: I think IWBs make learning more enjoyable and more interesting.

Q20: I can keep my students' attention longer with the help of IWB technology.

Q21: I think IWBs increase the interaction and participation of the students.

Q22: I think my students are more motivated when I use an IWB in my lessons.

The mean scores and low standard deviations calculated show that the teachers agreed or strongly agreed with all the statements in this category. The mean score of question seventeen is the highest ($M=3.46$), which indicates that nearly all of the teachers (almost 88%) agreed that IWBs make lessons more enjoyable and interesting. Nearly 80% of the participating teachers agreed that the use of IWBs increases the interaction and participation of the students, and nearly two thirds of the teachers believe that their students are more motivated when an IWB is used in the classroom.

The responses given for the 22nd question in this category show that 78% of the EFL teachers agreed that they can keep their students' attention longer when they use IWBs during the lessons.

Two of the participants wrote in positive extra comments, stating that IWBs attract the students' attention and increase student participation.

On the other hand, two other teachers observed that when the classroom lights are dimmed, some of the students lose attention: When the classroom is a bit dark, my students start to sleep and lose their concentration. I think only the curtains near the IWB should be closed and the back of the classroom might get light from outside so that students do not tend to sleep (Teacher 19).

In order to avoid loss of attention when the lights are dimmed, the curtains at the back of the classroom can be opened or the lights could be switched on at the back of the classroom so that darkness of the classroom does not affect the students negatively.

Section 4: Teachers' Attitudes Related to the Issue of Training

The last category of the teacher's questionnaire contained two questions addressing the specific issue of training for the use of IWBs: whether it is necessary and whether without it, they still feel comfortable using IWBs (see Table 12).

Q18: I believe that training is required to teach with IWB technology.

Q19: If I do not get sufficient training, I do not feel comfortable with using IWBs in the classroom.

The mean scores reveal that the teachers believe in the need for training, but are much more divided over whether such training is absolutely necessary in order for them to feel comfortable using IWBs.

According to the responses given for the 18th question, 63% of the participants agreed that training is necessary for the use of this technology. For question 19 however, there is a more mixed response. Although 34% of the EFL teachers report that they feel comfortable without any training while using an IWB, 51% of the respondents agreed that they do feel uncomfortable, if they do not get sufficient training.

Since the agreement score is higher than the disagreement rate, it can be said that the need for training is accepted as an important issue.

One of the teachers made the point that teachers themselves have a role to play in getting ready to use IWBs:

I agreed with the training requirement, but this is a skill that teachers must develop themselves, make time to explore this technology and it's potential. If they do not make time, they will not use it effectively (Teacher 16).

This opinion indicates that it is the teachers' responsibility in part to learn to use this technology, but the administrators should also encourage teachers and plan training sessions for them. The comment may suggest that if a teacher does not have positive attitudes towards this technology or believe in its benefits, it might be difficult for him/her to become accustomed to using it.

Section 5: Factors Affecting Teacher Attitudes towards IWB Use

In this section, one-way ANOVA tests were performed to explore the relation between teacher attitudes and different variables such as age, experience, and hours of IWB use. The researcher wanted to check whether hours of IWB use, age differences, and experience of teachers can be connected to positive attitudes or negative attitudes. Correlations were sought between hours of IWB use, age, and experience variables and questions 10 (I like using IWB technology in my lessons), Q12 (I have positive attitudes towards the use of IWBs in language instruction), Q13 (I have negative attitudes towards the use of IWBs in language instruction), and Q15 (What I do in class with traditional methods is sufficient in teaching English). After ANOVA tests were performed, none of the relations were found to be significant except for that between hours of IWB use and liking the use of IWB technology.

The result in Table 13 shows that there is a significant relationship between the hours of the teachers' IWB use and the degree of liking the use of IWBs. Specifically, post hoc tests reveal a significant difference between the group with the lowest exposure (1-2 hours) and the group with the highest exposure (11+ hours).

In general, what this suggests is that as the number of hours of using IWBs increases, teachers' rating of how much they like using this technology increases as well. This is an important finding because as the teachers explore this technology day by day, its potential and difference from traditional whiteboards are seen by the teachers and they want to use it more often. It is also related to the feedback coming from the students because when the teachers hear positive feedback, they want to use this technology more enthusiastically, as one of the administrators noted in the interview.

CONCLUSION

The results in this study revealed that a majority of the students agreed that when audio and visual materials are used with IWBs, they can understand lessons better and feel that they learn more.

Regarding the teachers' responses related to teaching, the teachers strongly agreed that IWBs are a good supplement for teaching and that IWBs make it easier to show different kinds of materials to the class. In Levy (2002) and Lee and Boyle (2004), the teachers reported that IWBs make it easier to draw on a greater number and wider variety of information and learning sources and these sources can be used flexibly and spontaneously in response to different

pedagogical needs. The findings in the current study agree with this notion that it is easier to reach different sources with IWBs and that the whole class can benefit from these sources at the same time.

Teachers in the current study also strongly agreed with the idea that the use of IWBs makes it possible to review, re-explain, and summarize a topic easily and effectively, since the saved or ready examples from the previous lessons and a great variety of other sources make it easier for the teacher to re-present the subject. This is similar to points raised in earlier studies. Most of the students in Glover and Miller's (2001) study, for example, reported that with the help of IWBs, their teachers were able to review things if they needed to study them again. More than two thirds of the teachers in that study also agreed with the idea that the opportunity to save and print out the students' work and other materials is a very useful facility of IWBs, and is in fact a feature unique to IWBs, a point noted in both Walker (2002) and Lee and Boyle (2004).

The only statement in this category that the teachers disagreed with was one suggesting that preparation of IWB-based lessons takes more time than for a regular lesson. This finding contradicts with a participant's comment in Glover and Miller's (2001) study that IWBs require earlier and better preparation from teachers. Levy's (2002) study also revealed that most of the teachers felt that initial lesson planning and materials preparation such as nice flipcharts take a long time to prepare.

According to the findings in Moss et al. (2007), teachers reported preparing their own resources 78% of the time, and 42% of the time using commercial software. Although the findings in that study indicate that the teachers mostly spend a long time to prepare their own materials, this study may indicate that Iranian EFL teachers are either using commercial software or are finding prepared IWB materials on the Internet since they report that it is not time consuming to prepare IWB-based materials. Although in the observations I conducted, there were not any teachers who used a software program, but the researcher knows that some teachers use software programs specially designed for certain course books, such as Face2Face. Since the number of observations is limited to three, it was not possible to verify the use of software programs in English classes.

The results of this study suggest that simply providing IWBs in some or all classrooms does not guarantee their use in language instruction as it was found out during the research. The students in the institutions where there is only one IWB equipped classroom complain that they have experienced this technology only once or twice a semester.

This lack of exposure may come from concrete problems such as lack of time or inability to schedule access to the IWB classroom, or it may come from the teachers' unwillingness to try this new technology and therefore reluctance to bring his/her students to the IWB classroom. In especially crowded schools with one IWB classroom, it will be very difficult to schedule who will use it when. The solution to this problem can be installing IWBs into more classrooms or administrators' planning equal schedules to make it possible for every class to benefit from this technology. In addition, teachers may not only face some first-order barriers such as lack of equipment and time, but also second-order barriers such as lack of confidence (Lane, Ross and Woods, 1999).

Through professional guidance and assistance, these second-order barriers can be overcome and teachers may feel more confident and eager to benefit from this technology. Thus, administrators should arrange focus meetings with experienced teachers in using IWBs, establish a kind of sharing network among teachers in terms of materials, resources, and advice on IWB use, and encourage teachers to exploit this technology on their own with the help of experienced colleagues.

Another important and related issue is the need for training. As Hall and Higgins (2005) stated in their study, training sessions should be regular and should be viewed as a continuous process so that teachers can improve their ICT skills in order to use IWBs efficiently. This issue is also mentioned in Smith et al. (2005), where they note that in order to use IWBs to their full potential, there is a need for adequate training because inexperienced manipulations of IWB features decrease the value of this technology. Additional coaching personnel and time could be beneficial on a one to one basis and administrators can arrange training sessions that could be helpful for teachers to overcome their barriers and be more confident in using IWB technology. However, my research findings indicate that more than one third of the teachers responded that they can teach with IWBs without special training.

This may show that the teachers who are interested and good at ICT skills can easily adapt themselves to IWB technology. Therefore, training could be provided by administrators according to the individuals' technological

knowledge, experience, and their individual needs to exploit this technology in education. Since most of the teachers in this study agreed that IWB technology is a good supplement for teaching, and both students and teachers have positive attitudes towards this technology, it can be argued that IWBs should be involved in the teaching process as much as possible. Although it depends on the institutions' budgets, once the decision is made to use IWBs, ideally it is advisable to install them in every classroom so that students do not have to change classrooms for IWB-based lessons. If this is not financially possible, there can be at least two or three classrooms that are equipped with IWBs.

In this case, it should be ensured that students be able to find the opportunity to go to those classrooms as much as possible. Students in this study complained that they can only rarely go to the "smart class", which prevents them from experiencing and benefiting from this technology. It should also be reminded that some publishers prepare IWB-based materials and there are a wide variety of free resources on the Internet suitable for IWB use.

Teachers and administrators may wish to contact the publishers for IWB-based materials, on the condition that they choose certain course books whose materials are ready for IWB use, or search the Internet to find extra materials. On a cautionary note, since in most cases a committee, not individual teachers, decides on the books to be used in an institution, a teacher who wants to use this technology with readymade materials may not find this opportunity. Another potential problem with using ready-made materials is that not many books are prepared with software programs, which would limit the teachers' choice if they want to benefit from these software programs. If they find the opportunity to choose course books provided with IWB software programs, teachers may get help in the exhausting process of preparing extra materials for the class and save time by using these materials.

As a last point, educators and administrators should not simply rush to buy IWBs before purchasing one. They should search for and be informed about the different features of each IWB. Although most IWBs share similar features, some of them have distinctive functions and allow more interactive opportunities during the lessons, a particularly important aspect for language teaching. After the comparison of different trademarks, the cost of this technology should also be considered. If more classrooms are intended to be equipped with IWBs, low cost IWBs could be appropriate, whereas if this technology is going to be installed in just a few classrooms, more functionally active IWBs can be chosen. It should also be noted that the size of the IWBs is also important, for instance, in large classrooms, bigger sizes would be more appropriate.

In this study, thirteen educational institutions were surveyed, ranging from primary schools to universities. Although there are several more institutions currently using IWB technology in Iran, Andimeshk, time, travel constraints, and willingness to take part in this study reduced the number of institutions involved. In addition, in some institutions, there were IWBs, but they had not been installed yet, so those institutions were not included in this study.

In one of the institutions surveyed, IWBs have been used for more than four years, but the rest of the institutions have been using this technology for only one year on average. This meant that in some cases students and teachers were basing their opinions on only limited exposure – a fact which no doubt led to the high "no idea" response rate for some questions. It should also be taken into consideration that in many institutions in Iran, Andimeshk, IWBs are used more in subject classes such as math, science, and geography. Restricting the study to institutions in which IWBs are used in language classrooms also meant that the number of institutions included in this study is far fewer than the total number of institutions currently using IWBs. Apart from one private primary school and one high school surveyed, all the institutions in this study have this technology installed in just one or two classrooms. This limited accessibility again may have negatively influenced the extent to which IWBs are used since teachers find it difficult to share the same classroom among them. As noted above, this also meant that students and teachers in many cases did not have a great deal of exposure to lessons with IWBs, and at times could not comment on this technology appropriately. If all the participants in this study had had more experience with IWBs, they might have agreed or disagreed with the statements more easily.

The number of lessons observed in different institutions to see the actual use of IWBs in English classes was also limited. Again, time and travel constraints did not make it possible to include more observations in this study. In addition, some institutions did not consent to having their teachers observed during the lessons and did not allow video recording. Similarly, the study is limited by the few interviews with administrators, but time constraints did not allow for more.

This study investigated the attitudes of students, administrators, and teachers towards the use of IWBs, factors affecting their attitudes, and the ways that EFL teachers use IWBs. Although this study includes some qualitative data, more classroom observations can be carried out to investigate to what extent teachers' benefit from the potential of this technology as claimed in the literature. Such a study, if conducted in a longitudinal manner, could attempt to confirm the finding in this study that greater use correlates to more positive attitudes.

As one administrator in this study pointed out, IWBs may help improve classroom interaction because the teachers do not need to turn their backs on the class. Given the importance of interaction in language learning settings, it could be the particular focus of a classroom-based research study to look at whether or how IWB use contributes to classroom interaction specifically.

The effectiveness of this technology in language instruction settings should also be examined. Although IWBs are claimed to have an impact on learning in the short term, this has not yet been confirmed. It should be checked and seen what are exactly the real contributions of this technology through experimental studies in language learning settings. If not much contribution to learning is found, investment in this technology could be questioned and investors might rethink before purchasing this expensive technology.

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**HOW 'NAMING' REPRESENTS WOMEN AND MEN IN BOZORG ALAVI'S SHORT STORIES: A
CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS**

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ABSTRACT

This study tries to investigate men and women's social statuses through critical discourse analysis in Bozorg Alavi's (1381,1385/2002,2006) short stories. To this end, four short stories were selected and all the 'names' used by men and women about each other were taken and analyzed based on Hodge and Kress's (1996) "naming" model. The results of this study show that men have higher status than women in these stories and they have negative attitudes towards women while women have less power, think positively about men.

KEYWORDS: critical discourse analysis; language ideology; social status; attitudes

INTRODUCTION

Discourse analysis (DA) is a general term for a number of approaches which analyzes written, spoken, signed language use or any significant semiotic event.

The objects of discourse analysis are variously defined in terms of coherent sequences of sentences, propositions, speech acts or turns-at-talk. Contrary to much of traditional linguistics, discourse analysts not only study language use 'beyond the sentence boundary', but also prefer to analyze 'naturally occurring' language use, and not invented examples. Discourse analysis has been taken up in a variety of social science disciplines, including linguistics, sociology, anthropology, social work, cognitive psychology, social psychology, international relations, human geography, communication studies and translation studies, each of which is subject to its own assumptions, dimensions of analysis, and methodologies.

Yarmohammadi (1385) notes:

In discourse analysis, the relation between discursive structures and social ideologies governing the production of discourse is studied and described. The discursive structures are linguistic, historical, and sociological elements that reflect particular social ideologies. (p.38)

Discourse analysis has two approaches: descriptive and critical approach. Critical discourse analysis (CDA) as its name suggests, is analyzing discourse critically.

Yarmohammadi (1383:4) defines critical discourse analysis as "a kind of discourse analysis which studies the unlawful use of power, dominance and inequality that happen in a social and political context through speech and writing".

Fairclough (1993: 135) in his definition perceives CDA as:

discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practice, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony.

Van Dijk (1998) argues:

Critical discourse analysis is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context; with such dissident expose and ultimately to resist social inequality. (p.45)

The importance of ideology is often emphasized in CDA. Agha Golzadeh (2007) notes that in critical linguistics, the purpose of analysis is not to discover complicated and unusual meanings in the text, but to clear the process of articulation and perception, which enables the analysts to observe the work of ideology in the language and introduce it to others.

Hodge and Kress (1996) state that the reality expressed through language is not something like the original reality perceived by the speaker or writer. They believe that we perceive whatever we expect from the world. Boutain

(1999: 7) believes that “a pragmatic view of language and a critical study of discourse join the study of language to the study of society”. Thus, it can be claimed that our perception of the reality is socially constructed by language.

Dellinger (1995:3) believes:

“the mode in which an action is presented, either as transactive or nontransactive, is not a matter of truth or reality but rather a matter of the way in which that particular action is integrated into the ideological system of the speaker, and the manner in which such an action is therefore articulated in a specific discourse”

Thus, socially constructed reality may be quite different from the reality itself depending on how the speaker or writer perceives and represents it. Hodge and Kress (1996) consider this perception as ideology. Therefore, the words used by the speaker are by no means accidental, since he chooses them out of several different options available in the language. In this sense that language can be considered as ideology (Hodge and Kress, 1996)

Many researchers have studied different areas based on critical discourse analysis. In politics, we can mention Deghat (2008), Horvath (2009), Benoit and Henson (2009), Easter (2008). They all have studied the speeches of American presidents and shown the strategies used in their speeches based on critical discourse analysis. Mohasel Bashough (2003), Davatgarzadeh (2007), Asgharzadeh (2009), Amalsaleh (2004), Brantmier (2003), and Otlowski (2003) have done critical studies on language learning textbooks. In all these studies the main objective is to find out how the representations, used in the texts construct certain social and normative realities, such as subjectivity and identity.

Ideology is all the time emphasized in journalism. The ways ideologies are represented or even hidden are studied in most of the studies on journalism. Khosravi Nik (2000), Yarmohammadi and Rashidi (2003), Hawes et al. (1996), Li (2010), and Galasiski and Marley (1997) have tried to show the relations between choices of certain linguistic forms and the ideologies and power relations which underlie such forms.

Studies on literal texts are mostly done on stories. In these stories gender, age, and class are of great importance. One example of age consideration is that of Foziyeh's (2004). It shows how certain discursive features manipulated the representation of certain ideologies in children's and adults' stories. Norouzi (2006), Smith (2002), and Hobson's (2003) studies are examples of gender consideration. It seems that most of the studies related to gender have feministic color. The studies attempt to prove women's bad condition and their lack of support from the society. Finally, as an example for class consideration, we can mention Collins' (1999) study. He critically reviews Huspek's work and suggests ways in which, through critique, we might further the project of an emancipatory linguistics.

The current research investigates the relation between names used by men and women and the underlying ideologies in four short stories of Bozorg Alavi, based on Hodge and Kress's “naming” model. No research has been done on women characters vs. men characters based on this model and this study is the first to compare women and men's statuses and their attitudes towards each other.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this paper, an attempt has been made to analyze four short stories of Bozorg Alavi, the great Iranian author. In fact, the present study aims at studying men and women's use of ‘names’ in Bozorg Alavi's short stories to investigate whether their languages imply their different social status. Based on the objective of the research, there arise the following questions:

- 1- How can the ideologies governing the attitudes of men and women toward each other be shown in Bozorg Alavi's ?ejare xane (house rent), ?ærus-e hezar damad (a bride with one thousand bridegrooms), rosva-ee (disgrace) and yek zan-e xoshbaxt (a lucky woman)?
- 2- Do men and women have the same social status as reflected in their languages in these stories?
- 3- If the answer to the previous question is negative, how this difference can be recognized linguistically?

METHODOLOGY

Corpus

Four short stories by Bozorg Alavi (1381,1385/2002,2006), taken randomly, comprised the corpus of the story. These short stories are ?ejare xane (house rent), ?ærus-e hezar damad (a bride with one thousand bridegrooms), rosva-ee (disgrace) and yek zan-e xoshbaxt (a lucky woman).

Procedure

Each short story is studied for the ‘names’ uttered in the texts. These ‘names’ are analyzed to investigate and compare the status of men and women and their attitudes towards each other.

Theoretical Framework

In the analysis of how the statuses of men and women and their attitudes towards each other are represented, the study has applied Hodge and Kress’s (1996) “naming” model. According to their models, a text can critically be analyzed with respect to the use of the ‘names’. Using and applying certain names for people, objects and events reflect a particular viewpoint with either a positive or negative content. For example in the sentence “I found her love just a lie”, ‘love’ is named as ‘lie’ which reflects the speaker’s negative attitude toward love and which he lost his trust in the lady and her love. In the sentence, “father is the god of the house” father is named ‘the god’, which contains a strong ideological attitude, showing how important the father is and he is considered to be the ultimate power. So naming can show the governing ideologies quite clearly. In addition, the speaker can reduce or increase the effect of something or the importance of somebody. For example when the speaker calls the vast destruction of a city “a light punishment” in the sentence ‘The government considered a light punishment for the people of the city and destroyed it’, he is abating the government’s cruel action and pretending the action to be the result of what people did and in fact sustaining the idea that nothing serious has happened and it was a matter of cause and effect. In the sentence ‘her love was his treasure’ naming the love the treasure, makes the hearer or the reader think that her love is worthy to him or even think that she is very rich and winning her love means reaching her money.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Short story 1: ?ærus-e hezar damad (a bride with one thousand bridegrooms)

This is the story of a violinist who plays violin in a bar to make money. He has been fond of music since he was a teenager. He married a girl called Susæn who was his neighbor and who could sing very well. After some time, their quarrels aroused. The musician was a lover of her songs especially those of her childhood. However, when they got married, she could not sing as before. They did not love each other anymore. Susæn wanted love but the musician wanted her song. Susæn began to make friend with other men. Yet the violinist did not want to reject her. He was hopeful to hear the song he wanted once more. After a few years, they found each other in a bar. Susæn called Suski in the bar as one of the most charming women whom the drunken men danced around. The violinist played violin in the bar to make money. They could not tolerate each other there, yet they do their works regardless of each other.

Once Suski sang and the violinist found his favorite song and started to play. However, she took the violin from the violinist and broke it. All the people left the bar and Suski did too and the violinist was alone with his broken heart.

Ideological background

The author tries to show that the man does not care for the woman, and feels abhorrent about her. The woman tries to make the man love her but she cannot. Not finding the man’s love, the woman does not care for herself any more.

Analysis of the namings

“gonde” (bulky) (p.38, para3)

It is a name given to the woman. This name has a negative connotation and suggests that the man feels disgusting about the heaviness of the woman.

“Suski” (beetle) (p.39, para3)

This name is a nickname given to the woman by the man, which suggests that the woman must be dirty and ugly.

“?ærusæk” (doll) (p.48, para 1)

This name gives the impression that the woman is a device to entertain others and who does not have any power of decision making but rather she is played by others (the men).

“mænhus” (malign) (p.44, para 2)

The man finds her ill-omened, a person who can make his life terrible.

All the examples of naming are used by the man about the woman. This fact shows that the man is in higher position that can name the woman frequently, while the woman is not and as a result cannot name him in a way she likes. Moreover, all the terms used by the man about the woman are negative which show the negative attitudes of the man towards the woman.

Short story 2: ?ejare xane (house rent)

?ejare xane is the description of the misery and poverty of the families that are wandering in the shantytown. Alavi takes the reader to the depth of the society in this story, where the struggle for surviving and continuing a sort of plant-like life can be seen. Seyyed Mosæyyeb lives with his wife Xeironesa and his daughter in a rented room. Zæn Agha, his neighbor insists that his young daughter who has become a teacher recently marry a driver because people say bad things about a mature girl who has not married. Her mother agrees on this marriage but Seyyed Mosæyyeb does not. He does not want his daughter to marry a driver.

The girl likes another man whom she has seen on her way to school. He has smiled at her once and she fantasizes about him. The roof of their room is in a bad condition and it must be repaired. Seyyed Mosæyyeb is worried about the roof but he cannot afford it. One night when they have slept, the roof falls down on the family and kills them.

Ideological background

The discursive sentences in this short story disclose the fact that women have low status in the society in comparison with men. Men do not respect women and insult them easily. They consider all women to be the same and regard them as serious diseases. It seems that men deem women unhappy lives. Yet women think that marriage is very important. They believe that being ingenious and educated is not valuable if a girl is single.

Analysis of the namings

‘zerr o zer’ (nonsense) (p.102, para 2)

This is how the man calls the words of the woman. This shows that the man does not like the woman’s words and finds them nonsense. In addition, it gives a clue that the man does not respect the woman and finds her in such a low status that he dares to insult her.

‘zæn jæma?æt’ (womenfolk) (p.102, para 3)

It is a term to show that the speaker considers all women the same and of course, it is a term, which is associated with the negative attitude of the man toward women since this word has most of the time a negative connotation.

‘mokafat’ (retribution) (p.102, para 2)

The man uses this term for all his problems caused by the woman. This shows that she is considered to be just a source of trouble.

“hezar dærd-e bidærman” (thousands of irremediable diseases) (p.99, para 4)

It is how the speaker (the man) calls his problems to demonstrate their severity and how they bother him. The speaker believes that the girl is also one of those “hezar dærd-e bidærman” and so the man considers the girl as a severe problem in his life.

‘xeir’ (benefit) (P.98, para 2)

Finding a husband for the girl is labeled as “xeir” (benefit) by the woman and this illustrates that having a husband is considered very important to the woman.

“væzæq” (toad) (p.101, para 3)

This is the term used to name the woman. This word shows the bad feeling and image that the man has about the woman.

‘hart-o-purt’ (uproar) (p.102, para 3)

This is used by the woman to call what the man does at home.

There are seven instances of naming among which five are used by men about women and all are negative and two are used by women about men from which one is positive and one negative. Using more examples of namings by men than women demonstrates that men have higher position that can use namings more frequently. In addition, all the examples reveals the negative attitudes of men towards the women.

Short story 3: yek aen-e xoshbæxt (a lucky woman)

It is a story about a woman called ?æqdæs xanom. ?æqdæs xanom reflects the problems of women in the new generation of middle class Iranian family. In Iran’s traditional society, girls are married without their opinions asked about their future husbands while they like to choose their own husbands. But it is clear that parents do not agree easily and as a result there is a struggle between two generations.

?æqdæs’s father’s death gives her a chance to get ride of the old traditions and get married whom she likes. Her husband is a government clerck who is very handsome and generous. They get familiar at work and roam around the city every night. Their friendship is not tolerable for her famliy and they ask her to marry him. ?æqdæs does not know her future husband well enough but she has to marry him because of her family.

At the beginning of their marriage, everything is good and satisfactory but as the days pass by, the quarrel between the couple starts and ?æqdæs understands that ?æmirxan is not a suitable husband for her. She becomes remorseful of not accepting to marry the family’s doctor.

?æmirxan starts to make friend with other women and annoying his wife. However, people and her family see her very lucky because she has chosen her husband herself. It is only the doctor of the family who knows she is suffering. Finally, ?æqdæs commits suicide.

Ideological background

The writer tries to reflect that women find men with positive qualities and wish to marry them but soon they find them even worse than their fathers or brothers (who used to command them at home) and they become so depressed that they wish not to live any more.

Analysis of the namings

“mohre-ha” (chessmen) (p.135, para 1)

This term suggests that women are played in their lives. They can not decide for their lives and have to obey their parents and later their husbands.

“hæssas” (sensitive) (p.142, para 1)

This is how the man names ?æqdæs xanom. In this way the man is hiding the severity of his action.

“yekdænde” (stubborn) (p.142, para 1)

The man believes that the woman does what she likes.

“bozorg” (great) and “færmanræva” (king) (p.153, para 2)

These are the names given to men by the woman to show his importance.

There are five instances of naming among which three are used by men about women and two are used by women about men. The greater numbers of names used by men about women demonstrates their higher position. Besides, all the terms used by men about women are negative and all the terms used by women about men are positive which shows the positive attitudes of women towards men and negative attitudes of men towards women.

Short story 4: rosva-ee (disgrace)

Rosva-ee is about a couple, Mæhlæqa and Mr. Dorostkar. Mæhlæqa's father was a shopkeeper. He became rich in the estate trade. Some tried to reach one of his estates in Mazændæran but he refused to sell it. They hired a person and killed him.

Mæhlæqa, who was very beautiful, married Mr. Dorostkar, a rich famous moral writer. In all his writings, he talked about peace, faith, goodness, friendship, virtue, etc. However, in a party held by rich and noble people in honor of Mr. Dorostkar, Mæhlæqa, bored of her husband and all those admiring him, revealed that what people thought about her husband was completely different from what he actually was. She said that all of people appreciating him were deceived. She uttered that Mr. Dorostkar was a fortuneteller before and he became one of the world's famous writers by telling lies. The party stopped for an hour but soon everything was ok and everybody was dancing. No one took what Mæhlæqa said serious.

At the end of the story, it is known that Mr. Dorostkar was the man who killed Mæhlæqa's father. In this story, Alavi delicately reflects the lives of opulent famous men, those who hide their real personalities beneath their appearances and money.

Ideological background

The story reflects that men are in higher positions than women since they can behave the way they like. No body cares for what women say especially if they are poor. Men hide their personalities beneath lies and deceitfulness.

Analysis of the namings

“mæfluk” (wretched) (p.167, para 1)

This is how Mæhlæqa is called. This name suggests the negative attitude of the man.

“mochale-ye bædbæxt” (a miserable rumple) (p. 167, para 1)

It is another name for the woman, which shows that the woman is considered inferior.

“zænike-ye mozæxræf” (trashy bint) (p.167, para4)

A man in the party calls Mæhlæqa with this name, which reveals the fact that Mæhlæqa does not have a good status among the people since she was poor once.

“?æsbab-e rosva-ee” (means of disgrace) (p.173, para4)

This is how the man calls the woman. He thinks that her being from a low class family causes disgrace for him.

There are four instances of naming, all used by men about the woman while women do not use any name for men. This shows the higher status of men who are so powerful that can call women the way they like. Besides all the terms are negative which shows the negative attitudes of men towards the woman.

In four short stories, there are twenty instances of “naming” among which sixteen are used by men about women and all negative and four are used by women about men from which three are positive and one is negative.

Therefore, most of the examples of naming are used by men. This shows the higher status of men who can name women frequently. Fewer examples of naming are used by women about men which demonstrates the lower positions of women. Besides, we can conclude that men have negative attitudes towards women while women have negative attitudes towards men. This is shown figuratively below:

Table 1: Frequency of the occurrences of “naming”

Naming 20	Men 16	Positive 0
		Negative 16
	Women 4	Positive 3
		Negative 1

This research can be compared with other related studies in CDA. Khosravi Nik (2000) has used Hodge and Kress's framework to show that the editors of the newspapers use the language to hide the realities and reflect the pre-planned purposes while in this research, Hodge and Kress's syntagmatic models were used to show that the use of language was to convey realities rather than concealing the facts.

Norouzi (2006) has studied the status of women in the novel 'Ræqsændegan' (Dancers). To this end, she has used Van Leeuwen's framework and shown that women are the subordinate members of the society whom men do not value. The present study using a different framework, i.e. that of Hodge and Kress, has come to the same conclusion. In both studies, the texts are taken from stories, looking for facts existing in the society and reflected in the stories through language. Getting the same conclusion by different frameworks, can be a confirmation of the achieved results in both studies.

Ghanbari (2004) has analyzed and compared the discursive features in juveniles' and adults' short stories to find how and to what extent, writers use these features and conceal their ideas. She has used Van Leeuwen's framework and come to the point that discursive features in literature are not used to conceal the reality, but to reveal and emphasize it. Thus, the findings of her study is similar to this study and that of Norouzi in that it helps to show the realities reflected in the stories. The three studies can confirm the fact that language used in literature often reflects realities. This confirms the fact that genre is effective in language representation. In literature, it seems that, language is used to reveal realities, while in politics it is used to hide realities. Besides Khosravi Nik, Yarmohammadi and Rashidi (2003) have shown this fact too. Using Hodge and Kress's framework, they have shown that there exists concealment in the texts of political groups.

CONCLUSION

By studying the analyses these short stories, it is possible to answer the research questions.

1. How can the ideologies governing the attitudes of men and women toward each other be shown in these short stories?

The ideologies governing the attitudes of men and women reflected in their languages can be shown through analysing their languages within certain linguistic framework such as that used in this paper (Hodge and Kress's 'naming' model); each name can lead to the interpretation of the language use and its relation to the governing ideologies. For example, naming of a man "the god of the house" by a woman illustrates the positive attitude of the woman towards the man or when a man calls a woman "mænhus", it shows that the man is thinking negatively about the woman.

2- Do men and women have the same social status as reflected in their languages in these stories?

No, they do not. After the languages of men and women were studied in four stories of Bozorg Alavi based on Hodge and Kress's 'naming' model, it was revealed that men and women have different social status. The way that this difference can be understood is explained with regard to the answer to question 3 below.

3- If the answer to the previous question is negative, how this difference can be recognized linguistically?

When men use more names for women than women do for men, this shows that men are so powerful and so higher in status that they can name women frequently. Therefore, 'naming' leads to understanding of the status of men and women.

As a piece of research the present study has some limitations including the fact that it might be possible that if another analytic framework is employed in the analysis, different results and findings might be obtained.

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A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF MODAL AUXILIARIES IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH ON THE BASIS OF AN IDEALIZED COGNITIVE MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this paper is to provide a contrastive analysis of modal auxiliaries in Persian and English in the light of a cognitive linguistic perspective. In this way, firstly, according to morpho-syntactic criteria, Persian modals are newly classified and the auxiliaries that fall in the category of modal auxiliaries are determined. In the new classification, in addition to TAVĀN¹, ŠOD-AN² and BĀYAD³, the auxiliary XĀH⁴ is added to the group and ŠĀYAD⁵ is excluded from the list because it doesn't have any characteristics of the auxiliaries and behaves like an adverbial modal. Then, with respect to a two-dimensional framework, in which the modals are classified according to the degree and the kind of modality, the semantic functions of modal auxiliaries were investigated and the modals were compared with their English counterparts. Finally, on the basis of an idealized cognitive model called the epistemic model, modal auxiliaries are conceptualized in a cognitive framework and their relative position on the TIME line is determined and it is revealed that in Persian, like English, modality and tense are of the same substance.

KEYWORDS: Contrastive analysis, Modal auxiliaries, Cognitive framework, Persian, English

INTRODUCTION

Even though some linguists, including Evans and Green (2006:625) equal mood and modality, Palmer (1979: 104) considers them as bearing different notions. He believes mood and modality are of different but interconnected natures. In other words, mood views a structure from syntactic perspective but modality sees the matter from a semantic point of view.

In this paper, we are going to compare the English and Persian modal auxiliaries that bear the notion of modality within a cognitive linguistic framework. Cognitive Linguistics is a relatively modern school of linguistic thought that mainly interprets the language in terms of the concepts which underlie form. In cognitive school, special attention has been paid to semantics and syntax, as two predominant interconnected sub-branches of Linguistics. Among the concepts that highly can reveal the structured interconnection between syntax and semantics are mood and modality; so, it is quite plausible to investigate these notions from cognitive perspective. Here, we narrow down our concern and bring under consideration the function of Persian modal auxiliaries in comparison with their counterparts in English.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A lot of number of Persian grammars has been written in traditional and modern frameworks by European and Iranian scholars among them one can mention Lambton (1953) and Geevi and Anvari (1991). However, as far as verb phrase structure and specially modality is concerned no substantial investigation has been done in Persian. Here, we introduce two most related works done on this topic in recent years.

Taleghani (2008) in her book 'Modality, Aspect and Negation in Persian' investigates in some detail the syntactic and to a lesser extent the semantic aspects of modality, aspect and negation in Persian within a minimalist framework. There, she dedicates two main chapters of the book to mood and modality. In these chapters, she investigates these concepts from morpho-syntactic and semantic points of view and divides the modals into different categories. Finally, she brings into consideration the interaction of modals with other operators such as negation as a

¹. A Persian modal auxiliary which equals 'may' and 'can'.

². A Persian modal auxiliary which equals 'can' and 'may'

³. A Persian modal auxiliary which equals 'must' and 'should'

⁴. A Persian modal auxiliary which equals 'to be allowed' and 'will'

⁵. A Persian adverbial modal which equals 'perhaps'

topic worth careful investigation, since she believes the structural position of modals is determined with respect to clausal negation in many languages including Persian.

Rahimian (1995) in his Ph D thesis, in a contrastive study between Farsi and English, investigates verb phrases, noun phrases and clause types in Farsi; then he compares the clause types of Persian with those of English. There, he pays a lot of attention to Persian auxiliaries and divides them into central (primary) and modal auxiliaries. He investigates different properties of modals and finally classifies the modals semantically into different categories.

Theoretical Framework

Our main concern in this paper is to investigate modality in Farsi on the basis of a cognitive approach and in comparison with English modals. Palmer (1990) in his thorough and influential study describes modal auxiliaries within a two-dimensional framework. On one dimension he distinguishes the kind of modality and on the other one; he distinguishes the degree of modality. Here, we try to apply this framework on modal auxiliaries in Persian. Then, in order to provide a semantic account of modal auxiliaries, we invoke an idealized cognitive model (ICM) proposed by Langacker (1991). In this model, which he calls the epistemic model, the concepts such as tense and modality are conceptualized and it is revealed that these notions are of the same substance.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The main questions that will be addressed in this paper are as follows:

- Which Persian auxiliaries fall in the category of modal auxiliaries?
- What are the English equivalents of these modal auxiliaries in different contexts?
- How the modal auxiliaries are classified according to morpho-syntactic and semantic criteria?
- How these modal auxiliaries can be conceptualized within a cognitive frame work?

METHODOLOGY

As it has been mentioned already, our main concern in the course of this study is to provide a contrastive analysis of modal auxiliaries in Persian and English within a cognitive framework. The data analysis method in this paper is descriptive-analytic and on the basis of cognitive linguistics which has been explained in the section of theoretical framework.

Instrument and materials of the study

In this study, we confined ourselves to standard Persian and Tehrani dialect used in Iran's mass media. The materials have mainly been taken from certain TV news programs which have been saved by the use of a flash recorder. A few materials that could not be obtained from selected materials, have been made up by the authors, checked with native speakers and put in hypothetical contexts.

Data collection procedure

The data used in this paper are collected on the basis of stratified random sampling method. Based on this method, Certain news programs broadcasted by channel one of Iran's public TV within a period of one month, from November 22 to 21 December 2014 (month of Azar 1392), were selected and saved with a flash recorder. The saved programs were analyzed and the statements that contain modal auxiliaries were gathered and according to their type of modal auxiliary were categorized into four distinct groups: TAVĀN, XĀH, ŠOD-AN, BĀYAD. Then, some examples from each group were selected quite randomly and introduced in following subsections.

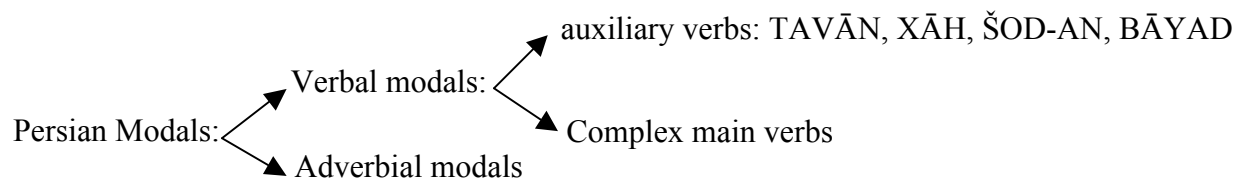
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, different categories that bear the notion of modality in Persian are introduced and classified on the basis of morpho-syntactic principles. Then, from a semantic point of view and with respect to the framework proposed by Palmer (1990) the modal auxiliaries will be categorized and compared with those of English. Finally, regarding the Langacker's epistemic model and the works done on English modals, we try to conceptualize the Persian auxiliaries within a cognitive framework.

Morpho-syntactic classification of Persian modal auxiliaries

Even though our basic concern in this paper is on modal auxiliary verbs, in order to have a broad view on the structure and function of modals, we introduce and classify all the elements that bear the concept of modality in Persian clause structures. In Persian, this concept is expressed by parts of speech such as verbs and adverbs.

(Taleghani 2008, Mahutian 1999, Khanlari 1994) 'šāyad' (perhaps), 'motmaenan' (certainly), 'ehtemalan' (probably) are among the adverbial modals. Verbal modals are divided into auxiliary verbs and complex main verbs. Among the main complex verbs, one can mention: 'ehtemal dāštan' (to be likely), 'ejaze dāštan' (to be allowed), 'majbur budan' (to be compelled).



In Persian, the concept of modal auxiliary is that of a highly grammaticalized verb functioning as dependent of the main verb. In ancient form of Persian, they have had the features of main verbs but in modern Persian they have lost the main verb features and become dependent of the main verbs. (Rahimian1995) If we take the features such as inflection for tense and agreement and taking negative marker, as the basic characteristics of main verbs, TAVĀN is the most similar Persian modal auxiliary to Persian main verbs because it is inflected for agreement and also takes the negative marker 'na-'. In some contexts the past form of TAVĀN may also have modal reading:

1sg. ⁶ . pres. ⁷ : (na)mi-TAVĀN-am	1plr. ⁸ .pres.: (na)mi-TAVĀN-im
2sg. Pres.: (na)mi-TAVĀN-i	2plr. pres.: (na)mi-TAVĀN-id
3sg. pres.: (na)mi-TAVĀN-ad	3plr. pres.: (na)mi-TAVĀN-and

1sg. past: (na)mi-TAVĀN-est-am	1plr.past: (na)mi-TAVĀN-est-im
2sg. past: (na)mi-TAVĀN-est-i	2plr.past: (na)mi-TAVĀN-est-id
3sg. past: (na)mi-TAVĀN-est-ø	3plr.past: (na)mi-TAVĀN-est-and

XĀH is also inflected for number and takes negative marker 'na-' but this modal has no inflected past form:

1sg. pres.: (na) XĀH-am	1plr. pres.: (na)XĀH-im
2sg. Pres.: (na) XĀH-i	2plr. pres.: (na) XĀH-id
3sg. pres.: (na) XĀH-ad	3plr. pres.: (na) XĀH-and

Modal ŠOD-AN takes negative marker 'na-' but it is just inflected for third person singular and has a fixed form in different contexts:

3sg. pres.: (na)mi-ŠAV-ad	3sg. past: (na)mi-ŠOD-ø
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Compared to other modal auxiliaries, BĀYAD is more distant from main verbs because it takes just the negative marker 'na-' and doesn't have any inflected form:(na-)BĀYAD

Many linguists such as Taleghani (2008) considers ŠĀYAD as a modal auxiliary, but it should be noted that it doesn't have any characteristics of Persian verbs, i.e. it is not inflected at all and has no negative form; so, in our classification, it is considered as an adverbial modal.

Semantic classification of Persian modal auxiliaries

Papafragou (1998:11), following Kratzer (1991), believes the semantic content of modals consists of two components: a logical relation (R) and a domain (D) of propositions. What the modal does is to convey that a certain proposition (P) bears a certain logical relation to the set of propositions in some propositional domain. It is illustrated as: R (D,P).

Palmer (1990) in his influential study describes the semantic properties of modal auxiliaries within a two-dimensional framework. On one dimension, he introduces epistemic, deontic and dynamic readings as three kinds of modality.(It should be noted that in his later works, he revises the kinds of modality as epistemic and root, then divides the root modals into deontic and dynamic readings.) (Palmer 2001:8) Epistemic modality indicates

⁶. singular

⁷. present

⁸. plural

possibility, inferred certainty and judgments about the truth of the proposition. (Palmer 1990:5) In deontic modality, the conditioning factors are external to the individual denoted by the subject whereas dynamic modality relates to the ability or willingness originating from the individual concerned. (Palmer 2001:9) On the other dimension, he distinguishes the degree of modality as possibility and necessity.

By combining these parameters, six different forms of modality are obtained:

A. Epistemic possibility: This notion is marked in English by modal 'may'. Here the modal verb makes a judgment about the possibility of a situation:

[1] Ali may be a good player.

Palmer (1990) believes that 'might' is almost the same as 'may' but indicating a slightly lower degree of likelihood.

B. Epistemic necessity: The speaker uses epistemic 'must' where s/he wants to express the only possible conclusion that s/he draws from a certain situation:

[2] Ali must be an intelligent student.

C. Deontic possibility: It is used to give permission or to make the action possible. 'May' and 'can' are the relevant modals for this kind of modality. The difference between the two modals is that 'may' is more formal than 'can'.

[3] You may/can smoke in the hall.

D. Deontic necessity: It usually implies that the speaker is in a position to impose the obligation and is thus in a position of some authority:

[4] You must be present in class before 8.

E. Dynamic possibility: Here, both circumstantial and subject-oriented uses are relevant with dynamic possibility. 'Can' is the only modal which can express this notion:

[5] You can buy anything in this market.

In the above example, subject 'you' is impersonal, therefore it can be expressed by passive voice.

It is worth noting that dynamic 'can' may also refer to the ability of the subject, as in:

[6] Ali can play piano well.

F. Dynamic necessity: Both circumstantial and subject-oriented realizations of dynamic necessity are expressed by 'must':

[7] To buy a car nowadays, you must pay a lot of money.

[8] To pass the math exam, I must study hard.

In [7], the subject 'you' is impersonal, therefore the sentence expresses a circumstantial situation. [8] indicates a subject-oriented use of dynamic modality because the obligation is opposed on the subject by him/herself.

Regarding the above discussion, now we turn to Persian modal auxiliaries to see how the concept of modality is expressed by these auxiliaries.

TAVĀN

TAVĀN expresses the possibility and permission notions with epistemic, deontic and dynamic readings but it has a narrow application and is usually used in formal situations. Comparatively, it equals the English modal 'may (might)' and to some extent 'can'.

Epistemic TAVĀN

Even though Rahimian (1995:105) and Taleghani (2008:24) believe TAVĀN has no epistemic reading, by listening to the conversations of Persian speakers, we can find instances of this usage:

[9] Per: man kelid-e otaq-am ro gom kard-am; un *mi-tun-e* har ja-I oftad-e ø-bāš-e.

I key-LINK⁹ room-I OBJ¹⁰.MARKER lose NIN¹¹-do.PS¹²-I; it IMPF¹³-may.NPS¹⁴-

⁹. subordinator e

¹⁰. object

¹¹. Non-indicative marker

¹². Past stem

¹³. Imperfective marker

3sg every place-INDF¹⁵ fall-PTCPL¹⁶ NIN-become.NPS-3sg

Eng: I have lost the key of my room; it may be fallen anywhere.

Deontic TAVĀN

In this case, the modal TAVĀN expresses permission. This reading applies in situations where there is a large distance between the social status of the speaker and the addressee:

[10] Per: emruz kelās taškil ne-mi-š-e; *mi-tun-id* be-r-id.

Today class form NEG¹⁷-become.NPS-3sg; IMPF-may.NPS-3sg NIN- go.NPS-3sg

Eng: Today, the class is not held; you may leave.

Dynamic TAVĀN

The following example shows the circumstantial use of TAVĀN:

[11] Per: dar in owzā-e bāzār, māšin rā be qeimat-e xub-I *mi-tavān* foruxt- Ø.

In this situation-LINK market, car OBJ.MARKER with price-LINK good-INDF IMPF-can.NPS sell-INFV¹⁸

Eng: In this economic situation, one can sell the car with a desirable price.

XĀH

XĀH is mainly used as a primary auxiliary that expresses future tense in Persian, but in some contexts there is no color of futurity and this modal expresses a strong obligation imposed on the subject of the sentence by an external source. XĀH just expresses the deontic obligation:

[12] Per: tanhā motevalēd-in-e 1985 be qabl dar entexāb-āt šerkat *xāh-and* kard-Ø.

Only born-PLR-LINK MARKER 1985 to before in election-PLR participation will-3pl do-INFV

Eng: Just the people born before 1985 are allowed to vote in the elections.

ŠOD-AN

This modal which is inflected for tense, expresses epistemic, deontic and dynamic possibility and covers the situations expressed by English 'can' and also 'may'. As a deontic or dynamic modal, it may have either present or past form, but in the case of epistemic use, just the present form is possible. ŠOD-AN has a wider sense than TAVĀN and appears also in informal situations.

Epistemic ŠOD-AN

The following example illustrates the epistemic use of ŠOD-AN. This sentence is used by the speaker in a context where neither s/he nor the addressee knows where Ali is. By this sentence the speaker wants to say that Ali might be in the faculty at the speech time:

[13] Per: *mi-š-e* alān ali dar dāneškadeh bāš-e.

IMPF-may.NPS-3sg now Ali in faculty NIN-be.NPS-3sg

Eng: Ali might be in the faculty now.

As it was already mentioned, the past form of ŠOD-AN doesn't have any epistemic use. In the above example, if *mi-šav-ad* changes to past form *mi-šod-Ø*, the sentence will lose the epistemic reading and expresses a counterfactual situation in non-past tense:

[14] Per:(agar danešgah ta'til na-bud-Ø) *mi-šod-Ø* alān ali dar dāneškadeh bāš-e.

(if university closed NEG-be.ps-3sg) IMPF-may.PS-3sg now ali in faculty NIN-be.NPS-3sg

Eng: (If the university were not closed) Ali could have been in the faculty now.

Deontic ŠOD-AN

In this reading, ŠOD-AN indicates a social difference between the two parts of the conversation. Here, the speaker permits the addressee to or not to actualize a situation:

¹⁴. Non-past stem

¹⁵. Indefinite marker

¹⁶. Past participle

¹⁷. Negative marker

¹⁸. Infinitive marker

- [15] Per: age pul hamrā-t n-ist-ø, *mi-š-e* fardā pardāxt ø-kon-i.
if money with-you NEG-be.NPS-3sg, IMPF-may.NPS-3sg tomorrow pay NIN-do.NPS-2sg
Eng: If you have no money, you can pay tomorrow.

By changing the verbs to past tense, the above sentence expresses again a deontic reading but in a counterfactual situation:

- [16] Per: age pul hamrā-t na-bud-ø, *mi-šod-ø* fardā pardāxt ø-kon-i.
if money with-you NEG-be.PS-3sg, IMPF-may.PS-3sg tomorrow pay NIN-do.NPS-2sg
Eng: If you had no money, you could pay tomorrow.

Dynamic ŠOD-AN

This modal expresses an open possibility in present tense, but a counterfactual situation with dynamic reading in past tense:

- [17] Per: bā motāle'e in ketāb-hā *mi-š-e* tu konkur qabul ø-šod-ø.
With studying these book-PLR IMPF-can.NPS-3sg in entrance exam accept NIN-become-INV
Eng: By studying these books, one can be accepted in the entrance exam.

- [18] Per: bā motāle'e in ketāb-hā *mi-šod-ø* tu konkur qabul ø-šod-ø.
With studying these book-PLR IMPF-can.PS-3sg in entrance exam accept NIN-become-INV
Eng: By studying these books, one could be accepted in the entrance exam.

BĀYAD

BĀYAD is a modal used deontically, epistemically and dynamically to express necessity, obligation, need and logical inference or expectation. Comparing BĀYAD with its English counterparts, we face some differences: BĀYAD covers a wider range of meaning than English 'must'. It covers the area covered by 'must', 'should' and 'ought to'. Moreover, Rahimian (1995) believes that BĀYAD unlike English 'must' is not strong enough to entail the proposition. Consider the following:

- [19] Per: ali dar xāne n-ist-Ø ū *bāyad* dar madrese Ø-bāš-ad.
ali in house NEG-be.NPS-3SG he must in school NIN-be.NPS-3sg
Eng: Ali is not at home; he must be at school.

In the above example, 'must' semantically entails the proposition. This means that the speaker is committed to its being the case that Ali is at school. However, in Farsi the proposition is not semantically entailed and the speaker does not guarantee that Ali is at school. Therefore, it is quite expectable that Ali is not at home for some other reason:

- [20] Per: šāyad ham be sinamā raft-e Ø-bāš-ad
maybe also to cinema go.PS-PTCPL NIN- be PERF.NPS-3sg
Eng: Perhaps he has gone to the cinema.

Epistemic BĀYAD

Here BĀYAD expresses an inference.

- [21] Per: mehdi *bāyad* servatmand Ø-bāš-ad(ke yek māšin-e grānqeimat xarid-e ast-Ø
Mehdi must wealthy NIN-bePERF.NPS-3sg (that one car-LINK expensive buy-PS-PTCL be PERF¹⁹.NPS-3sg)
Eng: Mehdi must be wealthy (because he has bought an expensive car).

In the above example, since Mehdi has an expensive car, the speaker infers that he is a wealthy person. However, the speaker may say Mehdi may have borrowed the money. Thus, the proposition is not semantically entailed.

Another important epistemic use of BĀYAD is in future situations. The epistemic BĀYAD, unlike 'must', readily takes future situations. In the English counterpart normally "will" is used:

- [22] Per: agar bā sora't-e sad kilometr dar sāa't at be-rān-I *bāyad* fardā sāa't at-e noh be Tehrān be-res-i.

¹⁹. Perfect auxiliary

if with speed –LINK hundred kilometer in hour NIN-drive.NPS-2sg must tomorrow hour-LINK nine to Tehran
NIN-reach.NPS-2sg
Eng: If you drive at 100km per hour, you will arrive in Tehran by tomorrow at 9 o'clock.

Deontic BĀYAD

In this case, BĀYAD expresses strong necessity. In the following example, defending is really a strong necessity because a matter of life and death is involved:

- [23] Per: (čun ū mi-xāhad to rā bo-koš-ad) *bāyad* az xod-at defā' ø-kon-i.
(because s/he IMP-want.NPS-3sg you Obj.MARKER NIN-kill.NPS-3sg) must of yourself defending do.NPS-2sg
Eng: (Since s/he wants to kill you), you must defend yourself.

Deontic BĀYAD unlike English "must", can be used in situations with the past tense.

In this case, in English, the modal "shall" is used:

- [24] Per: *bāyad* ū rā mi-did-i.
must s/he Obj.MARKER IMPF-see.PS-2sg
Eng: You should see him/her.

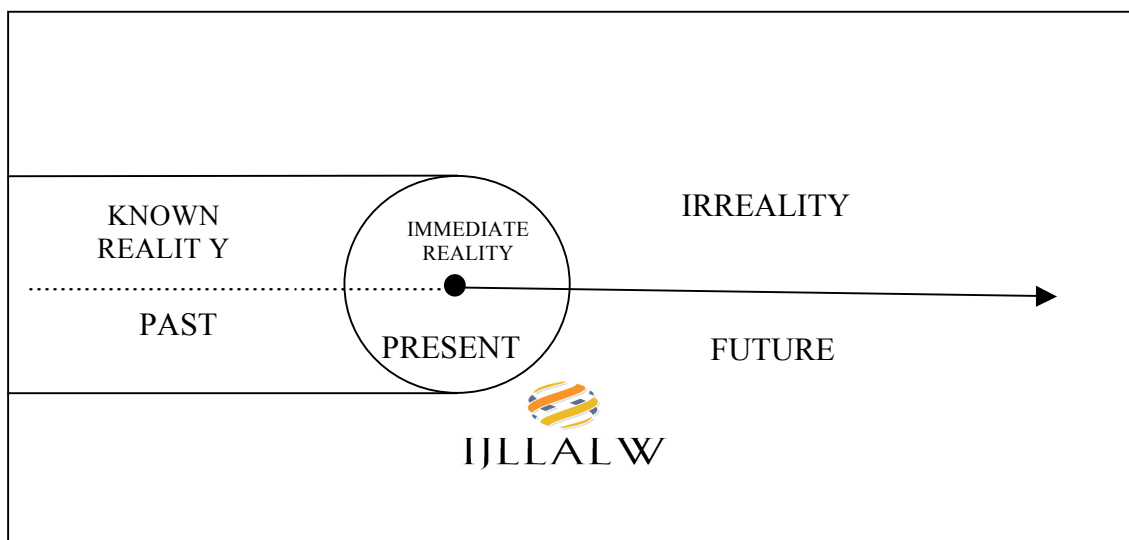
Dynamic BĀYAD

BĀYAD in this reading is basically subject-oriented:

- [25] Per: barāy-e inke be mowqe dar madrese ø-baš-am, fardā sobh-e zud *bāyad* az xāb boland ø-š-am.
for to LINK-MARKER on time in school NIN-be.NPS-1sg, tomorrow morning-LINK early must from sleep rise NIN-become.NPS-1sg
Eng: In order to be on time at school, I must get up early tomorrow morning.
Here, getting up earlier is an obligation opposed on the subject by him/herself and there is no external obligation.

The conceptualization of modals in a cognitive framework

In order to conceptualize the tense and modality within a cognitive framework, Langacker (1991:242) proposes an idealized cognitive model (ICM) which he calls the epistemic model and is illustrated in the following figure. In this model, the large circle represents immediate reality that includes the notion of here and now. The small dark circle represents the language user or 'ego'. The horizontal line running through the centre of the diagram represents TIME along which reality evolves. The dotted line represents time 'until now' and the continuous line represents time 'after now'. The time 'now' is represented by the portions of the line inside the large circle.

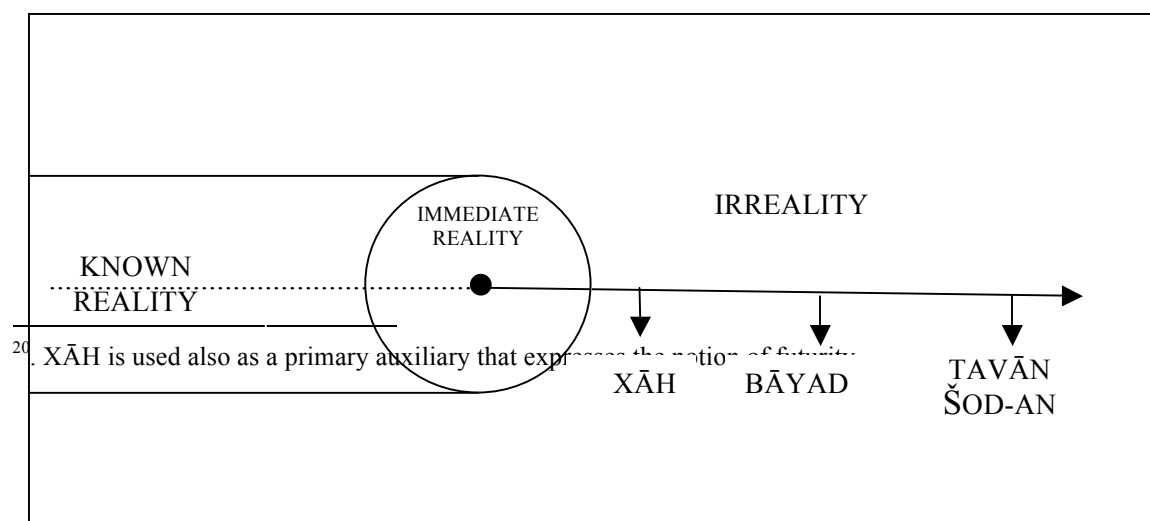


It is quite clear how this model accounts for tense: While present tense refers to time inside the large circle, past tense refers to the portion of time line within known reality but outside the large circle, and the future tense refers to time in irreality, beyond the large circle.

This model also accounts for modal auxiliaries. While the absence of a modal verb indicates that the event occurs within known reality (such as: He is a good player), the presence of a modal verb indicates that the speaker construes the event as part of irreality (for example: He may be a good player; He will be a good player). Therefore the modal verbs are located on the time line in the realm of irreality.

Another important matter is the relative location of the modals on the time line and their distance from reality. In the case of English modals, Langacker argues that the auxiliaries such as 'must', 'will' and 'can' which encode a strong degree of obligation, likelihood or possibility are close to known reality; their counterparts like 'would' and 'could' which express a much weaker sense of possibility and a larger degree of doubt fall in a distant place from known reality. This model is in accordance with 'force-dynamics' model proposed by Talmy (1985) and Sweetser (1990). In the current model, the modals are characterized in terms of 'potential and projected' reality. If the event which is entailed by a modal construed as having sufficient momentum that the speaker can be confident that it will reach the predicted reality status, the modal bears projected reality. In contrast, the modal of a clause in which the event is construed as having weaker momentum expresses only potential reality status.

Now, turning to Persian modal auxiliaries, it is quite clear that the entrance of modal auxiliaries into the Persian clauses, transforms the indicative clauses into subjunctive ones; therefore the occurrence of the event becomes conditioned and the certainty reduces to possibility and probability; so, these modals, like the primary auxiliary (XĀH²⁰) that bears the notion of futurity, fall in the scope of irreality. Since there is a direct relationship between the degree of uncertainty and the distance from the reality, the modals which bear a much amount of inconfidence and do not guarantee the occurrence of the event, fall in a distant place from reality. Regarding the above notes, we come to the conclusion that the modals XĀH and BĀYAD are closer to reality than TAVĀN and ŠOD-AN, because in the case of XĀH and BĀYAD, the speaker is more confident that the event will reach the reality status, while the events entailed by TAVĀN and ŠOD-AN bear less amount of certainty. This fact is indicated in the following figure which is the revised form of figure1, in which the Persian modal auxiliaries are located:



On the other hand, the polysemous modals such BĀYAD, TAVĀN and ŠOD-AN which have all the epistemic, deontic and dynamic readings are explained in terms of force-dynamics model. If the source of momentum is salient and the event has sufficient momentum, the modal gives rise to deontic interpretation (external obligation), if there is a less amount of momentum, the modal will have a dynamic interpretation (internal obligation) and if the event has the least amount of momentum, the modal bearing the event has epistemic reading (inference, possibility).

CONCLUSION

The main concern of this paper was the analysis of modal auxiliaries in cognitive framework and in comparison with English modals. In this way, firstly, regarding the morpho-syntactic principles, the Persian linguistic elements that bear the notion of modality are classified. There, it was revealed that Persian modal auxiliaries consist of TAVĀN, XĀH, ŠOD-AN and BĀYAD. Unlike the other previous works that ignore the auxiliary XĀH and include ŠĀYAD to the group of modal auxiliaries, it was approved that XĀH functions as a modal auxiliary but ŠĀYAD has none of the characteristics of modal auxiliaries and behaves like an adverbial modal.

Secondly, On the basis of a two-dimensional framework in which the modals are classified according to the degree and the kind of modality, the semantic functions of modal auxiliaries were investigated and the modals were compared with their English counterparts.

Finally, with respect of the TIME line and the reality and irreality notions of the idealized cognitive model proposed by Langacker and with regard to the works done on English modals, the Persian modal auxiliaries were conceptualized and their relative locations were determined on the TIME line of the model.

Considering XĀH as a modal auxiliary, excluding ŠĀYAD from the auxiliary modal group, and conceptualizing the modality and tense in Persian within a single model and indicating that they are of the same substance, are among the obtained results of the paper.

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IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL EFL TEXTBOOKS: WHY THEY SHOULD BE MODIFIED

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ABSTRACT

Textbooks are among a wide range of tools called language teaching materials which are important resources for teachers in assisting students to learn every subject including English. In recent years several important issues have arisen throughout the English Language Teaching (ELT) profession on the quality of ELT textbooks in the world such as textbook design and practicality, methodological validity, the role of textbooks in innovation, the authenticity of materials in terms of their representation of language, and the appropriateness of gender representation, subject matter, and cultural components. This study intends to review EFL Iranian textbooks evaluation studies which evaluate, compare, and determine the strengths and weaknesses of Iranian EFL high school textbooks from different perspectives and explain the reasons for changing these textbooks. In the light of the findings, it is realized that there may be an essential need for the prescribed EEL textbooks to be modified by the Iranian syllabus designers and textbook developers. In revising the textbooks, good qualities of the

textbooks should be retained and the shortcomings should be eliminated. It is suggested that textbooks authors pay close attention to these shortcomings and redesign the textbooks in line with latest trends in the world.

KEYWORDS: Materials development, ELT textbooks, Textbook evaluation

INTRODUCTION

English language instruction has many important components but the essential constituents to many ESL/EFL classrooms and programs are the textbooks and instruction materials that are often used by language instructors. As Hutchinson and Torres (1994) suggest:

The textbook is an almost universal element of [English language] teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year, and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in [various] countries...No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook. (p. 315)

In the field of ELT, just from the 1980's a few books appeared dealing with the issue of materials development since it is a relatively young phenomenon (Tomlinson, 2001). Materials development, as a field, concentrates on the study of the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials. As a practical undertaking, it involves the production, evaluation and adaptation of language teaching materials.

Materials are defined as "anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a Language" (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 66). These can be "a textbook, a workbook, a cassette, a CD-ROM, a video, a photocopied handout, a newspaper, a paragraph written on a whiteboard: anything which presents and informs about the language being learned" (Tomlinson 1998, p: xi). Moreover, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) generally think of textbooks as "providers of input into classroom lessons in the form of texts, activities, explanations, and so on" (p. 317). Furthermore, learners see the textbook as a "'framework' or 'guide' that helps them to organize their learning both inside and outside the classroom—during discussions in lessons, while doing activities and exercises, studying on their own, doing homework, and preparing for tests" (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994, p. 318). And teachers emphasize the facilitating role of the textbook as "it 'saves time, gives direction to lessons, guides discussion, facilitates giving of homework', making teaching 'easier, better organized, more convenient', and learning 'easier, faster, better'" (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994, p. 318). According to Sheldon (1988), whether we like it or not, textbooks "represent for both students and teachers the visible heart of any ELT programme" (p. 237).

In Iran, the situation is somehow different. Textbooks serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that takes place in the classroom. It is possible to say that textbooks are the only materials which are available in all schools all over Iran schools, the ones which all students can use effortlessly. Except some of the schools, especially in big cities which are mostly private schools, most of the schools, mainly public schools, are not fully equipped with modern technologies. Furthermore, while some of the students take advantage of using VCD and video tapes, and go to private language schools, most of the students just have their textbooks as the only source of learning English and the major source of contact they have with the language apart from the input provided by the teacher. In other words, in Iran textbooks play a very important role in English teaching in Iran.

This fact makes it a necessity to evaluate constantly the textbooks to see if they are appropriate and revise them if necessary. This process enables us to make informed decisions through which student achievement will increase and educational programs will be more successful.

Since 1987, to my knowledge, various textbook evaluation studies carried out in Iran focusing on EFL textbooks that have been used in the Iranian high schools prescribed by the Ministry of Education. These researches studied textbooks from a number of perspectives and concentrates on several important issues arisen throughout ELT profession on the quality of ELT textbooks such as national identity and globalization, multiple intelligence

perspective, the appropriateness of gender representation, visual elements, discourse Markers, vocabulary, cultural components, and so on.

This study intends to review the EFL textbooks evaluation studies which evaluate, compare, and determine the strengths and weaknesses of Iranian EFL high school textbooks from different perspectives and explain the reasons for changing these textbooks. It is necessary to mention that the researcher has concentrated on the studies which have been conducted since 2000.

With this end in view, I will start my discussion by introducing the English language textbooks for high schools in Iran. Then I will present an overview of textbook evaluation studies carried out in Iran along with their findings. These studies are classified based on different perspectives and issues. I will then present a discussion on findings of these studies which would be a detailed exemplary criticism and suggestions for changes.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Iranian EFL High School Textbooks

In Iran all the textbooks for the schools including EFL textbooks compiled by the Textbook Curriculum Development and Planning Department of the Ministry of Education of the Islamic Republic of Iran. Thus, they represent a relatively suitable sample of the locally-developed ELT textbooks already in use in Iran. These textbooks are taught in both private and public schools and all the teachers follow the same syllabus.

These textbooks are entitled English Book One (Birjandy, P., Soheili, A., Noroozi, M., & Mahmoodi, Gh.), English Book Two (Birjandy, P., Noroozi, M., & Mahmoodi, Gh.), English Book Three (Birjandy, P., Noroozi, M., & Mahmoodi, Gh.), and Learning to Read English for Pre-university Students (Birjandy, P., Ananisarab, M.R., & Samimi, D.). The books are designed based on a similar pattern and structure. Each lesson is composed of 8 main parts (New Words, Reading, Write It Down, Speak Out, Language Functions, Pronunciation Practice, Vocabulary Review, Vocabulary List).

A Review of Textbook Evaluation Research Studies in Iran

As far as the review of literature is concerned, in Iran several projects have been carried out to evaluate textbooks. These researches studied textbooks from a number of perspectives. This section is an attempt to review these studies which are classified based on different perspectives and issues.

With regard to the appropriateness of gender representation, three studies have been conducted by Hosseini Fatemi, Pishghadam and Heidarian (2011), Amini and Birjandi (2012), and Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012).

Hosseini Fatemi, Pishghadam and Heidarian (2011) have conducted a study and addressed gender imbalance and gender stereotyping in Iranian high school and pre-university English textbooks following Rifkin's (1998) model. Utilizing both quantitative and qualitative techniques (based on criterion-driven studies and feminist's approaches), they examined the pictorial and verbal parts of textbooks to decide whether the books under study provide an equitable delineation of both sexes and they used descriptive statistics along with content analysis to analyze the representation of both sexes qualitatively in four English textbooks.

The analysis showed great imbalance in the representation of males and females in the sense that these books were biased towards males. The overall portrayal of women in the textbooks was low and their subordinated status confirmed the traditional view of gender stereotyping. Overall, these books fairly failed to reflect the wide range of roles played by woman both in Iranian culture and target language culture. (pp. 32-33)

In 2012, Amini and Birjandi have examined the extent and types of gender bias in the Iranian English textbooks for the second and third grades of high school. Sexism was investigated in five categories of visibility, firstness, generic masculine constructions, sex-linked occupations and activities. The authors concluded that "the two textbooks investigated overrepresented male characters both linguistically and visually in frequency and order of occurrence, occupation, stereotypical activities, and the linguistic manifestation of masculine generic referents" (p.139).

Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012), too, investigated the issue of gender bias to find out discrimination between male and female students based on their sex in terms of Halliday's systemic-functional linguistic theory. The results revealed that:

There were more males in the Theme and Rheme position. In other word, males had dominated the communicative positions of the clauses in the textbooks. Also the outcome of the participant role analysis showed that the frequencies of males for different participant's roles were more than that of females.

The finding may be attributable to the writer's attitude, culture, and traditional patriarchal system of Iranian society. Yet another reason why men are more visible than women may be related to the power of the influential policy makers (mostly men) who make curriculum decisions that favor boys and men. (p. 85)

Regarding the appropriateness of cultural components, two studies have been conducted by Aliakbari (2004) and Rimani Nikou and Soleimani (2012). In 2004, Aliakbari has investigated the way culture is addressed in ELT at the high school level of education based on a modified version of Ramirez and Hall's (1990) model. The researcher intended to investigate the contribution of the textbooks to the improvement of students' intercultural competence. Throughout the research, this theme tested with reference to the related theoretical background and the content analysis of prescribed English textbooks. He concluded that "the current textbooks are inadequate to the task of teaching culture specifics in the deeper sense (values, norms, beliefs, etc.) or culture-general skills such as intercultural communication and understanding" (p.1).

Rimani Nikou and Soleimani (2012), too, have investigated the extent to which the Iranian and Turkish high school English textbooks represent the cultural principles and examined the cultural references in these textbooks. They applied Ramirez and Hall's (1990) categorization. The analysis was carried out within a coding scheme with eight categories. Results of the study indicate that:

The ELT textbooks in Turkey and more in Iran appear too weak to provide new information or broaden students' worldview or cultural understanding. In other words, the study seems to postulate that changes should be made if we want to prepare the student to communicate in the multicultural world of English and if we want to use the nationally developed textbooks for the optimum benefit. The findings of the study present the point that cultural principles are not utilized in the Iranian and Turkish high school textbooks. (p. 654)

Razmjoo (2007) and Dahmardeh (2009) have conducted studies to investigate the extent to which the textbooks represent CLT principles. Razmjoo (2007) analyzed the content of the textbooks of the Iranian high schools and private institutes (*The Interchange Series*) descriptively and inferentially. In doing so, the textbooks were analyzed by twenty experienced teachers of the two domains, using the evaluation scheme considering the CLT features in mind to determine the extent to which the textbooks take into consideration issues such as the provision of opportunities for more authentic use of the language, attention to learners' needs, and contexts of learning, which are among typical principles derived from the communicative language teaching approach. The analysis of the data indicated that:

There is a radical difference between the two types of textbooks in the two domains. The high school textbooks are reading and grammar based. This may because materials development and syllabus design are determined by the ministry of education, and the practitioners (teachers) do not have a voice in the decision making process. Students' needs are not taken into account. Moreover, decision makers attach high importance to universality (centrality) rather than locality. However, the textbooks utilized in the private institutes provide an equal balance among all the skills and components of the language. These textbooks provide a chance to foster learners' autonomy so that they become independent in their learning. (Razmjoo, 2007, p. 136)

In one study, Dahmardeh (2009) has reported the findings of a study carried out in 2006 into how Iranian textbooks could be made more communicative. The study aimed to explore the teachers' perspectives and their perceptions of students' needs. A further aim of this study was to find out about teachers and authors perspective about supplementary and authentic materials, which are provided as a support to the textbooks. To this end, the author developed and administrated a 50 questionnaire to two groups of participants; 20 Iranian secondary school teachers and one of the authors of the textbooks who agreed to participate in the project. Furthermore, he examined qualitatively The Iranian National Curriculum for ELT and the textbooks. Having considered the collected data

from a variety of sources (textbooks analysis as well as comments made by the respondents), the researcher concluded that:

Having considered the textbooks as well as the comments made by the participants, there was no sign of presenting or even teaching the two language skills, Listening and Writing. It is obvious that one of the main elements of CLT is missing, integration and presenting all the four language skills....the textbooks did not include anything about the culture of English speaking countries. For instance, all the names or situations that are presented in the textbooks are Iranian.

These textbooks cannot meet the learners' and the teachers' needs within the Iranian educational system and it is a bit strange that they still emphasize structural methods and ignore the communicative role of the language. (pp. 52-23)

Several studies have been conducted based on different frameworks, modals, and taxonomies: Azizfar, Koosha, and Lotfi's (2010) study based on Tucker's (1975) textbook evaluation model; Riazi and Mosalanejad's (2010) study using Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives; Abdollahi-Guilani, Yasin, and Hua's (2011) study based on Dougills' textbook evaluation checklist; Talebinezhad and Mahmoodzadeh's (2011) study based on the Biomodality Models based on Danesi (2003); and Abbasian and Hassan Oghli's (2011) study based on Miekley's (2005) 18-item checklist and Ansary and Babaii's (2007) 40-items checklist.

Azizfar, Koosha, and Lotfi (2010) have carried out an evaluation of two series of locally produced English language text books used in Iranian high schools from 1970 to the present (series of *Graded English (GE)* books published in 1970 and the series of *Right Path to English (RPE)* books published in 2002), based on Tucker's (1975) textbook evaluation model. To this end, they selected and focused on Book Two of each of these series based on simple random sampling procedure. Furthermore, the researchers provided a modified version of Tucker's (1975) evaluating model for the study. They reasoned that:

Tucker's model focuses on those elements which are generally considered fundamental to a structural syllabus. However, the researchers want to go a bit further and evaluate the textbooks from the standpoint of communicative language learning and teaching. Thus, Tucker's model is modified to fulfill the objectives of this research. Since this study focuses on pronunciation, grammar, and content of the mentioned textbooks, the general criteria in Tucker's system are not directly relevant. Thus, they are excluded from the version adapted here. (p. 134)

Based on the analysis of the two series, they concluded that:

GE and RPE are best esteemed on the grammar criteria. This reveals, on the one hand, the fact that they are fundamentally based on the structural views of syllabus design, on the other, that RPE does not correct completely the inadequacies of GE as far as the fundamental concepts of syllabus design are concerned. In other word, RPE does not operate beyond the structural syllabus, and its superiority over GE is quantitative rather than qualitative. That is, RPE presents the structural syllabus better than GE. It presents and practices better structural exercises.

The shortcomings of GE and RPE to accord with the communicative aspects of language teaching – or specifically syllabus design and text construction – are much more revealed in applying the content criteria and specially the tenth criterion which inspects the appropriateness of contexts and situations. In this respect, GE lacks any merit and RPE gains only marginally.

...The results of this study show that RPE did employ the recent improvement in some areas not in all the areas. RPE achieves better scores in the grammar and the content criteria. All in all, the results of this study reveal that RPE does not correct most of the inadequacies and deficiencies of GE. (p. 140)

In a study, Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010) have conducted a study to investigate the types of learning objectives represented in Iranian senior high school and pre-university English textbooks using Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives. They intended to investigate how the content of textbooks represents Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives and specifically which levels of the taxonomy were more focused on in the textbooks. To this end, the

researchers developed a coding scheme based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of learning objectives so as to codify the learning objectives.

The results of this study indicated that a logical order is followed in the four textbooks regarding text length and readability accounts. This means that the textbooks in lower grades are shorter and easier, in line with learners' levels of proficiency in their foreign language. Furthermore, lower-order components were dominant in the high school textbooks with regard to the cognitive levels in the textbooks. Among higher-order cognitive skills, application had the highest frequency while comprehension, analysis, knowledge, and synthesis followed it in turn. Evaluation had the lowest frequency on this continuum. Also, a logical order cannot be assigned for these levels in the textbooks.

Generally they concluded that in all grades lower-order cognitive skills were more prevalent than higher-order ones, that is, knowledge, comprehension, and application. Furthermore, the difference between the senior high school and the pre-university textbooks in terms of the levels of the taxonomy were significant insofar as the pre-university textbook used some degrees of higher-order learning objectives. They thus concluded that based on the results of this study, the main objectives of the textbooks were the development of lower-order cognitive skills.

In an attempt, Abdollahi-Guilani, Yasin, and Hua (2011) have evaluated the Iranian high school English textbooks based on Dougills' textbook evaluation checklist in order to see how far the textbooks can prepare learners to go with the language skills needed for a learner of English as a foreign language. To this end, 30 experienced English teachers who have already taught the three books were asked to give their opinions about the books. In addition, some of the items from the checklist were selected and given to 200 students at three grades of high school. The survey analysis revealed that:

The ultimate goals of the curriculum are not clearly set in the three English textbooks. The authors of the books do not explicitly specify the short term and long term objectives....The framework does not define what the students are supposed to do in each lesson, and what destination they are going to reach in the long run. The students do not feel at home with the books because the passages do not appeal to them either in terms of the content or with respect to the appearance. The texts are monotonous and free from modern genres. The students do not know why they are reading a certain text, especially when the classroom activities do not correspond with the ideas in the passages. Some of the grammatical points which are discussed in the grammar part have not already been introduced in the passages and so the students have to learn them in isolation or the teacher has to improvise an appropriate situation to teach those points. The conversation section is so mechanical that both the teacher and the students wish to skip it.... These books are, however, short of offering some of the skills. There is no sign of presenting the listening and writing practice.... Very few of the vocabulary items that are introduced in the passages are practiced in the exercises, so generally there is no reinforcement to let the students learn the new words.... Based on the findings, the main objectives of the three high school English textbook for Iranian schools is to concentrate on reading comprehension, teaching the students how to apply words in sentences correctly, and presenting some phonetic symbols and pronunciation. As a whole there are, however, many inconsistencies between the learners' needs, and the materials of the textbooks. (pp. 28-29).

In one study, Talebinezhad and Mahmoodzadeh (2011) have attempted to investigate the pedagogical techniques and principles of the Bimodality Models based on Danesi (2003) in both internationally-developed (namely, *Interchange 3*, *American Headway 4*, and *Summit 1*) and locally-developed ELT textbooks. Furthermore, they wanted to see if there is any significant difference between these textbooks concerning pedagogical applications of bimodality theory. The quantitative analysis of the data revealed that pedagogical techniques and principles of bimodality theory appear to be significantly more applied in the design of the internationally-developed ELT textbooks than the locally-developed ones. Specifically, the results reveal that

A high percentage of the learning activities of the locally-developed ELT textbooks under investigation are designed with L-Mode focus which are mainly structural techniques including a series of practice drills such as substitutions, transformations, fill-ins, and completions, whereas only a small number of the learning activities in these textbooks are designed with R-Mode or Intermodal focus. Moreover, these

exercises seem to emphasize the priority of grammatical structures over the communicative skills throughout these textbooks and this is perhaps one of the main demerits of these textbooks in terms of applications of bimodality theory.... Also, in contrast to the internationally-developed ELT textbooks, these ELT textbooks lack the use of designed audio-contexts and only favor the use of visual contexts. Therefore, the locally-developed ELT textbooks may not contextualize or conceptualize the new learning materials in a culturally appropriate fashion due to the absence of the designed audio-contexts. (pp. 1210-1211)

In an attempt, Abbasian and Hassan Oghli (2011) have empirically evaluated the EFL high school textbooks from two presumably opposite perspectives; from those of the teachers and the learners. To this end, they addressed the questions of degree of compatibility or variability of teachers and learners views about the textbooks and also extent of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with them. 50 male and female Iranian EFL teachers holding either MA or BA in TEFL and 100 fourth grade high school male EFL learners who had already experienced all four officially assigned textbooks were randomly selected. Both groups received two separate textbook evaluation checklists, one was Miekley's (2005) 18-item checklist entitled: "ESL Textbook Checklist" and another was 40-items checklist representing universal features of EFL/ESL textbooks adjusted and customized for the Iranian setting by Ansary and Babaii (2007). Moreover, both groups wrote a written- protocol composed of eight comprehensive questions extracted from the checklists in order to enrich data due to prescriptive and selective nature of data usually achieved by questionnaire or checklist. The analyses of the data revealed that:

Teachers and learners held different views on most areas and criteria related to textbooks; signifying that their views are not much compatible, though they held some common views with respect to certain measures. Meanwhile, the teachers showed to be less satisfied with the EFL textbooks than their learners. (p. 177)

Regarding the appropriateness of visual elements, Moghtadi (2012) has investigated the issue of the use of visuals within the Iranian high school EFL textbooks. To do this, the textbooks were evaluated and descriptive statistics were used to analyze data quantitatively. The analysis indicated that over the four textbooks, 95.71 percent of all visuals were drawings and 4.29 percent were photos. The analysis revealed, then, among three fundamental categories of pictures function (i.e. Illustrative, Stimulus-Response, and Student-Generated), stimulus-response pictures constituted the largest percentage which tend to focus on low-level language skills; while none of them were used for the student-generated purposes. The visuals, furthermore, were largely being used for fairly grammatical part of language practice. Moreover, all the pictures within each of the four textbooks under consideration were used for the purpose of 'talking about a picture'; no exercises were found to meet the 'talking with the picture' criterion.

National identity and globalization is another issue which are investigated by Khajavi and Abbasian (2011), in a study, who have evaluated cultural pattern of the Iranian high school EFL textbooks in terms of Byram's (1993) checklist to see to what extent these materials are appropriate in terms of national identity and globalization. The results of the study clearly revealed that:

High school textbooks have not been successful in familiarizing students with cultural matters of other countries. The authors of these textbooks have avoided cultural materials and have tried to be neutral in terms of culture....the study seems to suggest that changes should be made if we want to prepare the students to communicate in the multicultural world of English and if we desire to utilize the nationwide developed textbooks for the optimal advantage. Besides, national identity and history of Iran has not been taken into account in high school textbooks....As the data reveals activities and passages related to national identity and international issues constitute less than 7% of the textbooks, Generally, it can be concluded that these textbooks are not suitable for the age of globalization. (pp. 181-184)

In 2013, Gholampour, Bagherzadeh Kasmani, and Talebi have focused on Multiple Intelligence (MI) perspective and conducted a study to evaluate popular textbooks in Junior high school and English teaching Institutes (*Time Series, Hip-Hip Hooray Series*) from this perspective. They analyzed each activity in the books to identify how much each textbook considers different kinds of intelligences, which intelligences were predominant and which ones were less common or not included in these three textbooks.

The results indicated that the books *Time Series* and *Hip-Hip Hooray Series* have used the combination of multiple intelligences. Hip-Hip Hooray has applied more visual/spatial intelligences in its exercises while English Time has applied more verbal/linguistic, bodily/kinesthetic and interpersonal intelligences. The two books have been approximately equal in using mathematical and musical intelligences, but they have not applied intrapersonal intelligence in their exercises. On the other hand, the junior school books have the lowest variety of MI among others, although they have a high percentage of linguistic intelligence. They stated that the junior school books "do not have the capability of including a combination of intelligences" (p. 50).

The appropriate use of discourse markers is another issue which is investigated in Iranian high school English textbooks. One study by Talebinejad and Namdar (2011) has investigated the reading comprehension sections of Iranian high school English textbooks (IHSETs) to find out the extent of using Discourse Markers (DM) and their types, based on Fraser's (1999) category. Furthermore, they compared IHSETs with parallel and authentic texts in internationally-developed English textbooks (*Steps to Understanding* by L.A. Hill (1980), *Start Reading 4 and 5* by Derek Strange (1989), *New Headway English Course* by Liza John Soars (2000a), *Developing Reading Skills* by Linda Markstein and Louise Hirasawa (1981), *Expanding Reading Skill* by Linda Markstein and Louise Hirasawa (1982), *New American Streamline* by Bernard Hartley and Peter Viney (1995), *Interchange 3 Students Book* by Jack C. Richards, Jonathan Hull, and Susan Proctor (2005), *Marvin's Woolly Mammoth* by Jill Eggleton (n.d.)) in terms of the use of DMs in order to make this investigation viable. The analysis revealed that:

DMs are not used sufficiently in reading comprehension texts in English Books 1, 2, and 3 in comparison to the texts in internationally developed books. But the DMs in the reading comprehension texts in English Book 4 in Iranian high schools are taken into consideration and are used sufficiently. According to the results of this study, the structure of English Book 4 is different from the structure of English Books 1, 2, and 3.... In addition, in terms of the kinds of DMs used in English books, the findings of this study demonstrated that the most frequent kinds of DMs in English Books 1, 2, and 3 are 'contrastive markers', whereas 'topic change markers' are not included. In English Book 4, however, the most frequent kind of DMs is 'elaborative markers' and the least one is 'topic change markers'. (1597-1598)

With regard to the use of vocabulary in Iranian EFL high school textbooks, Koosha and Akbari (2010) have compared the vocabulary used in Iranian EFL secondary and high school textbooks with the first three 1000 high frequency word lists (1000, 2000, 3000,) from the British National Corpus (BNC) in terms of Nation's Range program. To this end, they extracted the word lists of Iranian EFL secondary and high school textbooks and changed into text documents in order to be run through Nation's Range Program in several stages. The analysis revealed that:

About 86 % of the total word types in the word lists of the mentioned textbooks were found in the BNC first three 1000 high frequency word lists. Of course, it should be noted that these 86% of words consist of 1594 word types appearing in the textbooks which were found among 16454 word types appearing in the BNC first three 1000 high frequency word lists. These 1594 word types make up just about 10% of the total word types in the BNC first three 1000 high frequency word lists...and this amount of vocabulary knowledge presented by these textbooks is not sufficient for the minimal reading comprehension and there is a wide gap between the amount of the vocabulary knowledge presented by the afore-mentioned textbooks (1312 word families) and a desirable vocabulary knowledge (3000 word families) which is necessary for minimal reading comprehension. (pp. 178-179)

There are, also, other studies conducted with the aim of evaluating the Iranian EFL high school textbooks. Ghorbani (2011) has also conducted a study to investigate the research question, "To what extent does the EFL textbook (English 1) used in Iranian senior high schools conform to the common consensus-reached and universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks?" (p. 513). The aim was to content analysis of the textbook in terms of the criteria in the checklist under 7 subheadings: Practical Consideration, Skills, Exercises and Activities, Pedagogic Analysis, Appropriacy, Supplementary Materials, and General Impression. The author concluded that:

The textbook is perfect in physical qualities like paper quality, binding, printing, etc. But a good attempt has not been made to present four language skills in a well-balanced manner. There are no audio CDs and

student guides as reference materials. And teacher's guide is not available. It would have been a better idea if the writers had made an attempt to introduce pronunciation and listening activities accompanied with CDs. The book doesn't have glossary at the end and is more structural than communicative. It seriously lacks variety in the communicative tasks and information gap activities. Most of the speaking activities are mainly based on question-answer type activities and pair work only, giving very little attention to other communicative activities like group work, simulation, role play, etc. Efforts can be made to present different kinds of speaking activities in a more balanced way and more diversified form, allowing more information gaps in the tasks. Apart from question-answer type activities tagged at the end of a reading passage, reading activities can be made more interesting adding variety like fill in the blanks, matching two halves, etc. Though there are five elements in language instruction, and learners should be the center of instruction. However, materials often control the instruction, since teachers and learners tend to rely heavily on them. (pp. 516-517)

In 2008, Jahangard has evaluated the Iranian high school and pre-university English textbooks for their merits and demerits with reference to 13 common features extracted from different material evaluation checklists to find their advantages and shortcomings. The researcher concluded that the tasks and topics introduced in each lesson are interesting and hence attractive to learners in EFL classes. However, there are shortcomings with regard to vocabulary explanation and the practice of listening skill. Furthermore, Jahangard (2008) concluded that:

B4 is considered to be qualified in helping the learners to develop some of the learning strategies found in good language learners, although the whole idea of strategy training appears to be a thorny and a controversial issue. Books 1, 2 and 3 in the series need much revision in this regard. (p. 47)

In one attempt, Zohrabi, Sabouri and Behroozian (2012) have evaluated the English textbook which is taught in Iranian first grade high schools to explain the weaknesses and strengths of the English textbook through using 13 criteria which have been drawn on various checklists. The participants were selected from four high schools; three of these schools were for girls and one school was for boys. The authors used the mixed method approach, a combination of both quantitative and qualitative dimension of data collection. The quantitative data were collected through close-ended questionnaires, which were related to the seven sections of the book including the layout or physical make-up, vocabulary, topics and content, grammar points and exercises, language skills, pronunciation practice, language function, and social and cultural activities, and the qualitative data were collected through interviews with teachers and students and were analyzed interpretatively.

Considering the findings, the English textbook's (1) physical appearance and its related features such as the thickness, good binding and fastening, fair size, and its font size and type are attractive. There are no complementary means such as visual aids, CDs, and workbook. It is believed that this textbook should be supported by pronunciation and listening activities....There are no real pictures and explanations, especially ones that help students to understand it.

In addition, the presented words in the lessons of the textbook (1) are not repeated in other lessons. So, students forget these words very quickly...Another problem is related to the inequality of the attention to the four language skills....The results of the survey indicate the insufficiency of listening and speaking exercises and students' limited chance to practice speaking in the class. This book also does not provide students with appropriate and useful expressions of target culture so that they can use them effectively and correctly to communicate with other people. To sum up, this textbook cannot meet the students' and the teachers' needs within the Iranian educational system. It is structure-based and ignores the communicative role of the language. (pp. 19-20-21)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The reviews of these studies reveal that the findings are in line with each other. It is a fact that the current books have positive qualities.

The books are acceptable regarding the clarity and orthographic beauty.... The topics of readings vary from factual to anecdotal ones and sometimes are funny stories. It is difficult to judge on behalf of the learners whether those are interesting for them or not and it needs research. Nevertheless, the majority of the topics

are attractive to the learners in my EFL classes.... Most of the instructions are clear and easy to understand for the learners in the books in the series. Even if the learners might not be familiar with the structures and the lexis used in the instructions, the models given for each group of exercises provide contextual clues for the learners as to what they are expected to do. (Jahangard, 2008, pp. 39-41-42).

The [English Book 1] has sufficient number of pictures to make the situation more life-like.... The paper used for the textbooks is of good quality; each sheet is quite thick and ensures durability of the texts.... The physical appearance is interesting and attractive. The layout is clear and well-organized. The topic of each unit is written in bold type. Reading passages are of normal font size that is just right for the first graders. All the letters unanimously are in black color. There are no traces of weak points in the font size for topic and exercises, the top, bottom, left and right margins, the space between words, sentences, lines and paragraphs, the quality and color of ink used, etc. On the whole, in terms of practical considerations the book is good. (Ghorbani, 2011, p. 2011)

"The English textbook's (1) physical appearance and its related features such as the thickness, good binding and fastening, fair size, and its font size and type are attractive" (Zohrabi, et. al., 2012, p. 19). So, it seems that the textbooks are perfect in physical qualities like paper quality, binding, printing, etc. However, despite all these positive points, it seems still there are a lot of shortcomings. Hosseini Fatemi, et al. (2011), Amini and Birjandi (2012), and Gharbavi Mousavi (2012) have argued that there was a clear gender imbalance both in texts and illustrations in favor of males. They believe that improving the quality of sex equality in the content and pictures of the textbooks is of great importance.

According to Aliakbari (2004), Rimani Nikou and Soleimani (2012), and Khajavi and Abbasian (2011), the textbooks were not helpful in developing cultural elements and cultural understanding. Razmjoo (2007) and Dahmardeh (2009) have stated that the textbooks were not conducive to CLT implementation. They believe that it is essential to make a great change to the textbooks in order to make them communicative.

With regard to the learning objectives in these textbooks, Abdollahi-Guilani, et al. (2011) have indicated that "the ultimate goals of the curriculum are not clearly set in the three English textbooks. The authors of the books do not explicitly specify the short term and long term objectives" (p. 28). According to Jahangard (2008), "the final goals of the EFL program as well as the behavioral objectives which are aimed at by the curriculum designers are obscure and remain to be delineated" (p. 36). Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010) have also argued that the main objectives of the textbooks were the development of lower-order cognitive skills rather than higher-order cognitive skills.

Furthermore, Talebinezhad and Mahmoodzadeh (2011) have stated that a high percentage of the learning activities of these textbooks "are designed with L-Mode focus which are mainly structural techniques including a series of practice drills such as substitutions, transformations, fill-ins, and completions" (p. 2011).

Regarding to the appropriate use of vocabulary, Koosha and Akbari (2010) have concluded that "there is a wide gap between the amount of the vocabulary knowledge presented by the afore-mentioned textbooks (1312 word families) and a desirable vocabulary knowledge (3000 word families) which is necessary for minimal reading comprehension" (p. 178).

According to Ghorbani (2011), "only 63% percent of [English 1] the book conforms to the universal characteristics of textbooks" (p. 511) and "63 percent satisfaction of the only textbook which is prescribed and used for the first grade students in Iranian high schools nationwide can hardly be considered as acceptable and satisfactory" (p. 517).

Gholampour, et al. (2013) have argued that "although the junior school books have a high percentage of linguistic intelligence they have the lowest variety of among others. They do not have the capability of including a combination of intelligences" (p. 250).

With regard to the appropriateness of visual elements, Moghtadi (2012) has indicated stimulus-response pictures constituted the largest percentage of the pictures, while none of the pictures were used for the student-generated purposes. The visuals, moreover, were largely being used for fairly grammatical part of language practice.

And finally, Azizfar, et al. (2010) have argued that "these textbooks cannot meet the learners' and the teachers' needs within the Iranian educational system and it is a bit strange that they still emphasize structural methods and ignore the communicative role of the language" (p. 140).

Generally speaking, the wealth of research indicated that the EFL high school textbooks in Iran appeared too weak in spite of some positive points. In the light of these findings, one may claim that little has changed over the past years. It is, in fact, remarkable that these EFL high school textbooks are used which are fraught with shortcomings. And the important question is how come these weaknesses and shortcomings of the EFL high school textbooks throughout all these years have been left unnoticed and for years the very same unmodified high school materials have been published and republished over and over again without the slightest change.

CONCLUSION

The instructional materials are one of the elements of the teaching system along with teachers, learners, teaching methods, and evaluation. They should be as complete as possible in order to meet all students' needs. EFL textbooks, as one example of the instructional materials, can play an important role in the success of language programs. They can also play a major function in making students to enjoy learning English and to become successful in learning.

As the wealth of research indicated the existing EFL high school textbooks in Iran, developed by the Ministry of Education for national use, have been evaluated by a number of local researchers. The textbooks have been investigated from different viewpoints and perspectives and their shortcomings and weaknesses have been elaborated.

The findings revealed that there are many inconsistencies between the learners' needs, and the materials of the textbooks. The vocabulary knowledge presented by the textbooks falls below an expectable threshold level required for minimal reading comprehension. The textbooks are mostly structure-based and they ignore the communicative role of the language. Moreover, CLT principles are not utilized in these textbooks. The inequality of the attention to the four language skills is one of their problems. There are more reading skill practices in the textbooks compared to practices on the other three skills. As Littlewood (1981) emphasizes, one of the major components of communication is instructing the skills in an integrated procedure because for successful language learning to occur these skills cannot be considered in isolation from each other.

The textbooks have not been successful in familiarizing students with cultural matters of other countries. In other words, the cultural aspects of language learning have not received sufficient attention in the textbooks (Aliakbari, 2004). Besides, national identity and history of Iran has not been taken into account in high school textbooks (Khajavi, Abbasian, 2011). It seems that there was an attempt to present a 'cultureless' language.

The exercises and activities include only lower-order cognitive skills. Furthermore, the textbooks lack variety in the communicative tasks and information gap activities. There is evidence that sexism is still vividly practiced in these textbooks.

Iranian students have to study English as a foreign language for several years in the schools, yet the education they receive neither enables the students to attain full competence in using the English language nor helps them to interact with confidence. One way to modify and improve a curriculum is to improve the textbooks and the materials used in the program since they are one of the essential constituents to many ESL/EFL classrooms and programs. When books remain unchanged for years and years, the teachers do not feel it necessary to look for innovation and creativity or to stay updated since they have memorized every corner of the teaching material.

To sum up, based on the reviews provided in the present study, it is suggested that perhaps one of the crucial reasons for the inefficiency of the EFL high school textbooks used in Iran is related to their shortcomings and weaknesses.

In conclusion, there may be an essential need for the prescribed EEL textbooks to be modified by the Iranian syllabus designers and textbook developers. In revising the textbooks, good qualities of the textbooks should be

retained and the shortcomings should be eliminated. It is suggested that textbooks authors pay close attention to these shortcomings and redesign the textbooks in line with latest trends in the world.

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MATERIAL PROCESS IN TRANSITIVITY OF THE ENGLISH CLAUSES: A FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

This journal this paper shows how to use material process in English clause. The title of this research is Material Process in Transitivity of the English Clauses: A Functional Grammar Approach. Functional linguistics appeared as a reaction to formal approaches to grammar, especially generative and transformational approaches. One of its basic assumptions is that language is a symbolic system with a certain purpose or purposes, mainly communication, although there are other possibilities too, such as the use of language as an instrument of thought. This attempt is a step towards helping us to understand how to use the material process in English clauses and what verbs in transitivity that consist of material process. The purposes of this study are it describes what verbs in transitivity that consists of material process and it probes how the material process in English Clauses is used. The method which is used is descriptive comparative. The discussions show that verbs in transitivity can contain the material process.

KEYWORDS: functional grammar, transitivity, material process and English clause.

INTRODUCTION

Language is central to the ways of thinking, feeling, and interacting with others. It is the main medium to form and maintain relationship with one another and the medium through which experiences are shaped and exchanged. The investigation of languages always come to the conclusion that the function of language is to combine human ideas into verbal expression so that they can convey meaning to another and can create 'communication'. As a device for communication, language is an effective means of expressing ideas and feelings in both of spoken and written form.

When people speak or write, they produce text, the term 'text' refers to any instance of language (Halliday, 2004:3). Human in society need to interact, to communicate or to show the ideas to the other. *Every language has some rank scale of phonological constituents, but with considerable variation in how constituency is organized* (Halliday, 2004:5). *Language encodes our experience and thereby plays a crucial role in our involvement with other people, animal life in general, and inanimate matter* (Bloor and Bloor, 1995:107). From those statements, it is known that language plays a vital role and it also has many advantages over many various aspect of human's life. Human have to stay along with language because human cannot interrelate without using language. By using language, human are able to interact and communicate with each other in doing activities.

We need a model of language that helps us understand how text works to make meaning. Functional grammar can do this. One of the ways of doing it is by using functional grammars to view language as a resource of making meaning. These grammars attempt to describe language in actual use and focus on texts and their contexts, either culture or of situation, to facilitate learner's interpretation and production of text.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Functional linguistics is a new material for the students of English linguistics in Indonesia. Though it might be new, it is applied in almost every school, especially high schools. Thus, it is important for us, the students of English linguistics, to understand functional grammar approach if we want to teach it to high school students or to apply it in everyday purposes.

According to Inchaurrealde (2005), *"Functional linguistics appeared as a reaction to formal approaches to grammar, especially generative and transformational approaches. One of its basic assumptions is that language is a symbolic system with a certain purpose or purposes, mainly communication, although there are other possibilities too, such as the use of language as an instrument of thought."*

There are three kinds of subject in functional linguistics;

1. psychological subject
2. logical subject
3. grammatical subject.

The logical subject is called Actor. Actor is a function in the clause as representation (of a process).

There are, in fact, three semantic categories which explain in a general way how phenomena of the real world are represented as linguistic structure. These are:

- Circumstances
- Processes
- Participants

Through the system of **transitivity**, we shall be exploring the clause in its who=does=what=to=whom, who/what=is=what/who, when, where, why, and how function.

Halliday (2004) states *"The most powerful impression is that it consists of a flow of events, or goings on. This flow of events is chunked into quanta of change by the grammar of the clause: each quantum of change is modeled as a figure*

– *a figure of happening, doing, sensing, saying, being or having. All figures consist of a process unfolding through time and being participants directly involved in this process in some way*”. The transitivity specifies the different types of process that are recognized in the language, and the structures by which they are expressed.

According to Halliday (1985) and Gerot and Wignell (1995), there are three components in a process which explain in a general way how phenomena of the real world are represented as linguistic structures. These are:

- Processes
- Participants in the process
- Circumstances associated with the process

English language structures each experience as a semantic configuration, consisting of process, participants, and (optionally) circumstantial elements.

Typical functions of group and phrase classes:

type element:	typically realized by:
Process	verbal group
Participant	nominal group
Circumstance	adverbial group or prepositional phrase
E	

Example:

The lion	Chased	the tourist	lazily	through the bush
Participant	Process	Participant	Circumstance	Circumstance
nominal group	verbal group	nominal group	adverbial group	prepositional phrase

In conclusion, a process involves the process itself, participant(s), and circumstance(s) which is optional.

Halliday (2004:171) divided the types of processes in English transitivity into three major categories; **material**, **mental** and **relational**. On the borderline between the ‘material’ and ‘mental’ are **the behavioral processes**: those that represent the outer manifestations of inner workings, the acting out of processes of consciousness (e.g people are laughing) and psychological states (e.g *they were sleeping*) . *on the borderline of ‘mental’ and ‘relational’* is the category of **the verbal processes**: symbolic relationship constructed in human consciousness and enacted in the form of language, like saying and meaning (e.g the ‘verbal’ clause we say, introducing a report of what was said). And on the borderline between the ‘relational’ and ‘material’ are the processes concerned with existence, **the existential**, by which the phenomena of all kind of simply recognized to ‘be’ – to exist, or to happen (e.g *today there’s Christianity*

in the south). In this research,, the present writer is limited only to the material processes.

The material process (the process of doing-and-happening) express the notion of participant (called actor) does something (maybe to some other entity called goal). A Material clause construes a quantum of change in the flow of events as taking place through some input energy. Here is short example of concrete ‘material’ clauses serving to construct the procedure.

*Each year, replace the fruiting road by tying down a lateral in its place. Either **tie down** 1 shoot and cut it off where it meets the next vain, or **tie down** 2, one each way, and cut them where they meet the neighbouring lateral.* (Mark Spiller, *Growing Fruity*, 1982. Penguin books. In Halliday 2004:179).

The material clauses construe the procedure as a sequence of concrete changes in the trees brought about by the person being instructed—the implicit ‘you’ (which could be may explicit, as in you replace the fruiting road). In the example above, and in ‘material’ clauses in general, the source of the energy bringing about the change is typically a participant – the Actor- who replaces the fruiting rod, which is the Goal. The verbs use in material processes are action verbs such as catch, spring, replace, etc.

Material processes are processes of ‘doing’. They express the notion that some entity ‘does’ something –which may be done ‘to’ some other entity. Clauses with a material process obligatorily have a doing (process) and a doer (participant). The traditional view of transitivity in western linguistics is as follows.

- Every process has an Actor.
- Some processes, but not all, also have a second participant, which we shall call a Goal.

Example:

the lion	sprang
Act or	Process

the lion	caught	the tourist
Act or	Process	Goal

The term Goal implies ‘directed at’; but there is another term that has been used. The relevant concept, however, is more like that of ‘one to which the process is extended’. The concept of extention is in fact the one that is embodied in the classical terminology of ‘transitive’ and ‘intransitive’.

From the examples above, the verb spring is said to be intransitive, and the verb catch is said to be transitive. These, as a matter of fact, relate more appropriately to the clause than to the verb. There are two varieties of material processes: ‘doing to’ or dispositive type and ‘bringing about’ or creative type. The participant that results from the creative process is still referred to as Goal.

Handel	wrote	the messiah
Actor	Process	Goal

In the dispositive type, we have doings and happenings.

Kerr	dismissed	Whitlam
Actor	Process	Goal

the	tripped
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bushwalker	
Actor	Process

the gun	discharged
Actor	Process

Material processes ‘take’ both the active voice (as above) and the passive.

Whitlam	was dismissed	by Kerr
Goal	Process	Actor

the gun	was discharged
Goal	Process

With some of these, we are more used to meeting the process in middle voice (one participant).

the fuel	ignites
Actor	Process
the gun	discharged
Actor	Process

We can recognize a material process by using the ‘do’ probe. What did X do (to Y)? What happened to Y?

However, it is important to recognize that there may be more than one kind of process in the grammar of a language; and that the functions assumed by the participants in any clause are determined by the type of process that is involved. We, therefore, need to broaden our view of what constitute ‘goings-on’.

Jack and Jill	went	up the hill
Actor	Process	Circumstance

to fetch	a pail of water
Process	Goal

Jack	fell	down
Actor	Process	Circumstance

And	broke	his crown
	Process	Goal

And	Jill	came tumbling	after
	Actor	Process	Circumstance

So, **material processes** are processes about doing, about action. Actions involve actors, or participants. Participants are realized by nominal group.

1. 1. 1. Processes in which there’s only one participant: these processes are called middle, or intransitive. This are clauses in which ‘someone does something’, and are probed by asking ‘what did x do?’.
2. 2. 2. Processes in which there are two (or more) participants: these are called affective, or transitive. These are clauses in which ‘someone does something and the doing involves another entity’.

Transitive clauses are probed by 'what did x do to y?'.

Participants are close to the center, they are directly involved in the process, bringing about its occurrence or being affected by it some way. The nature of participants will vary according to the type of process and the configuration of process and participants constitutes the experiential center of the clause. Participants are inherent in the process: every experiential type of clause has at least one participant and certain types have up to three participants – the only exception being clauses of certain meteorological process, such as *it's raining*, *it's snowing*, *it's hailing* (but not all; for example, *we say the winds blowing* rather than *it's winding*.) (Halliday, 2004: 175-176).

In material clauses in general, the source of energy bringing about the change is typically a participant – the **Actor**. The Actor is the one that does the deed – that is, the one that brings about the change. This participant brings about the unfolding of the process through time, leading to an outcome that is different from the initial phase of unfolding. This outcome may be confined to the actor itself, in which case there is only one participant inherent in the process. Such 'material' clause represents a happening and, using traditional terminology, we can call it intransitive. Alternatively, the unfolding of the process may extend to another participant, the **Goal**, impacting in some way.

Gerot and Wignell (1994:56) explain the goal is most like the traditional direct object, which we're told only transitive verbs may take. This is interesting since more than 40% of verbs in the dictionary are listed as being both transitive and intransitive. The reason for the non-congruence is that verbs in and of themselves are not transitive or intransitive.

The mayor	dissolved	the committee
Actor	P rocess	Goal

According to Eggins (2004) "*The goal is that participant at whom the process is directed, to whom the action is extended*". It is the participant treated in traditional grammar as the Direct Object, and it usually maps on to the Complement participant in the Mood analysis. The Goal is usually what becomes subject in the passive.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present writer will try to analyze the material process in English clauses which is followed by the conclusion about which process and participant are dominant in the English clauses.

Goals to be achieved in this research are:

1. What are the types of verb occur in transitivity clauses?
2. What are the forms of process found in transitivity clauses?

DATA AND METHODS

The data were taken and collected from a novel "*Confession of a Shopaholic*" written by Sophie Kinsella. The novel is...these were best selling novel in 2000. Because of its popularity, these novels were made as movie and became one of favorite movie in that time. The story was about the actor of the story who loves to shop and find her soul mate. The writer wrote down the clauses found from the novel, then classified them. Having been classified, the data are then described to probe whether they are material process. The data are literally and followed by the analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

(1) 'I know,' I beam. 'I bought it to wear on my January special!'

'Have you got a January special?' says Suze.

'Ooh, what's it about?'

'It's going to be called Becky's Fundamental Financial Principles,'

I reach my lip gloss.

'It should be really good. Five ten-minute slots, just me!'

I	reach	my lip gloss
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Actor	Process: Material	Goal
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The data above describes the verb as material process that contain in English clauses. ‘I’ as an actor, ‘reach’ as a material and ‘my lip gloss’ as a goal. The form of the process in the data above is ‘doing’ when the actor have to do something to get the goal.

(2) I never knew that!

Luke is so driven and businesslike and you think he doesn’t care about anything except work... and then all of a sudden, he surprises you.

“Teach me how to do that!”

I cry excitedly. “I want to be able to do that”.

“And me!” says Danny.

He picks up the other cocktail shaker

He	picks up	the other cocktail shaker
Actor	Process: material	Goal

The process happening in this data is material process, introduced by verb ‘picks up’. The first participant is the Actor, introduced by ‘he’ and the second participant is the Goal, introduced by ‘the other shaker’. The actor express the notion that some entity ‘does’ something –which may be done ‘to’ some other entity.

(3) I make a grab.

But it lands in the sofa.

“Butterfingers!” mocks Danny.

“Come on, Becky.

You need to get in practice for catching this bouquet on this wedding”.

I	make	a grab
Actor	Process: material	Goal

The process happening in this data is material process, introduced by the verb ‘make’. The participant is the actor ‘I’ and goal ‘a grab’. The actor supposed to be the one who does some things that become process of doing in the clause.

The form of the process in the data is happening. In the set up, the actor, Becky, does something when she gets panic and tries to grab the thing from Danny. Unfortunately, she can’t get it and Danny mocks her.

(4) “OK, here’s mine,” says Suze excitedly.

She opens a wardrobe door.

There’s a simply white silk and velvet with long sleeves and a traditional long train.

She	opens	a wardrobe door
Actor	Process: material	Goal

The process happening in this data is material process, introduced by the verb ‘opens’. The participant is the actor ‘she’ and goal ‘a wardrobe door’. In this clause, the actor does something that makes the goal happen.

1. (5) “We were very pleased with Tom and Lucy’s wedding cake”. Janice sighs. “We’ve saved the top for the top christening. You know, they are with us at the moment. They will be around to offer their congratulations, I’m sure. Can you believe they’ve been married a year and a half already!”
“Have they?” **Mum takes a sip of coffee.**

Mum	takes	a sip of coffee
Actor	Process: material	Goal

The process happening in this data is material process, introduced by the verb 'takes'. The participant is the actor 'mum' and the goal 'a sip of coffee'. In the data above the actor do something to other entity (goal).

CONCLUSION

The data in this paper revealed that there are 30 data which contain different result. But the data contain material process. The data involve five data. Having analyzed some clauses found from the data, there are some conclusions that can be drawn which is every process has an Actor and some processes, but not all, also have a second participant, which we shall call a Goal. In material processes, the actor is supposed to be the one who does something.

Limitation of study

According to Halliday (2004) there are six processes in transitivity, but this research is limited only to the material process that found in transitivity clause. This research also describes the forms of the material processes.

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IS THERE ANY RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TASK-BASED ACTIVITIES AND READING COMPREHENSION OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS?

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at examining the influence of task-based activities (four specific types of tasks: matching, form-filling, labeling, and selecting) on reading ability in students of English as a foreign language and to identify if there was any correspondence between task type and students' Listening Proficiency level. Ninety senior EFL learners of Chamran high school in Andimeshk, Iran participated in this study. The sources of data for this quasi-experimental study included two task-based tests of reading comprehension and a test of language proficiency. Analysis of the findings indicated that there was a significant relationship between the three tasks of "matching, labeling, and form-filling" on the one hand and reading comprehension on the other. However, no such relationship was observed between the task of "selecting" and reading comprehension. Moreover, the results of the participants' performance on each task at each level of language proficiency showed that among the four tasks of the study only the "selecting" task did not correspond with the three levels of language proficiency. The participants, according to the results of the post-test, showed no improvement over the task of "selecting".

KEYWORDS: Reading comprehension, task types, and EFL learners.

INTRODUCTION

General background

Reading comprehension traditionally has drawn the least attention of the four skills (reading, writing, reading, and speaking) in terms of both the amount of research conducted on the topic and its place in language teaching methodology (Morley, 1990; Rivers, 1981). This neglect may have stemmed from the fact that reading is considered a passive skill, and from the belief that merely exposing the student to the spoken language is sufficient for reading comprehension. During the time when audiolingualism was the prevailing approach in foreign language teaching, it was assumed that students' reading skill would be enhanced automatically as a result of their repetition of dialogues and pattern drills. Accordingly, developing the reading skill per se was allocated very little attention in foreign language classrooms, and most structured reading practice took place in the language laboratory (Herron & Seay, 1991). This approach more or less has also been prevalent in Iran. In fact, little effort has been expended on the part of English teachers to enhance students' reading comprehension ability per se.

Obviously, the most pervasive changes to language teaching practice over the last twenty years are those that can be described as communicative language teaching (CLT). Chastain (1988, p. 163) believed that by the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in the history of language teaching and learning, the goal of language teaching and learning shifted to achieving communicative competence. As far as CLT is concerned, one can claim that it paid attention to all the four skills of language—reading, reading, speaking, and writing. Reading was no longer believed to be a passive skill. CLT and its subsequent branches considered reading as an active skill. One of CLT's subsequent divisions has been Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), which is based on using tasks as the core of language teaching and learning.

Tasks for Reading Comprehension

As a general rule, exercises for reading comprehension are more effective if they are constructed around a task. The students should be "required to do something in response to what they hear that will demonstrate their understanding" (Dunkel, 1986, p. 104; Ur, 1984, p. 25). Examples of tasks are answering questions appropriate to the learners' comprehension ability, taking notes, taking dictation, and expressing agreement or disagreement. However, Dunkel (1986) and Wing (1986) suggested that reading activities should require the students to demonstrate reading skills. Consequently, reading exercises should be dependent upon students' skills in reading, rather than skills in reading, writing, or speaking.

There are different types of tasks that the students can perform without speaking, reading, or writing. One is a transferring exercise that involves "receiving information in one form and transferring the information or parts of it into another form" (Richards, 1983, p. 235), such as drawing a picture or a diagram corresponding to the information given (Dirven & Oakeshott-Taylor, 1985; Dunkel, 1986; Lund, 1990; Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Richards, 1983; Ur, 1984). Another kind of reading task is a matching exercise that involves selecting a response from alternatives, such as pictures and objects that correspond with what was heard (Lund, 1990; Richards, 1983). Samples of this type of exercise are choosing a picture to match a situation and placing pictures in a sequence, which matches a story or set of events (Richards, 1983). The other type of reading task involves physical movement (Dunkel, 1986; Lund, 1990; Ur, 1984); that is, the students have to respond physically to oral directions.

Few empirical studies, however, have explored the potential relationship between task-based approach and language skills, specifically the reading comprehension.

Task-based language teaching

Task has been defined in a variety of ways. Nunan (1999), for example, defined a task as:

"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. The task should also have

a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end. (p. 25)”

Littlewood (2004) made a distinction between a task and an exercise. It is said that a task is meaning-focused whereas an exercise is form-focused. Although a task has got a non-linguistic outcome, an exercise has a linguistic outcome, and finally a task is connected with the pragmatic meaning but an exercise deals with the semantic meaning.

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.

Jean and Hahn (2006) explored teachers' perceptions of task-based language teaching (TBLT) in a Korean secondary school context. The participants were 228 teachers (153 females, 75 males) at 38 different middle and high schools in Korea. A three-page questionnaire (including demographic questions, questions about the basic concept of task and principle of task-based instructions, and questions related to teachers' position on classroom practice of TBLT) was used to measure Korean EFL teachers' perception of TBLT in a classroom setting. The overall findings of the survey showed that the majority of respondents had a higher level of understanding about TBLT concepts, regardless of teaching levels, but there existed some negative views on implementing TBLT with regard to its classroom practice.

In conclusion, it can be claimed that reading in an L2 has received relatively little attention by researchers despite its obvious importance both as a skill in its own right and as one of the primary sources of language acquisition. In addition to the research reported above, there is some supporting evidence that a meaning-centered approach is effective in developing proficiency (for example, Lightbown, 1992), and there is also growing experimental evidence that the attention to form that arises from the negotiation of meaning in task-based activity promotes acquisition (for example, Mackey, 1999). Despite the Ellis (2003, p. 209) claim that no empirical study has ever investigated the effect of task-based methodologies on EFL learners' reading abilities, this study has demonstrated that tasks can serve as an effective methodological tool for investigating both theoretical and pedagogically relevant aspects of reading.

The purpose of this study was to test the practical usefulness of task-based approach in teaching reading. The study sought to determine whether teaching reading through task-based approach could be influential in EFL reading improvement. Because the previous studies in this regard had hardly dealt with applying the tasks designed by the researcher, this study afforded exclusivity to the literature in the sense that it encompassed the four specific task types specified: labeling, selecting, matching, and form-filling. For the labeling task, the participants were asked to label buildings on a map. For the selecting task, the participants were asked to choose a film from three trailers. For the matching task, the participants were asked to match descriptions to the pictures; and finally for the form-filling task, they were asked to fill out a hotel registration form.

As far as teaching reading is concerned, the findings of this study will help foreign language teachers to choose the appropriate way of teaching reading to EFL learners. This study, following the previous ones, focused on the effects of the task-based activities on improving EFL learners' reading ability. Because the questions raised in this study have not been dealt with in the previous literature, it makes this study an important scholarly investigation. Therefore, it was intended to give the researcher enough confidence that the study is well worth the effort as it, in turn, will enhance the existing theories on task-based methodologies.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study was concerned with the investigation of the effect of four specific types of tasks on Iranian EFL learners' reading ability. Furthermore, the investigation of the probable correspondence between the tasks and students' language proficiency level added to the novelty of the study.

This study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant relationship between task type and Iranian EFL learners' reading ability?
2. What type(s) of task correspond to the students' language proficiency level?

METHODOLOGY

Setting and participants

The participants of this study were chosen from among the senior EFL learners of Chamran high school in Andimeshk, Iran. Ninety students were chosen randomly. They had studied English at language institute for ten semesters or so, and could easily follow the reading procedure designed by the researcher. Then they were put into three levels of intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced based on their scores in an Examination for the Certificate of Proficiency in English (ECPE) test. They were all female and their ages ranged from 19 to 26. Based on the results of the pre-test (language proficiency test) of the study, the researcher noticed that their reading comprehension suffered. By promoting the importance of reading and its role in foreign language learning, the participants were gradually motivated, and an attempt was made to keep them motivated during the course via the presentation of interesting and authentic topics.

Instrumentation

Pre-test

The pretest in this study consisted of two parts: a test of language proficiency and a task-based test of reading comprehension (both made reliable through KR-21 formula). The two tests showed a reliability coefficient of 0.79 and 0.83 respectively. The language proficiency test was a simulated ECPE proficiency test (Briggs, Dobson, Rohlck, Spaan & Storm, 2001), which in its entirety was run in order to enable the researcher to judge the learners' language proficiency level. Because of their subjectivity, the speaking and writing sections were removed. Time limitation was another reason for the researcher to delete half of the whole items of other sections (25 items from 50 items of reading; 35 items from 70 items of grammar and vocabulary; and 15 items from 30 items of reading). In order to have randomly selected items, the researcher selected only the odd items of the test. Being put into three levels of language proficiency (intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced), the participants took the task-based test of reading comprehension (Cameron, 2000), and their scores were compared with the results of the post-test. This test helped the researcher track the learners' reading improvement. The test had four sections, each devoted to one of the four tasks consisting of 8 items. So, the whole test consisted of 32 items. Thirty-two minutes were allowed plus 5 minutes to check answers and to transfer them to the answer sheet. The participants were instructed to listen to the four separate sections and answer the questions as they were reading. The tape was played only once.

Post-test

The post-test in this study was another sample task-based test of reading comprehension (Cameron, 2000) to determine the efficacy of the task types on the reading comprehension of EFL learners and to see whether there were any significant relationships between the tasks and students' language proficiency level. The post-test had the same characteristics of the task-based pre-test of reading comprehension.

Procedure

The study was conducted at the start of the term (each educational year in Sadra English Institute is divided into four terms). In order to determine the participants' level of language proficiency, an ECPE test was administered. Students whose scores fell $+ 0.5$ standard deviation (SD) or more above the mean were considered advanced learners. Those students whose scores fell between $+ 0.5$ SD above and $- 0.5$ SD below the mean were considered as upper-intermediate. And finally those whose scores fell from $- 0.5$ to -1 SD below the mean were chosen to represent intermediate group. This way, there were three groups of intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced. After putting them into three groups, they were given special reading tasks for the whole term that took twenty sessions (10 weeks, two sessions a week). In fact, special reading tasks were designed for each group to be practiced through the task-based approach. The four tasks were labeling, selecting, matching, and form filling, which were applied according to the framework introduced in Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 244). The four tasks were

practiced by each of the three groups of participants. Because the four tasks specified in this study were purely receptive ones and there was no demand on the subjects' part for language production, the validity of the tasks was protected.

The rationales for choosing a task-based syllabus and adopting its principles as the means of conducting this study are summarized as follows:

1. According to Prabhu (1987), the engagement of learners has been emphasized in these syllabuses. Tasks establish a reasonable challenge and are cognitively motivating so that their accomplishment will provide learners with a sense of achievement.
2. According to Ellis (2003, p. 209), tasks serve as a suitable unit for specifying learners' needs and thus for designing specific purpose courses.

Among the various reading tasks, the researcher selected these four specific types because they were purely receptive ones in contrast with others (e.g., note-taking), and there was no demand for language production on the part of the learners. This way, the researcher tapped the participants' reading ability both before and after the instruction.

Concerning the selection of reading materials that would fit each level of proficiency appropriately, Scrivener (1994, p. 150) argued that it is not the material (the recording) that should set the level of the lesson: it is the task. In practice, however, he acknowledged that some tapes, of course, are naturally going to seem more appropriate for specific levels of students. Thus a tape of someone asking for directions in the street is more likely to be usable at a lower level than, say, a discussion on complex moral issues. In this study the four types of tasks were practiced by each of the three groups, and they only differed regarding the topic and language system (grammar and vocabulary). The difficulty level of the taped texts was determined via Fog readability formula (Farhady, Jafarpoor, & Birjandi, 2000, p. 282). Cameron (2000) also claimed that these types of tasks are quite suitable for all levels of language proficiency.

Concerning the lesson plan or the sequence of class activities, the following route-map was made and implemented throughout the course: a) lead-in, b) pre-task-work, c) the actual task, d) tape playing, and e) feedback on the task.

Lead-in: involved pre-reading activities, introduction to topic, discussion, looking at pictures.

Pre-task work: included looking through worksheet, work on vocabulary, prediction.

The actual task: involved performing each of the four actual task types of the study, e.g. filling out a hotel registration form.

Tape playing: the teacher first played the tape and then asked the students to perform the task individually. If they could not achieve the point individually, the teacher would play the tape a number of times so that the students could discover the correct words and compare their findings in pairs or in groups after each time of playing. The repeated this strategy until students could discover the exact words and could obtain the teacher's approval. Eventually, if they could not find it, the teacher provided the exact word.

Prabhu (1987) stated that learners must be encouraged to complete the task on their own, so they should be provided with such a chance. This resulted in "sustained self-dependent effort by learners" and could help to foster independence and autonomy (p. 58). Nunan (1989) believed that working on one's own could be intrinsically motivating.

However, working collaboratively on tasks would enable learners to perform beyond the capacities of any individual learner. Dewey (1916, p. 302), many years ago, held that "certain capacities of an individual are not brought out except under the stimulus of associating with others." Jacobs (1998) provided a comprehensive list of ten potential advantages of group/pair work for language pedagogy. Among these were increase in motivation, independence, enjoyment, and social integration.

With regard to the above-mentioned claims, the researcher chose to take an eclectic approach, including both individual and collaborative learning endeavors on the part of the learners. Feedback on the task depended on the learners' performance (whether they had done the task successfully or not).

As far as task sequencing was concerned, the tasks and materials were graded so as to facilitate maximum learning. In effect, this required determining the complexity of individual task types so that tasks would match to learners' level of development. Widdowson (1990, p. 85) noted that sequencing tasks faces several problems, in particular the grading criteria to be used. He pointed out that we do not possess a sufficiently well-defined model of cognitive complexity to establish such criteria and concluded that task-based syllabuses face exactly the same problem as linguistic syllabuses; they cannot be modeled on the sequence of language acquisition. Ellis (2003, p. 220) mentioned that tasks do not need to be graded with the same level of precision as linguistic content. He believed that the ease with which learners are able to perform different tasks depends on three sets of factors: a) the inherent characteristics of the task itself (**task complexity**), which deals with the nature of input, the task conditions, the processing operations involved in completing the task and the outcome that is required; b) factors relating to **learners as individuals**, which include learner's level of proficiency, intelligence, language aptitude, learning style, memory capacity and motivation; and c) the **methodological procedures** used to teach a task, which can in turn increase or ease the processing burden placed on the learner and are related to the use of pre-task activity (e.g., pre-teaching the vocabulary needed to perform the task) or carrying out a task similar to the main task with the assistance of the teacher, and planning time (i.e., giving students the opportunity to plan before they undertake the task).

Among the above-mentioned factors the researcher chose the most concrete and measurable criteria for grading the tasks. It is also necessary to mention that since the four tasks of this study (reading tasks) belonged to the same class, they had most features in common. As far as the first criterion (task complexity) was concerned, all the variables were shared by the tasks except their input features. With regard to input, the tasks were distinguished based on a) input medium (according to Prabhu (1987, p. 86) tasks involving pictures and diagrams frequently figure in courses designed for learners of limited proficiency.); and 2) context dependency (textual input that is supported by visual information in some form is generally easier to process than information with no such support). Nunan (1989, p. 96) also noted that texts supported by photographs, drawings, tables, and graphs were easier to understand. With regard to other variables of the first factor, no difference was found among the four tasks. For example, when it came close to the "output" section, based on the Prabhu's criteria, all tasks of this study were the same since they consisted of instructions that did not require learners' production. In other words, they all functioned as comprehension rather than production tasks. So, the researcher accordingly ordered the tasks in such a way that the "labeling and matching" preceded the "form-filling and selecting," because the first two were pictorial or diagram-based. The results of the participants' performance on each task in the pretest (task-based pretest) were also used by the researcher. Thus, the tasks were presented in the following order: a) matching, b) labeling, c) form-filling, and d) selecting.

Concerning the second criterion variables (i.e., those relating to the learners as individuals), only their level of proficiency was controlled by the researcher. And finally, as far as the third criterion was concerned, the same methodological procedures were applied by the researcher for the implementation of the four tasks.

The tasks were ordered only on the basis of their complexity, and other factors were taken as neutral (i.e., they were not assigned any role concerning the task sequencing). Of the 23 sessions, 3 sessions were used for administration of the tests, the first two sessions for the two pre-tests (test of language proficiency and task-based test of reading comprehension), and the last one for the post-test (task-based test of reading comprehension). Each session lasted about 90 minutes, and the time was equally divided among the four tasks.

Some general guidelines and strategies were recommended to the students at the beginning of each session. The students were also reminded of these strategies when it was felt necessary before and even after each activity. The strategies devised and adapted primarily from Cameron (2000) were of two types: pre-reading strategies and while-reading strategies:

1-Pre-reading strategies

- Read the question.
- Check whether you have to write your answer, and in what form (a name, a number, a tick or a cross, a phrase, circle the correct answer,...).
- Predict the content of what you will hear.

- Anticipate the words and phrases you are most likely to hear.
- Translate any pictures into words to anticipate hearing them in the reading passage.
- Predict possible answers to the questions to prepare yourself to hear the answers.
- Anticipate synonyms and ideas expressed in different words.
- Concentrate!

2-While-reading strategies

- Listen carefully to any taped instructions for each section.
- Focus on more than one question at a time.
- Do not stop on an answer you do not know: move on.
- Listen for the specific information pin-pointed in your pre-reading preparation.
- Do not worry if you do not understand every word when reading for the overall meaning or gist.
- Write an answer for every question: sometimes your guesses are accurate because your ears hear more than you think.
- At the end of each section check your answers and transfer them with care to the answer sheet.

Based on these general guidelines, the researcher devised specific strategies for the four tasks specified in his study that are in line with those prescribed by most popular syllabus designers like Cameron (2000). These strategies were highly concentrated, and the participants were repeatedly invited to take them into account. As highly recommended for task accomplishment, the strategies potentially encouraged the learners to keep themselves aware of their importance. The strategies for each task type are listed below:

Labeling a diagram:

- Examine the diagram closely in the time given.
- Predict what the parts / sections / places might be called.
- Anticipate how locations / features might be described.
- Listen carefully to instructions.

Form-filling:

- Read the form carefully and think of how the words will sound when you hear them.
- Although you must try to predict, do not cling too tightly to your predictions.

Matching:

- Look carefully at the graphics in the time given.
- Think about what you know about the object in the diagram.
- Anticipate the vocabulary and ideas you might hear.
- Identify the differences between the pictures.

Selecting:

- Read the questions in the time given.
- Anticipate the vocabulary and ideas you might hear.
- Predict what to listen for to decide the answer.
- Do not eliminate any answers until you have heard the text, no matter how unlikely they may seem.

Scoring procedure

The right/wrong scoring procedure was used in this study. A response received a score of '0' if it was wrong and '1' if it was correct.

Data analysis

Once the data related to the three groups of the study were gathered, they were subjected to the statistical analysis of ANOVA and t-test in order to see if the observed differences were significant. Concerning the first question of the study, the researcher applied four paired t-tests to see if there was any significant relationship between each of the four tasks and the reading comprehension of the participants, disregarding their level of language proficiency. As far as the second question of the study is concerned, the researcher conducted twelve paired t-tests (three for each of the tasks) to determine if there was any significant relationship between the task in question and the participants' level of language proficiency.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to find out whether the whole treatment (task-based activities) affected the participants' performance (reading comprehension) in the three levels of language proficiency, the researcher conducted a two-way ANOVA (Table 1).

Table 1: Two-way ANOVA on the participants' performance in the three levels of language proficiency

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Between Group	0.780	1	0.780	6.554
Within Group	3.461	29	0.119	

$P < 0.05$

The F-observed value (6.554) exceeded the value of F-critical (4.18) at 0.05 level of significance, which indicated that the difference between the two means was statistically significant. This difference between the two F-values is high enough to make the researcher confident in attributing the difference to the treatment effect.

The results of the participants' performance on pretest and post-test tasks

Concerning the first question of the study, the researcher applied four paired t-tests to determine if there was any significant relationship between each of the four tasks and the reading comprehension of the participants, disregarding their level of language proficiency.

As mentioned before, the two tests (pretest and post-test), each containing 32 items (8 items four each task) of reading comprehension, were administered to the students. The information was subjected to statistical analysis, descriptive and inferential. To find out whether the differences between the subjects' means on each individual task were statistically significant or not, matched (paired) t-tests were conducted. What follows is a presentation of the results obtained from the analysis of the participants' performances (90 students) on the four tasks (Table 2).

Table 2: Matched t-test of the participants' performance on the four tasks

Task	Means of Pretest	Mean of Post-test	SD of pretest	SD of post-test	t-observed
Matching	4.1667	4.4333	1.47831	1.54374	5.391
Form-filling	4.2111	4.4444	1.48774	1.42301	4.658
Labeling	4.2556	4.5556	1.47306	1.4151	6.176
Selecting	4.2333	4.2889	1.68303	1.63696	1.043

$P\text{-value} \leq 0.05$ $n=90$ $df=89$ $t\text{-critical}=2.000$

The t-observed values for the tasks of "matching, form-filling, and labeling" (5.391, 4.658, 6.176) exceeded the value of t-critical at the 0.05 levels, and only the t-observed value for the "selecting" task (1.043) is lower than the critical t-value (2.000). The above statistical procedures answered the first question of the study: from the four tasks designed for teaching reading comprehension, only the effect of the selecting task was low and the three others improved the participants' reading comprehension as a result of task-based methodology.

The results of the participants' performance on the tasks in each level of language proficiency

The researcher conducted twelve matched (paired) t-tests for each of the tasks in the three groups of language proficiency to determine if there was any correspondence between the task in question and the participants' level of language proficiency. What follows is the presentation of the results obtained from the analysis of the participants' performance on each task in the three levels of language proficiency. As mentioned before, there were 30 students in each of these levels.

Table 3: Matched t-test of the participants' performance on the tasks in each level of language proficiency

Task/Level of proficiency	Means of Pretest	Mean of Post-test	SD of pretest	SD of post-test	t-observed
Matching/intermediate	3.6667	3.9333	1.44637	1.55216	3.247
Matching/upper	4.1000	4.3667	1.47.40	1.40156	3.247

intermediate					
Matching/advanced	4.7333	5.0000	1.36289	1.53128	2.809
Form-filling/ intermediate	3.6667	3.9667	1.49328	1.42595	3.525
Form-filling/ upper intermediate	4.1667	4.4000	1.28877	1.30252	2.536
Form-filling/ advanced	4.8000	4.9667	1.49482	1.40156	1.980
Labeling/ intermediate	3.8000	4.0333	1.49482	1.37674	2.971
Labeling/ upper intermediate	4.3333	4.6667	1.60459	1.47001	3.808
Labeling/ advanced	4.6333	4.9667	1.21721	1.27261	3.808
Selecting/ intermediate	3.9333	3.8333	1.61743	1.62063	1.989
Selecting/ upper intermediate	4.1667	4.3667	1.60459	1.47001	1.989
Selecting/ advanced	4.6000	4.6667	1.58875	1.64701	0.812

$P\text{-value} \leq 0.05$ $n=30$ $df=29$ $t\text{-critical}=2.045$

As it was revealed statistically and also as far as students' language proficiency level is concerned, the study demonstrated that, at the intermediate level, all the tasks showed some degrees of correspondence with the level in question except the task of "selecting." In the upper-intermediate level, all the tasks corresponded with this level except the "selecting" task. And finally, in the advanced level, the two tasks of "matching" and "labeling" showed correspondence to the level in question, and the two others did not.

Discussion

The relationship between tasks and reading comprehension

As far as the first question of the study is concerned, the researcher embarked upon discovering the relationship between each task and the reading comprehension of the EFL learners. The results obtained from the four paired t-tests rejected the first null hypothesis for the three tasks of "matching, labeling and form-filling," and it was verified for the "selecting" task. This means that there was a significant relationship between the first three tasks and reading comprehension; as a result of their application, the reading comprehension of the participants improved. On the other hand, no such relationship was observed between the task of "selecting" and reading comprehension. The participants did statistically better in the post-test on these three tasks and from the researcher's point of view that might be due to the following reasons:

Task input

Prabhu (1987, p. 86) noted that the students in the Communicational Teaching Project (beginner learners in Indian secondary schools) found tasks with an oral input easier than tasks presented in writing. According to Ellis (2003, p. 222), tasks involving pictorial input were easier to process than those that involved written or verbal input, as they made no demands on the learners' linguistic resources. Task types like "matching, labeling and form-filling" that involve pictures and diagrams provided learners with more comprehensible input. The participants of this study, also, accomplished these tasks more successfully and with a greater amount of improvement in comparison with the "selecting" task, which was presented through written inputs. So it was concluded that tasks of the same type with the same input features would have the same effect (the improved reading comprehension) on the participants' performance.

Context-dependency of the tasks

Another possible reason for the students' improvement on the tasks of "matching, labeling and form-filling" might be attributed to the dependency of these task types on the context. Robinson (1995) pointed out that tasks supported by visual information in some form are generally easier to perform than tasks with no such support. Nunan (1989, p. 86) also noted that tasks supported by photographs, drawings, tables, and graphs are easier to understand. The results showed no improvement on reading comprehension as a result of students' exposure to the task of "selecting," and it might be due to the fact that the task was context-free. However, it should be mentioned that the research to date has

failed to show conclusively that tasks involving displaced reference are more complex than those involving contextually supported reference.

Cognitive effect of task outcome

Prabhu (1987, p. 87) stated that one of the rationales for choosing task-based syllabuses is that they encourage the engagement of learners. He believed that tasks established a reasonable challenge and were cognitively motivating, as accomplishment would provide learners with a sense of achievement. Prabhu's classification of tasks rested on an account of the kinds of cognitive operations that underlie the actual performance of different kinds of tasks. It was based on the premise that using language for doing or completing a project-like task fostered acquisition—a premise that is certainly intuitively appealing. Ellis (2003, p. 214) supported Prabhu's claim but considered it as an untested proposal. He stated that in the case of project-oriented tasks, where a single outcome was required in addition to a sense of security that might arise as a result of knowing that there was a definite answer to a task, language learners might show much satisfaction at the end of successful accomplishment of these types of tasks.

In his account of the Communicative Teaching Project, Prabhu (1987, p. 51) introduced project-oriented tasks and suggested that the final product of these types of tasks was of a special type – a completed chart, diagram, table or form, with a unique penetrating cognitive effect on learners' internal feelings. Skehan (1998, p. 107) asserted that although task accomplishment always lead to a sense of satisfaction, the completed outcome of project-oriented tasks caused much more motivation and satisfaction.

The researcher, himself, also observed that when the participants performed the three tasks of "matching, labeling and form-filling" (which fall in the category of "project-oriented" tasks, as opposed to the "selecting" task, and achieved a satisfactory outcome) they became more motivated to continue and to perform several more tasks of the same type.

Ellis (2003, p. 285), on the other hand, differentiated between the task of "selecting" and other tasks of the same type as their tests sought to measure the specific abilities required to perform a task, but their claim to be task-based was less obvious as they did not incorporate actual tasks in their test design.

Classroom exercises of the four tasks and their relative position in the general framework of task-based tests

Baker (1989) introduced a general framework to pinpoint the essential characteristics of TBA (task-based assessment). This way, he distinguished between two methods for the accomplishment of TBA. Baker believed that a general distinction could be made between system-referenced tests and performance-referenced tests. As Baker put it:

- *System-referenced tests are used to provide information about language proficiency in a general sense without reference to any particular use or situation.*
- *Performance referenced tests; in contrast, seek to provide information about the ability to use the language in specific contexts. (p. 10)*

Arguably, communicative tests need to be both (McNamara, 1996). Ellis (2003, p. 284) believed that system-referenced and performance-referenced tests could both be more or less direct/indirect. This second distinction concerned the relationship between the test performance and the criterion performance. Direct tests are based on a direct sampling of the criterion performance. Such tests are holistic in nature and aim to obtain a contextualized sample of the subject's use of language. The measure of proficiency obtained from such tests is not an integral part of the subject's performance but has to be derived from it, e.g., by obtaining an external rating. Indirect tests are less contextualized and, arguably, therefore more artificial. Such tests are based on an analysis of the criterion performance in order to obtain measures of the specific features or components that comprise it. They seek to assess proficiency by means of specific linguistic measures, which are obtained from the test itself.

Baker (1989, p. 13) mentioned that the test of the "selecting" task (a reading comprehension test where subjects are asked to listen to a contrived mini-lecture and then answer a number of multiple-choice questions to demonstrate their comprehension) falls somewhere between the two dichotomies. He consequently emphasized that the

distinction between system-referenced and performance-referenced and between direct and indirect methods of assessment represent continua rather than dichotomies.

Ellis (2003, p. 286) pointed out that the test of the "selecting" task is obviously performance-referenced, but it probably lies somewhere between the direct and indirect kinds. He claimed that it involves language processing of the real-world kind (i.e., reading to a lecture) and in this respect is direct. However, the subject's performance is measured indirectly by scoring the answers to the questions. In this respect it differs from direct tests where the measure of the subject's performance is not incorporated into the task itself but must be derived by an assessor separately through observation or analysis of the performance itself.

The above-mentioned unique characteristics of the "selecting" task accounted for the difference in comparison with the other three tasks in the present study. With reference to these arguments, the researcher concluded that the different behavior of the participants on this specific task might be due to the individual features and the specific position of the "selecting" task among other types of tasks.

Questions involving picture cues

According to Madsen (1983), these types of reading comprehension questions allowed students to benefit from several advantages:

- *There is no need to read the choices, as they are not textual.*
- *The students will have a better control over the items of the whole exercise of a given task. (p. 135)*

As previously mentioned in the methodology section of the study, Cameron (2000) recommended some strategies for a successful performance on each type of the task-based reading comprehension questions and achieving the best possible results. One of these strategies is that students must be encouraged to examine the whole exercise of the task before reading to the taped text and embarking upon answering the items. He considered this strategy very useful since it could help students to predict the topic of the text in advance and to look for what they needed to perform the task during the stage of reading to the tape.

As far as the second advantage of photographic questions is concerned, the three tasks of "matching, labeling and form-filling," designed to be accompanied by photos, let the participants grasp the idea of the task just with a single look. The researcher, accordingly, might assign the participants' different performance on the task of "selecting" to the structure of the task in question as it lacked any picture cues.

Harmer (2001, p. 234) also suggested that pictorial task-based exercises provided students with the ability of quick prediction and the creation of expectations. He advised teachers to incorporate such a pictorial materials into the class reading activities.

One of the Cameron's (2000) recommended strategies of task fulfillment was "prediction of the theme" of the taped conversation, and Harmer (2001) believed that pictorial exercises would make this prediction much more feasible.

In conclusion, there might be a direct relationship between the structure of the question and the ease of the task accomplishment, as some structures would enable learners to overcome the possible troubles in prediction of the theme and in completion of the task procedures.

The relationship between task and the participants' level of language proficiency

As far as the second question of the study is concerned, the researcher, based on the results of the participants' performance on each task in each level of language proficiency, demonstrated the hypothesis of the suitability of each specific task for each of the levels of language proficiency. The results obtained from the twelve paired t-test showed that from among the four tasks of the study only the "selecting" task did not correspond to the three levels of language proficiency, and the task of "form-filling" was not suitable for the advanced level. Again, except for the results of the "form-filling" task in the advanced level that might be due to the procedural reasons, the participants of all levels did statistically better in the post-test on the three tasks of "matching, form-filling and labeling." The participants (in the three levels of language proficiency) showed no improvement over the task of "selecting" in the post-test. So there was no correspondence between the task in question and the participants' level of language proficiency. The researcher concluded that this task is not suitable for all levels of language proficiency and that might be due to the fact that this task is completely different in nature from the other three tasks. From the point of view of the researcher, the unique nature of this task results from its distinctive features listed above.

CONCLUSION

Implementing aural task-based materials in the language classroom exposed ESL students to real-language use from the beginning of language study. The materials reflected a naturalness of form (Rogers & Medley, 1988). Generally speaking, according to the obtained results, the reading-comprehension skill in EFL students tended to improve through exposure to task-based input. Specifically, the three types of "matching, labeling, and form-filling" not only affected the reading comprehension of the participants and improved it but also corresponded to the three levels of language proficiency and proved to be suitable for all the participants at all levels. As it is the case with almost all studies done in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, this study is not free of limitations. That is to say, because of the eluding nature of Task which is defined differently by different people one cannot claim to provide all inclusive criteria to list the problems with which EFL teachers wish to come to a conclusion in evaluating Task-based teaching as an approach in EFL contexts. Therefore, the authors of this paper have not intended to come to an absolute conclusion about the perceived problems with which EFL teachers might face in using Task in their real classes. ALL in all, it is hoped that this survey be of use for all colleagues. All defects of this paper are of ours. That is, no fault is to the participant teachers in this study.

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A GENRE-BASED TEACHING APPROACH TO ACADEMIC WRITING: DESCRIBING VISUALLY PRESENTED INFORMATION IN GRAPHS AND CHARTS

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ABSTRACT

This study adopted a pre-test/post-test assessment of the learner's writing performance to examine the effectiveness of a genre-based approach to teaching academic writing. By comparing pre/post test results it was revealed that the differences between scores was statistically significant ($p < .05$) and a genre based pedagogy is very useful for EFL learners in writing courses. The participants of the study were 60 male Iranian EFL students. Assessment was conducted by comparing students' writing samples, before and after the teaching intervention. The results indicated that the teacher's active Presentation processes at the early stage of the cycle benefited students by making them

aware of the different ways texts are organized for different communicative purposes. In addition, students' confidence level increased and the approach encouraged a positive attitude towards writing.

KEYWORDS: Genre, Academic Writing, EFL, Genre-Based Teaching Approach

INTRODUCTION

Genre is associated with terms such as short stories, science fiction, novels, fiction, satire, and many others. Still the definition of genre is not so vivid. The term genre can be applied to most forms of communications, although it is frequently restricted to literary information. According to Swales(2004), a genre can be briefly defined as a class of texts characterized by a sequence of segments or 'moves' with each move accomplishing some part of the overall communicative purpose of the text, which tends to produce distinctive structural patterns. Writing skill is deemed to be very difficult for English as Foreign Language (EFL) students in language learning (Richards, 1990). According to Richards and Renandya (2002), the problems include those in:

1. Generating the ideas through the choice of appropriate vocabulary.
2. Creating an intelligent text and creating coherence and cohesion in the text.

Genre-based approach arose from research which attempted to translate the Systematic Functional Theory of Michael Halliday in teaching practice. (Martin, 1984 and Christie. 1990)

In Iranian Schools of researched areas, students tend to avoid writing even before they try it. Limited exposure to English especially writing skill in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL, in Iran) causes students to lack confidence to write in English. Test-driven learning also makes them ignore the crucial process of writing in such condition. Students write only to practice grammar at a sentence level for getting high scores on tests. Therefore, when they are asked to write, they face with many problems in conveying what they want to say: selecting proper words, using correct grammar, generating ideas and developing them into a proper organizational pattern. More importantly, they have trouble using an acceptable writing format that conforms to a target language and society, and they strive to manipulate proper language forms for different writing purposes, so it will be very vital for the EFL students to grasp the whole knowledge of writing as different genres to follow string of central ideas in their writings, we mean: the one which is not limited to sentences but holistically cover any discourse in any given text level. FL students are taught from very beginning, how to write sentences and are exposed to many unnecessary grammatical formulas, which lead them to ignore the whole picture, negotiation of meaning and context-based writings, lack of coherence and cohesion.

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate the effectiveness of genre-based approach in teaching students a particular type of academic writing: describing information presented visually in charts and diagrams.

The most important benefit of a genre-based approach is that it is functional, drawing together language, content (theme) and the context of discourse production and interpretation and provides ways for responding to recurring communicative situations. This approach offers a frame that enables individuals to orient to and interpret particular communicative events, and it offers teachers a means of presenting students with explicit and systematic explanations of the ways writing works to communicate.(Paltridge, 2001:3)

The rationale and justification for adopting a genre-based framework is that it facilitates and supports clear links to the students' purposes for writing beyond the writing classroom. Thus, the primary factors in curricular selection are ensuring a balance of text types, to enable students to perform a broad range of social purposes for writing in English in future, and selection of specific genres based on the students immediate academic needs. The programmers seek to support the writing of a graduation essay, a research-based thesis that is a university-wide requirement for graduation in English Writing as the main course of study.

Unfortunately, most of the time on writing in EFL situations is spent on teaching students to generate error-free texts and they ignore social purposes, content and organizational structure of genres, so this study attempts to give direct instruction on how to write a report describing bars and charts in terms of overview statement, supporting sentences,

schematic organization of this genre and using adverbs of contrast to compare information presented visually in charts and graphs.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Cheng (2007) performed a case study of Chinese PHD student in an American University. The purpose of the study to reveal that features attract the attention of graduate students analyzing discipline and specific exemplars, and whether those features remain constant as students become more aware of genre analysis. The subjects' performance improved greatly after receiving instruction on content, organization and Lexi-grammar.

Dudley-Evans (1997) argues that given genres are far from universal, with writing practices are quite varied, depending on cultural and academic background. He studied moves and outlined nine "moves" he has identified in "Discussion" sections of research papers and finds that the order in which they appear is not constant. Finally, He argues that writers choose an order based on their rhetorical aims.

Flowerdew (2000) designed an undergraduate technical communication skills course to consider genre-related issues such as how the communicative purpose of a text and recognized structures and patterns which play some roles in the classroom. He argued that correlation between generic move structure, such as that outlined by Swales (1990). Hyland (2003) argues that approaches to teaching writing focused on process haven't taken into account "forces outside the individual which help guide purposes, establish relationships and ultimately shape writing.

Swale (2004) updates his 1990 survey on genre and its role in both academic writing and in teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Swales approaches genre from both a theoretical and methodological perspective. Tuan Trong (2011) launched a study in Vietnam to examine the effect of genre-based approach on learners' writing performance as well as students' attitudes towards the implementation of genre-based approach in writing learning. Research findings revealed that most of the students gained the control over the key features of the required recount genre in terms of social purposes, language features and schematic structure.

That is functional drawing together language, context and the context of discourse production and provides ways for responding to recurring communicative situations. Genre-based approaches provide an explicit understanding of how target texts are structured. A genre-based course starts with genre as the unit of syllabus, yet includes both formal and functional aspects of language and does not attempts to separate skills. From a systematic functional perspective, a genre approach relates language choices to cultural purposes (Bhatia, 1993).

Teaching is data-driven rather than intuition-driven. In order to create an effective text, students need to know how such texts are organized as well as the patterns of lexis and grammar that are typically used to express meaning in genre, learners need to know how features of situation may impact on the choices that they make in the production of a particular genre (Paltridge,2001:5).

In addition a genre-based approach to syllabus design has the advantage that units are neither too small, as in a structural or functional syllabus, nor too long, as in a skill-based syllabus. Units in genre pedagogy emphasize communicative purpose and allow for the demonstration of typically patterns of textual and linguistic organization.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

This study attempted to address the following research question:

Does genre- based instruction have any effect upon EFL writing in educational contexts?

Null Hypotheses: there is no relationship between genre- based instruction and EFL writing in educational contexts.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Sixty students were selected based on their scores which were evaluated based on previous writing courses. They were upper-intermediate and approximately at the same level of language proficiency. They had received writing instruction in their writing courses during academic study. The participants of the study were 60 male Iranian EFL

students, aged 15-17educating in high schools of Andimeshk, Iran. They were randomly selected out of 125 students. They were studying English two times a week. They were assigned into two classes by the researcher. One of the classes was randomly selected as the control group and the other class as experimental group. The experimental group which received the treatment, another class was not received.

Instruments

The instruments needed for this study were a pre-test and a post-test. A pretest was used to find out whether these two groups were in the same level or not. Then, we needed a posttest to detect the progress of the experimental group due to using the genre and especially genre-based teaching during the instruction. It is necessary to mention here that each test had Completion tests and composition test. The text book used for this course was let's write in English, paragraph writing and writing many Narrative and descriptive compositions.

Design

This study was designed as a semi-experimental research. Our independent variable was genre-based syllabus. The dependent variable was writing achievement. The level of our participants was lower intermediate. We selected sixty male students randomly from among the 125 students in High schools of Andimeshk, Iran. Then, we randomly divided 60 students into two different groups. Each group had 30 students

Procedure

The subjects were asked to write a report based on graph that presented information visually. This study was designed as a semi-experimental research. Our independent variable was genre-based syllabus. The dependent variable was writing achievement. The level of our participants was lower intermediate. We selected sixty male students randomly from among the 125 students. Then, we randomly divided 60 students into two different groups. Each group had 30 students. After receiving instruction based on genre-based approach, and being exposed to many exemplary model genres, learners were invited to write another report based on a graph during post-test. The treatment lasted for one month. Students received instructions on the context, organization and lexicon-grammar realizing academic genre of analyzing graphs and charts. Then the means and standards deviation from the pre/post-test were compared. The graphs and charts used in the study were taken from IELTS Express Book (2006).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results showed that the means scores of the post-test were higher than those of the pre-test(table). This indicates that formal instruction about particular features of the target language is very effective.

Table 1: Comparison between pre/post-test results

No	Pre-test		Post-test		t-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
30	33	2.60	47	35	14.08

The Pearson Product-moment correlation formula was used to calculate inter-rater reliability. Since acceptance rater-reliability was achieved, a two tailed T-test was conducted to investigate the differences in scores both before and after the treatment. Table 2 below shows inter-rater reliability during post-test.

Table 2: Inter-rater reliability during post-test

Post-test	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Content	3.35	3.66	3.45
Organization	2.45	2.45	2.55
Lexicon-grammar	1.75	1.65	1.85

The texts produced after instruction through genre-based approach were analyzed and compared with those generated during pre-test in terms of content (i.e., presenting the main point or an overview and supporting details) and lexical resources (i.e. Lexicon specific to describing trends and grammatical range and accuracy). After treatment subjects wrote an overview statement of what the graph shows by using simple present tense. While during pre-test few wrote the main points by using present progressive (full texts appears in the appendix). Another finding was subjects described the overall trend by using phrases like" one of the first things to note" and" another thing which stands out".

By close examination of texts, we found that learners after being exposed exemplary genres and instruction provided specific details to support a main point through the employment of the phrases such as "for instance, more specifically", etc.

The last finding was that participants used adverbs of contrast such as "while, whereas, compared with, in contrast" to make comparison about information presented through the graphs. We can conclude that genre-based approach prompted not only linguistic skills and self-expression but also rhetorical awareness of this particular genre and participants had become more sensitive to particular forms recurring in exemplars of academic genre of describing information presented visually in charts or/and in graphs and tables.

According to the findings, the answer to the research question, "Does genre- based instruction have any effect upon EFL writing in educational contexts? Is "yes" and the null hypothesis, "there is no relationship between genre- based instruction and in educational contexts" is therefore, rejected.

It was also concluded that ,after observing the results, using genres in classroom setting in EFL situation like Iran will be beneficial. The learners are taught the construction of moves in any kind of social writing especially in writing narration and description which are two important issues in improving the ability of learners and English students to achieve higher scores in writing courses and a considerable increase in construction of compositions and paragraphs in Iran in an EFL setting Iranian students are in an EFL situation and do not have enough opportunity to be exposed to English. In addition, they have little experience of writing beyond the sentence level, and so they tend to lack confidence especially when they are in a basic level class Students in EFL situations need to acquire linguistic knowledge, such as grammar and vocabulary, to write exactly what they want to say. Understanding of linguistic forms and their functions is the foundation of writing to achieve specific purposes in their future. They should also know how a text is organized in an accepted way in a society. The genre approach deals with these requirements for students in EFL situations. It does not neglect linguistic knowledge as a foundation of writing for students who have little linguistic competence. It stresses learning rhetorical patterns of different genres to write in socially accepted ways, which helps students achieve the purpose of writing Therefore, in a genre-based writing class, the teacher starts with building contextual knowledge of the target genre by concentrating on the purpose of the text, the context where the writing occurs, and the elements that make people accept a certain kind of writing for what it is intended to be. After building this knowledge, students move to deconstructing the model text genre and prepare for independent writing by practicing the model genre with the help of the teacher. The findings will be useful for both applied linguists and teachers to note the role of genres in classroom setting (as syllabus) to achieve the ability of learning writing skill.

Conclusion

In essence, this literature review suggests that the genre approach works best when it is joined with the process approach. In the combined process called the process-genre approach, the final artifact is created through a sequence of several activities undertaken after learners understand the structural a linguistic features of a particular situation as reflected in a text. Learners 'steady progress is expected to come out of teachers' facilitation with regards to the appropriate input of knowledge and skills at different stages. Therefore, if the process and genre approach are balanced in the curriculum, student will better improve their writing skills through experiencing a whole writing process as well as realizing the social functions of genres and the contexts in which these genres are used. The genre approach seems to fit well in Iran, the EFL context mentioned at the beginning of this paper. This is because currently Iranian students lack input of English genres, and yet, once introduced to a model; they are usually good at following the given sample because they are traditionally familiar with learning by rote. The genre approach can be effective in helping Iranian students to learn the organizational structure as well as linguistic features of a certain genre. Together with the process approach, the genre approach can contribute to amplifying students' writing potentials.

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Appendix

Task: Look at the graph and write a report and contrast information:

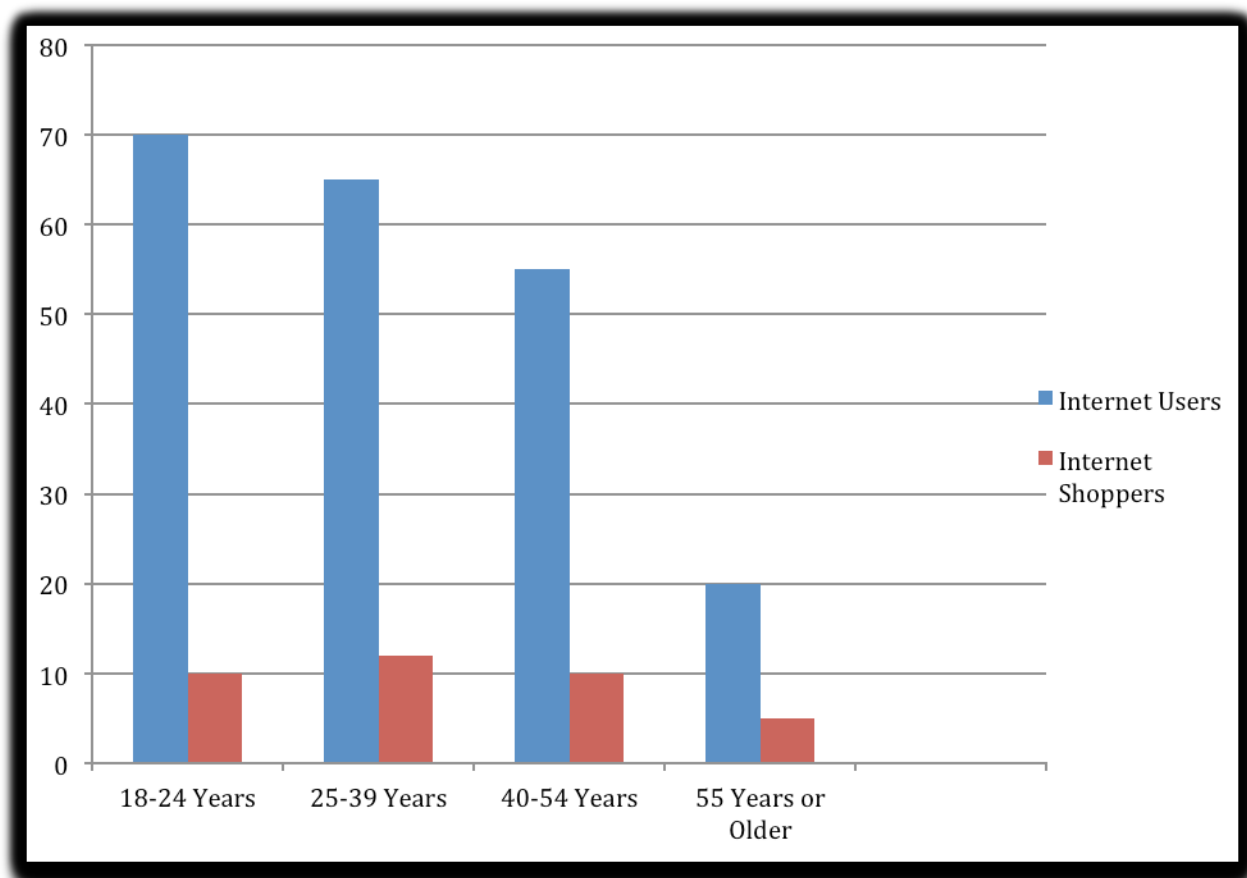
Pre-test Task

Fewer older people use the internet than younger people. 75% of 18-24 years old use the net. Most people use the Internet **for things other** than shopping. Young age group nearly 80% use the net, while only 10% make purchase online also, the number of people shopping online doesn't change between age groups. People making the most purchase are 25-39 years-olds.

Text produced after treatment (post-test Task):

The chart shows the internet is used by different groups. It looks at both general use and online shopping: Overview statement: One of the first things to note is that fewer older people use the internet than younger people. For example, 75% of 18-24 years old use the net, compared with only 20% of 35 years old, another thing which stands out in this chart is that most people use the Internet for things other than shopping. For instance, in the youngest age group nearly 80% use the net, whereas only 10% make purchases online. A final point to note is that the number of people shopping online doesn't change very much between age groups.

Adult Internet Shoppers and Users by Age group



**INVESTIGATING THE CONSTRUCT VALIDITY OF “STRUCTURE AND WRITTEN EXPRESSION”
SECTION OF TOLIMO THROUGH IRT**

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at investigating the construct validity of a nationwide large-scale English proficiency test (TOLIMO: The Test of Language by the Iranian Measurement Organization) which has been developed and administered by the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology of the Islamic Republic of Iran: National Organization for Educational Testing (NOET). In this study, Item Response Theory was used to examine the construct validity of the test. To conduct the study, the performance of 154 examinees on 50 multiple-choice items of “structure and written expression” section of 77th administration of TOLIMO was examined. IRT (Item Response Theory) analysis revealed that a large number of items were fitting the IRT model. Indeed, the presence of 42 fitting items in a test of 50 items (84% of the items) can be interpreted as signaling the presence of just one factor being measured. Actually, this is the factor of ability with no interdependent factors. In other words, these 42 fitting items show a pattern of responses which does conform to the probabilistic relation built by Rasch analysis. All in all, the results and findings of the study indicated that the “structure and expression” section of TOLIMO really measures what it supposed to measure and the scores of this section can be interpreted as real indicators of examinees’ ability level in structure and writing. The findings imply that the test demonstrated construct validity.

KEYWORDS: high-stakes tests, construct validity, TOLIMO, Item Response Theory

INTRODUCTION

As Bachman (1990) asserted, language testing has progressed in recent decades as newer measurement theories, models, methods, and tools are introduced. A good test is one that has at least two qualities: reliability, or the precision with which a test measures what it is supposed to measure and validity, i.e., if the test really measures what it is supposed to measure. These are the sine qua non for any test including *tests of language proficiency* (Bachman, 1990; Walt & Steyn, 2008; Farhady, Jafarpur, & Birjandi, 2006; Nodoushan, 2009).

Proficiency tests have a wide range of applications in the world. For example, most universities use proficiency tests for admission purposes. In fact, proficiency tests as high stakes tests have major consequences or are the basis of a major decision (Torin, 2009). The results of these assessments play a vital role in examiners’ academic careers in many ways including their classification, assessment of their content knowledge, curriculum planning and graduation.

All in all, it can be stated that regarding proficiency tests, now one universally accepted fact is that they will undoubtedly have powerful effects on an examinee’s life. So, they must meet the aforementioned sine qua non—i.e. reliability and validity.

In fact, as Walt & Steyn (2008) assert, “validity has recently emerged as a most important consideration in developing and evaluating language tests” (p.191). Actually, various types of validity have been introduced in the literature such as predictive validity, concurrent validity, content validity, and construct validity (see Bachman, 1990; William, 1995; Gipps, 2003). However, the current concept of validity derives from the work of the American psychologist Samuel Messick in the 1970s and 1980s at the American educational and measurement organization, Educational Testing Service, culminating in 1989 (Walt & Steyn, 2008). According to Messick (1989), validity is a unifying concept i.e., construct validity. Messick (1989) believes that validity is a unifying concept. He means that score meaning embodied in construct validity underlies all score-based inferences. But, he asserts that, “for a fully unified view of validity, it must also be recognized that the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of score-

based inferences depend as well on the social consequences of the testing” (p.19). Therefore, it follows from what Messick (1989) states that social values cannot be ignored in considerations of validity.

There are, actually, different methods that can be used to collect evidence regarding the issue of construct validity. However, the present study uses the IRT (Item Response Theory). The advantages of choosing this method will be dealt with later.

The appearance of Item Response Theory

Over the past fifty years, language testing has witnessed three major measurement trends: Classical Test Theory (CTT), Generalizability Theory (GT), and Item Response Theory (IRT).

There were some points that could not be simply captured by traditional measurement theories like Classical Test Theory and G-theory. Therefore, IRT (Item Response Theory) came into vogue to compensate any of the shortcomings of the usual test theories. Indeed, of the three measurement trends—CTT, GT, and IRT—it seems that IRT has raised much controversy and interest when first introduced to examine the qualities of language tests. IRT is a modern measurement theory which has long intrigued many researchers and has been applied to diverse disciplines for a wide range of issues. Its vast progression and application in educational settings especially in educational assessment implies that it accrues many advantages in exploring various aspects of language assessment. IRT is based on the probability of a test taker with a certain underlying ability getting a particular item right or wrong (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992).

IRT advantages

Henning in 1984 discussed in detail the advantages of the use of Item Response Theory. However, the advantages that are listed here are applied to one-parameter model but may or may not be associated with two- or three-parameter models as well.

1. Sample-free item calibration
2. Test-free person measurement
3. Multiple reliability estimation
4. Test equating facility
5. Test tailoring facility
6. Item banking facility
7. The study of item and test bias
8. Item and person fit validity measures

IRT models

Many models have been formulated within the general framework of IRT. These models can be divided into three families of analytical IRT procedures of the one-parameter (or Rasch model), the two-parameter, and the three-parameter models. In fact, Rasch model models two parameters of item difficulty and person ability. However, by convention, just item characteristics or parameters and not person ability are counted as parameters to label IRT models. Hence, as stated, the one parameter model, also called Rasch model, incorporates just the level of difficulty of an item. The two parameter model incorporates an estimate of discriminability beside item difficulty and the three parameter model adds an estimate of guessing as well (Henning, 1984).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Though the application of IRT-based approaches in educational measurement began as early as the late sixties, language testing began to incorporate such methods only from the mid-eighties onward (Szabo, 2008). Therefore, as McNamara (1991) reported, the application of IRT in the analysis of language test qualities is a relatively recent and controversial development. However, after the mid-eighties there have been numerous IRT-based applications and research projects reported in the literature.

In one line of the study, IRT models were used to detect any item bias which existed in language tests. Bias in tests has become an important issue in recent years. One of the first of such studies which used IRT to detect any item

bias in language tests was conducted by Chen and Henning (1985) who performed Rasch analysis of an ESL placement test in order to detect potential item bias favoring a group of test takers of one native language (Spanish) over another group of a different native language (Chinese). Using the Rasch-based item difficulty estimates, they were able to detect items that were easier for the group of Spanish native speakers.

In a more recent study, Karami (2011) made use of the Rasch model to investigate the presence of DIF between male and female examinees taking the University of Tehran English Proficiency Test. The results of his study indicated that 19 items are functioning differentially for the two groups. Only 3 items from grammar part, however, displayed DIF with practical significance. A close inspection of the items indicated that the presence of DIF may be interpreted as impact rather than bias. Therefore, it is concluded that the presence of the differentially functioning may not render the test unfair. On the other hand, it is argued that the fairness of the test may be under question due to other factors.

Further to the application of IRT in the investigation of item and test bias, IRT has also been used to investigate rater bias. For example, Lumley and McNamara in 1995 attempted to make use of the analytical technique of multi-faceted Rasch to investigate elements of rater characteristics and rater bias in rater training for the speaking subtest of OET (Occupational English Test) which is a specific purpose ESL performance test. In their study, they focused on the stability of rater characteristics over time. Data from two rater training sessions, with an interval of 18 months, and a subsequent operational test administration was used. Lumley and McNamara (1995) concluded that there is large variation in raters' severity across different occasions which can be easily removed from ratings by training. Furthermore, they claimed that FACETS (IRT software) could be used to compensate for the rater variations so as to make adjustment to estimates of candidate ability. In this study, they further discussed the relative advantages of multi-faceted measurement in performance assessment.

In another line of study, IRT models were used for the purpose of item banking in the field of language testing. An early example of this IRT application is presented in Henning's (1986) work. He described the general concept and purpose of IRT-based item banking and then goes on to give an account of a practical example of a Rasch-based item banking project at UCLA's ESL program, highlighting theoretical and practical advantages along with organizational and maintenance issues.

Elsewhere, Yuji (2010) in his paper mainly focused on how Item Response Theory can contribute to the idea of item banking in terms of language testing. He eventually asserted that Item Response Theory facilitates item banking by allowing all of the items to be calibrated and positioned on the same latent continuum by means of a common metric. Also, it permits additional items to be added subsequently without the need to locate and retest the original sample of examinees. Furthermore, an item bank permits the construction of tests of known reliability and validity based on appropriate selection of item subsets from the bank without further need for trial in the field.

Besides the applications enumerated so far, IRT-based procedures can also be used to complement classical reliability and validity studies. On the one hand, some scholars like Skehan (1989), Bachman (1990), and Fulcher (1997) considered IRT as a tool for the investigation of reliability and some others like Hulin, Drasgow, and Parsons (1983 cited in Bachman, 1990) questioned the ability of IRT to provide evidence for construct validity of a trait. On the other hand, many scholars have applied IRT to validate and analyze language tests and emphasized the ability of IRT to provide construct validity evidence (Walt & Steyn, 2008; Alderson & Banerjee, 2002; Embretson & Reise 2000; McNamara, 1991). Indeed, as Alderson & Banerjee (2002) asserted, this new application is an innovation in test analysis.

In a recent validation study, Li (2012) investigated the application of multidimensional IRT models to validate test structure and dimensionality. Li (2012), in his study, reported that the unidimensionality assumption was not violated in his intended test of k-21 assessment. His study provided test developers and users with confidence and truth on appropriate use and interpretation of his intended test. Li (2012) introduced IRT models as the most appropriate tools in test validation studies.

Elsewhere, Embretson and Reise (2000), in their book, focused on how Item Response Theory can contribute to substantive issues like construct validity. In a construct validation study, deJong and Glas (1987) compared the

performance of native speakers with that of non-native speakers on a test of foreign language listening comprehension by using Rasch model and Conditional Maximum Likelihood estimation to examine construct validity of the test. It was suggested that native speakers would have a greater chance of answering correct items than that of non-native speakers but this may not be the case with misfitting items. There would be more overlap in their responses to misfitting items.

As it can be seen, IRT-based methods have also been used successfully to detect the suitability of items for particular testing purposes, the application which clearly estimate construct validity of a test.

Along the same lines, McNamara (1991) discussed exhaustively the controversy over the use of IRT and its theoretical assumptions, in particular unidimensionality. He examined this issue from a theoretical and empirical point of view. This issue was addressed in a context of analysis of data from an ESP test. Findings confirm the appropriateness of IRT to analyze data from an ESP test. The overall usefulness of Rasch analysis in examining the content and construct validity of language tests was also supported.

As stated earlier in this chapter, validity as an important cornerstone in deciding on any tests including language proficiency tests deserves much attention. Indeed, it has recently emerged as the most important consideration in developing and evaluating language tests. Maybe, that's why different types of validity exist to examine different aspects of the test. However, as described in this chapter, the current concept of validity derived from the work of the American psychologist Samuel Messick in the 1970s and 1980s. According to Messick (1989), validity is the unifying concept of construct validity.

There are, actually, different methods that can be used to collect evidence regarding the issue of construct validity. However, considering reported studies cited above, one can conclude that Item Response Theory can be considered as an important method in construct validation studies. It has advantages and was used in different studies both in language testing and other fields of study. This abundance of research by itself is the proof for the significance of the topic under study.

Getting familiar with the importance of validity and the potential role of IRT in investigating validity, this study tried to investigate the validity of a national high stakes test (TOLIMO) used as a measure of language proficiency.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this study is to empirically assess what "structure and written expression" section of TOLIMO claims and whether this section matches or does not match the assumptions in IRT. In other words, it aims to find out if TOLIMO can be rightfully used to assess and evaluate L2 learners' performance.

The following questions are to be answered through this study:

1. Are there any misfitting items in the "structure and written expression" section of TOLIMO in terms of Fit analysis?
2. Does the "structure and written expression" section of TOLIMO measure what it purports to measure?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

First of all it should be noted that researchers outside Sanjesh Organization are barred from access to the information regarding the examinees' characteristics and backgrounds. Hence, the researchers, in the present study, recruited 154 participants. In fact, the data derived from the performance of the participants on the 77th administration of the test of TOLIMO which were used as a mock exam.

As far as one can get from the brochures (Peik-e-Sanjesh) and the website of the registration of TOLIMO (www.sanjesh.org), it seems that anyone who is interested to assess his/her proficiency level in English can sit for the exam, but the examinees mostly consist of high school students, B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. candidates, even English teachers who are required to submit their scores on a test administered on their English proficiency. The researchers recruited 154 male and female participants of different backgrounds. They were students of different fields of study from the Department of Foreign Languages and Linguistics of Shiraz University, Shiraz Azad University, University of Shiraz Medical School, and students studying IELTS and TOEFL preparation classes at an accredited language institute in Shiraz, Iran. This study, actually, was not to access the impact of examinees characteristics on their performance in the test though participants were of different characteristics and backgrounds.

Finally, regarding the sampling procedures, this study used convenient sampling because of the relatively large number of items and the relatively great amount of time needed to answer the items of the tests.

Instruments

The instrument used in the present study was a nationwide English proficiency test which is developed and administered by Sanjesh organization in Iran. TOLIMO is among the high stakes tests in Iran. The Test of Language by the Iranian Measurement Organization (TOLIMO) qualifies as a high stakes test as over six thousands test takers take it in 9 provinces in Iran yearly. To date, it has been administered 81 times.

TOLIMO consists of 150 multiple-choice items on three different sections of structure and written expression, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension. The scaling of scores on this test is modeled on TOEFL scaling procedures. The overall scores of the examinees are reported within a range of 340 to 677. The following table shows the scores and their related ranks in TOLIMO.

Table 1: The scores and their related ranks in TOLIMO

Number	Score	Rank
1	600 and more	Excellent
2	560-599	Very good
3	520-559	Good
4	480-519	Average
5	440-479	Rather weak
6	400-439	Weak
7	Bellow 400	Very weak

Data Collection Procedures

For the first step of the study, the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO was selected to collect the required data. Indeed, there was a convincing reason for selecting this section which goes as the following. In order to avoid violating the well-described unidimensionality assumption, which is one of the fundamental assumptions of IRT models, it was decided to select one of the skills of TOLIMO for the analysis of the present study. As a result, because just one skill is involved in one section, it is less likely to be multidimensional by definition, and therefore the previously-mentioned concerns of the critics regarding the unidimensionality assumption will be taken into account. Besides, local independence, which is another important assumption of IRT models, assured that the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO best suited the needs of the present study. Truthfully, local independence assumption could directly show which skill should be chosen for the analysis. It was actually thought that the reading- and listening-comprehension items which are based on the same passages are likely to violate the assumption of local independence. Therefore, items of the “structure and written expression” section which seems to tap nothing more than grammar were selected to be analyzed in this study. Furthermore, this choice made the study more practical both in terms of conducting the study and interpreting the results.

Thus, the data on the performance of 154 examinees on the 50 multiple-choice items of “structure and written expression” section of the 77th TOLIMO English proficiency test were collected.

Data Analysis Procedures

Having chosen “structure and written expression” section of the test to avoid violation of unidimensionality and local independence assumptions, the researcher attempted to select the appropriate IRT model.

Finally, the Rasch one-parameter model of IRT was selected to analyze the data collected on the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO. It is usually a difficult question which IRT model to choose for the analysis. According to Reeve (2003), several factors are involved in deciding which model to use: (1) the number of

item response categories, (2) the construct being measured, (3) the purpose of the study, and (4) the sample size. Indeed, the number of response categories limits the choice of IRT models. According to Reeve (2003), Rasch one-parameter logistic model fits item responses in the dichotomous format. Second, the nature of the construct being measured will affect the choice of model. In Reeve's (2003) opinion, although unidimensionality is rare, the researcher must decide how much this assumption can be relaxed. Third, the choice of model relates also to the purpose of the study. Reeve (2003) holds the view that Rasch models may be appropriate for defining behavior according to well-understood mathematical rules. Finally, the main issue in selecting the appropriate IRT model for the analysis is the sample size. As reported by Reeve (2003), Rasch models estimate fewer parameters and thus smaller sample sizes are adequate for stable parameter estimates. Reeve (2003) declared that perhaps as few as 100 participants are adequate for Rasch analysis. Linacre (1994 cited in Reeve, 2003) suggests 50 for the simplest Rasch model. This actually makes Rasch models attractive to researchers as large samples are often unavailable. As a result, the present study used Rasch model for the analysis of the data since as Henning (1987) states, Rasch model is believed to provide the most information requiring the smallest sample size.

The next step in the analysis procedures in this study was to choose appropriate software. There are several computing packages such as PROX (Wright and Stone, 1979 cited in Henning, 1987), MULTILOG (Thissen, 1991), PARSCALE (Muraki & Bock, 1997), TESTFACT (Wilson, Wood, & Gibbons, 1991), BILOG-MG (Zimowski, Muraki, Mislevy, & Bock, 1996), etc. which use a variety of estimation procedures to compute the person and item estimates for IRT analysis. However, BILOG-MG computer IRT package was used for the analysis of the data in the current study (for more information about BILOG-MG program refer to the book *IRT from SSI* by de Toit, 2003). BILOG-MG is an extension of the BILOG program that is designed for the efficient analysis of binary items, including multiple-choice or short-answer items scored right, wrong (the same as the type of questions we have in TOLIMO test). According to de Toit (2003), BILOG-MG is capable of large-scale production applications with unlimited numbers of items or respondents. It can perform item analysis and scoring of any number of subtests or subscales in a single program run. All the program output may be directed to text files for purposes of selecting items or preparing reports of test scores. BILOG-MG was written specifically with IRT analyses in mind. So, is very fast and efficient. According to de Toit (2003), it also has many applications in test development and maintenance. To show practically how basic Rasch one-parameter model responses to dichotomous items and the ability of the examinees along the same scale, the whole procedure was done along a number of steps which will be explained in more details with the use of figures and tables in the next section.

The results of the above statistical analyses will be presented and discussed in the next section.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Rasch one parameter analysis of "structure and written expression" section of TOLIMO using BILOG-MG

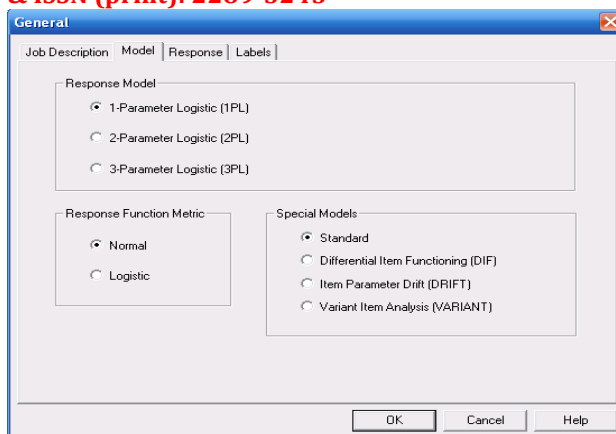
The analysis of Rasch one-parameter model was carried out in a number of steps:

For the first step, the raw data which were derived from the participants' performance on each item of the 77th administration of TOLIMO were recoded to be prepared for the BILOG-MG software package. It should be noted that, the data should be in the Excel format since the data in Excel format can be inputted into BILOG-MG. The choices that were selected by the examinees were corrected in terms of 1 or 0 representing right or wrong answers, respectively.

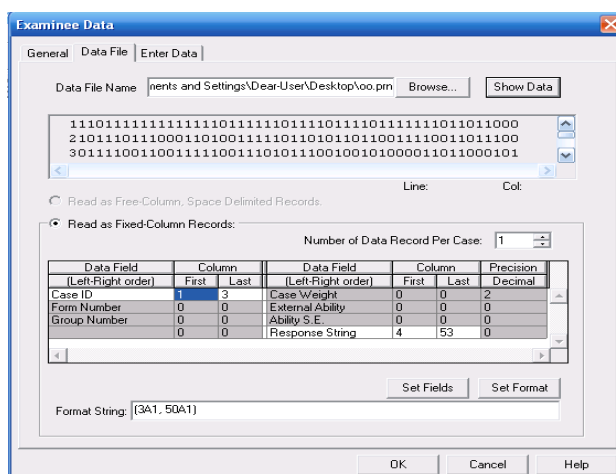
For the second step, the data were fed into BILOG-MG for the first round of calibration. Indeed, when (1, 0) Excel format is inputted into BILOG, it generates the following outputs:

1. PH-1 output (CTT analysis)
2. PH-2 output (item difficulty /threshold values)
3. PH-3 output (ability values)
4. PLT output (item characteristic curves)

The PH-2 output (the second phase of the BILOG-MG output) is the Rasch one-parameter analysis which was used in the present study. The following figures (Figures 1 and 2) show how BILOG-MG was run.



Figures 1: BILOG-MG procedures



Figures 1: BILOG-MG procedures

With respect to the assumption of unidimensionality in IRT analysis, the results in Table 1 present CHISQ (PROB) for the 50 items of TOLIMO test. This table shows practically how basic Rasch one-parameter model responded to dichotomous items of TOLIMO and the ability of the examinees along the same scale in BILOG-MG.

The results of the IRT calibrations using BILOG-MG are summarized in Table 2.

BILOG-MG V3.0
REV 19990329.1300

BILOG-MG ITEM MAINTENANCE PROGRAM: LOGISTIC ITEM RESPONSE MODEL

*** BILOG-MG ITEM MAINTENANCE PROGRAM ***

*** PHASE 2 ***

>CALIB ACCEl = 1.0000;

CALIBRATION PARAMETERS
=====

MAXIMUM NUMBER OF EM CYCLES:	20
MAXIMUM NUMBER OF NEWTON CYCLES:	2
CONVERGENCE CRITERION:	0.0100
ACCELERATION CONSTANT:	1.0000
LATENT DISTRIBUTION:	NORMAL PRIOR FOR EACH GROUP
PLOT EMPIRICAL VS. FITTED ICC'S:	NO
DATA HANDLING:	DATA ON SCRATCH FILE
CONSTRAINT DISTRIBUTION ON SLOPES:	NO
CONSTRAINT DISTRIBUTION ON THRESHOLDS:	NO

1

CALIBRATION OF MAINTEST

TEST0001

METHOD OF SOLUTION:

EM CYCLES (MAXIMUM OF 20)
FOLLOWED BY NEWTON-RAPHSON STEPS (MAXIMUM OF 2)

QUADRATURE POINTS AND PRIOR WEIGHTS:

	1	2	3	4	5
POINT	-0.4000E+01	-0.3429E+01	-0.2857E+01	-0.2286E+01	-0.1714E+01

WEIGHT	0.7648E-04	0.6387E-03	0.3848E-02	0.1673E-01	0.5245E-01
	6	7	8	9	10
POINT	-0.1143E+01	-0.5714E+00	-0.8882E-15	0.5714E+00	0.1143E+01
WEIGHT	0.1186E+00	0.1936E+00	0.2280E+00	0.1936E+00	0.1186E+00

	11	12	13	14	15
POINT	0.1714E+01	0.2286E+01	0.2857E+01	0.3429E+01	0.4000E+01
WEIGHT	0.5245E-01	0.1673E-01	0.3848E-02	0.6387E-03	0.7648E-04

[E-M CYCLES]

-2 LOG LIKELIHOOD = 5552.205

CYCLE 1; LARGEST CHANGE= 0.02057

-2 LOG LIKELIHOOD = 5550.085

CYCLE 2; LARGEST CHANGE= 0.01215

-2 LOG LIKELIHOOD = 5549.440

CYCLE 3; LARGEST CHANGE= 0.00767

[NEWTON CYCLES]

-2 LOG LIKELIHOOD: 5549.1906

CYCLE 4; LARGEST CHANGE= 0.00643

INTERVAL COUNTS FOR COMPUTATION OF ITEM CHI-SQUARES

1. 4. 11. 14. 23. 11. 9. 9. 10.

INTERVAL AVERAGE THETAS

-1.943 -1.521 -1.204 -0.704 -0.295 0.272 0.679 1.175 1.823

1

SUBTEST TEST0001; ITEM PARAMETERS AFTER CYCLE 4

ITEM DF	INTERCEPT S.E.	SLOPE S.E.	THRESHOLD S.E.	LOADING S.E.	ASYMPTOTE S.E.	CHISQ (PROB)

ITEM0001 6.0	-0.251	0.357	0.704	0.336	0.000	8.5
	0.134*	0.023*	0.377*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.2049)
ITEM0002 6.0	-0.194	0.357	0.543	0.336	0.000	8.4
	0.139*	0.023*	0.389*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.2100)
ITEM0003 5.0	-0.734	0.357	2.058	0.336	0.000	5.4
	0.140*	0.023*	0.393*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.3705)
ITEM0004 5.0	0.433	0.357	-1.215	0.336	0.000	4.3
	0.142*	0.023*	0.399*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.5026)
ITEM0005 6.0	0.561	0.357	-1.571	0.336	0.000	11.1
	0.143*	0.023*	0.400*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0052)
ITEM0006 7.0	0.030	0.357	-0.084	0.336	0.000	5.7
	0.126*	0.023*	0.354*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.5733)
ITEM0007 7.0	-0.165	0.357	0.464	0.336	0.000	6.6
	0.123*	0.023*	0.346*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.4723)
ITEM0008 6.0	0.086	0.357	-0.240	0.336	0.000	2.1
	0.133*	0.023*	0.374*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.9130)
ITEM0009 6.0	0.433	0.357	-1.214	0.336	0.000	4.6
	0.136*	0.023*	0.382*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.5899)
ITEM0010 6.0	0.464	0.357	-1.301	0.336	0.000	1.4
	0.136*	0.023*	0.382*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.9635)
ITEM0011 6.0	-0.109	0.357	0.306	0.336	0.000	3.0
	0.133*	0.023*	0.372*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.8142)
ITEM0012 5.0	-0.430	0.357	1.205	0.336	0.000	9.2
	0.146*	0.023*	0.408*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0073)
ITEM0013 7.0	-0.309	0.357	0.867	0.336	0.000	6.0
	0.140*	0.023*	0.391*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.5414)
ITEM0014 7.0	0.343	0.357	-0.961	0.336	0.000	3.2
	0.132*	0.023*	0.370*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.8689)
ITEM0015 7.0	-0.109	0.357	0.306	0.336	0.000	4.6

		0.129*	0.023*	0.361*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.7034)
ITEM0016		0.170	0.357	-0.476	0.336	0.000	4.5
5.0		0.134*	0.023*	0.375*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.4760)
ITEM0017		-0.734	0.357	2.058	0.336	0.000	10.1
5.0		0.139*	0.023*	0.389*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0115)
ITEM0018		-0.369	0.357	1.034	0.336	0.000	6.6
7.0		0.135*	0.023*	0.377*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.4729)
ITEM0019		0.227	0.357	-0.635	0.336	0.000	5.2
5.0		0.134*	0.023*	0.375*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.3956)
ITEM0020		-0.493	0.357	1.381	0.336	0.000	8.1
6.0		0.139*	0.023*	0.389*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.2306)
ITEM0021		-0.165	0.357	0.464	0.336	0.000	7.7
4.0		0.141*	0.023*	0.394*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.1026)
ITEM0022		-0.280	0.357	0.785	0.336	0.000	1.5
7.0		0.127*	0.023*	0.357*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.9829)
ITEM0023		0.114	0.357	-0.319	0.336	0.000	3.2
7.0		0.130*	0.023*	0.363*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.8643)
ITEM0024		-1.138	0.357	3.189	0.336	0.000	2.6
4.0		0.181*	0.023*	0.507*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.6305)
ITEM0025		0.002	0.357	-0.006	0.336	0.000	9.6
5.0		0.139*	0.023*	0.390*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0099)
ITEM0026		0.853	0.357	-2.391	0.336	0.000	4.0
4.0		0.160*	0.023*	0.448*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.4070)
ITEM0027		-0.661	0.357	1.853	0.336	0.000	3.8
7.0		0.143*	0.023*	0.399*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.7997)
ITEM0028		-0.309	0.357	0.867	0.336	0.000	10.6
7.0		0.125*	0.023*	0.350*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.1553)
ITEM0029		-0.939	0.357	2.632	0.336	0.000	6.5
4.0		0.153*	0.023*	0.430*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0063)
ITEM0030		0.142	0.357	-0.397	0.336	0.000	5.6
6.0		0.133*	0.023*	0.373*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.4682)
ITEM0031		-0.280	0.357	0.785	0.336	0.000	5.9
7.0							

		0.133*	0.023*	0.373*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.5522)
ITEM0032		-0.525	0.357	1.472	0.336	0.000	3.4
7.0		0.143*	0.023*	0.402*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.8499)
ITEM0033		-0.309	0.357	0.867	0.336	0.000	0.8
7.0		0.133*	0.023*	0.374*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.9972)
ITEM0034		-0.461	0.357	1.292	0.336	0.000	4.6
7.0		0.136*	0.023*	0.380*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.7115)
ITEM0035		-0.493	0.357	1.382	0.336	0.000	3.4
5.0		0.146*	0.023*	0.410*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.6416)
ITEM0036		-0.525	0.357	1.472	0.336	0.000	5.2
5.0		0.150*	0.023*	0.420*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.3966)
ITEM0037		0.170	0.357	-0.476	0.336	0.000	2.8
6.0		0.130*	0.023*	0.365*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.8316)
ITEM0038		0.198	0.357	-0.555	0.336	0.000	5.2
6.0		0.128*	0.023*	0.359*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.5158)
ITEM0039		0.030	0.357	-0.084	0.336	0.000	9.7
6.0		0.138*	0.023*	0.387*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0082)
ITEM0040		0.853	0.357	-2.391	0.336	0.000	3.0
4.0		0.162*	0.023*	0.455*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.5660)
ITEM0041		0.313	0.357	-0.878	0.336	0.000	0.9
5.0		0.130*	0.023*	0.365*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.9724)
ITEM0042		-0.812	0.357	2.275	0.336	0.000	0.3
6.0		0.152*	0.023*	0.425*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.9993)
ITEM0043		0.433	0.357	-1.214	0.336	0.000	11.6
7.0		0.131*	0.023*	0.366*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0256)
ITEM0044		0.284	0.357	-0.797	0.336	0.000	1.1
5.0		0.137*	0.023*	0.383*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.9498)
ITEM0045		-0.697	0.357	1.954	0.336	0.000	20.0
4.0		0.134*	0.023*	0.376*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.0005)
ITEM0046		-0.853	0.357	2.390	0.336	0.000	6.8
5.0		0.151*	0.023*	0.423*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.2347)
ITEM0047		-0.772	0.357	2.165	0.336	0.000	3.2
5.0							

		0.152*	0.023*	0.427*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.6700)
ITEM0048		-0.165	0.357	0.464	0.336	0.000	8.3
6.0		0.128*	0.023*	0.357*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.2161)
ITEM0049		-1.322	0.357	3.706	0.336	0.000	3.1
2.0		0.190*	0.023*	0.533*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.2156)
ITEM0050		-0.339	0.357	0.950	0.336	0.000	3.4
7.0		0.132*	0.023*	0.370*	0.022*	0.000*	(0.8448)

* STANDARD ERROR

LARGEST CHANGE = 0.006426

276.5 287.0
(0.6618)

PARAMETER	MEAN	STN DEV
THRESHOLD	0.494	1.371

QUADRATURE POINTS, POSTERIOR WEIGHTS, MEAN AND S.D.:

	1	2	3	4	5
POINT	-0.4001E+01	-0.3429E+01	-0.2857E+01	-0.2285E+01	-0.1713E+01
POSTERIOR	0.2689E-05	0.8795E-04	0.1418E-02	0.1218E-01	0.5440E-01
	6	7	8	9	10
POINT	-0.1141E+01	-0.5694E+00	0.2615E-02	0.5746E+00	0.1147E+01
POSTERIOR	0.1323E+00	0.2135E+00	0.2169E+00	0.1665E+00	0.1176E+00
	11	12	13	14	15
POINT	0.1719E+01	0.2291E+01	0.2863E+01	0.3435E+01	0.4007E+01
POSTERIOR	0.5718E-01	0.2078E-01	0.6287E-02	0.8563E-03	0.4213E-04
MEAN	0.00000				
S.D.	1.00000				

60892 BYTES OF NUMERICAL WORKSPACE USED OF 8192000 AVAILABLE IN PHASE-

2

2880 BYTES OF CHARACTER WORKSPACE USED OF 2048000 AVAILABLE IN PHASE-

2

12/05/2013 19:40:08

A closer look at Table 2 reveals that less than 20% of the items misfit the model and more than 80% of the items fit the model. Indeed, this study used α of 0.05. An item was flagged for misfit if the significance level (i.e., p-value) for the observed fit index under investigation was less than 0.05. In other words, items with the CHISQ below 0.05 are the misfitting items. Hence, items 5, 12, 17, 25, 29, 39, 43, and 45 are the misfitting items and the rest of them are the fitting items.

The presence of 42 fitting items in a test of 50 items (84% of the items) can be interpreted as signaling the presence of just one factor being measured. Actually, this is the factor of ability with no interdependent factors. In other words, these 42 fitting items show a pattern of responses which does conform to the probabilistic relation built by Rasch analysis.

All in all, it can be stated that the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO measures what it purports to measure.

Discussion

In the current study, as mentioned before, the first step was to investigate if there are any misfitting items in the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO in terms of Fit analysis and consequently decide on whether the test actually measures what it purports to measure, i.e. construct validity. With regards to Table 2, 16% of the items misfit the model and 84 % of the items fit the model. Indeed, items with the CHISQ below 0.05 were the misfitting items. Hence, items 5, 12, 17, 25, 29, 39, 43, and 45 were the misfitting items and the rest of them were the fitting items. It was also revealed that the presence of 42 fitting items in a test of 50 items (84% of the items) can be interpreted as signaling the presence of just one factor being measured. Actually, this is the ability factor with no interdependent factors. Indeed, this large number of fitting items showed a pattern of responses which did conform to the probabilistic relation built by Rasch analysis. All in all, it can be stated that the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO measures what it purports to measure.

Indeed, no study has been conducted to investigate the number of misfitting items and consequently decide on the construct validity of TOLIMO. However, regarding studies in the same vein on other language tests, Cheen and Henning (1985), Madsen and Larson (1986), and Karami (2011) applied Rasch analysis to detect the misfitting test items.

CONCLUSIONS

As frequently stated before, validity consideration is always an important issue in test analysis. Adequacy, meaningfulness, and appropriateness of interpretation of measures as indicators of a construct or ability should always be established. As Weir (1990) pointed out, “we are obliged to investigate how adequate a test is in operation through available statistics” (p.24). By the same token, this study revealed that Rasch analysis, as an available modern measurement model, has a great potential role in language tests’ analysis and particularly in validation considerations.

Taken together, this study attempted to shed light on the following questions:

1. Are there any misfitting items in the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO in terms of Fit analysis?

As it was explained, Rasch one-parameter analysis was conducted to find any misfitting items in the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO. The results in Table 2 showed that 8 items with the Chi square below 0.05 were the misfitting items (i.e, items: 5, 12, 17, 25, 29, 39, 43, and 45) and the rest of items (42) were the fitting items.

2. Does the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO measure what it purports to measure?

Indeed, this study used Rasch analysis to detect the number of misfitting items and consequently decide on the construct validity of the test. A closer look at Table 2 reveals that less than 20% of the items misfit the model and more than 80% of the items fit the model. The presence of 42 fitting items in a test of 50 items can be interpreted as signaling the presence of just one factor being measured. Actually, this is the factor of ability with no interdependent factors. In other words, the large number of fitting items (42 out of 50) was interpreted as the validity of the “structure and written expression” section of TOLIMO.

Limitation of the study

As with any study, there were limitations in how the study was conducted.

Indeed, since researchers outside Sanjesh organization are barred from access to the information regarding the participants' characteristics and background, in the present study TOLIMO was used as a mock exam. In fact, this lack of access to the real examinees on the 77th administration of TOLIMO was the principal limitation of the present study. Finally, another limitation is concerned with the use of just one ITR model through one software package. Whichever model and software are used, it is wise to use more than one. Using the IRT models through various software packages (PROX, MULTILOG, PARSCALE, TESTFACT) in combination with each other helps to even out inconsistencies.

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**THE GENERATION GAP AND ITS EFFECTIVE SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FACTORS AMONG
ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDENTS OF ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITY, NORTH KHUZESTAN
BRANCHES**

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the phenomenon of the generation gap among English Language students of Islamic Azad University in North Khuzestan Branches. The research Methodology was based on Cochran formula and the sample size was 305. The researchers with Multi-stage and random sampling chose the subjects and the necessary information were gathered by questionnaire techniques. The dependent variable is the generation gap with the four dimensions of social, cultural, political and economic criteria. Studying the status gap values shows that it has a significant difference in the mean values of the parents of the English Language students (parents). The results show that the reference group, leisure time spending and using of mass media facilities has a direct and positive relationship with the generation gap between parents of English Language students. Economic and social situation also affects the rate of generation gap between English Language students with parents. Regression analysis revealed that the independent variables 3/39% of the variation explained by the generation gap between parents and English Language students have the greatest impact on changes in family structure variables and the use of mass media.

KEYWORDS: generation gap, economic and social status, reference group, leisure time spending, social values and the rate of mass media facilities usage

INTRODUCTION

The so-called generation gap indicates strong differences in terms of cultural norms between the young and elderly. The word was used for the first time in Western countries to explain and describe the cultural differences between parents and offspring in 1960s. The concept of generational difference, or gap, in the same category distinctions and differences between experimental and stable cross between the two treatments etc. is defined. First Dualistic distinctions that shaped the political oppositions - of social will, and the other is a social structure, culture and its particular history revealed (The gap between tradition and modernity, the generation gap, the gap between different clusters in society, etc.). To explain the feature differences, different and even contradictory experiences of their generation units together, a whole culture - a particular society and the bigger alliance with a specific structure interaction (consensus or conflict) with each turn. Families as the centre of gravity of the conflicts and differences are the most striking scene of the battle between the understandings of the previous generation (parents) understanding the new generation (the children) are living. The above battle field includes two interactive generations, in the sense that new forms of interaction within the families are with interaction conflicts and, unlike the past when communication was completely obedient.

The wave of modernization that bring along itself universal education, the spread of mass media and many other cases, it leads to increase public awareness and knowledge of the new generation, widened their field of human and social relations. The most natural result of this process was that the new generation, the first generation of social were very hastily, and secondly, in the community, the only source of family and tradition appraiser of it was not that tradition which rule over family. Its different world existence or according to Mannheim, distorted interpretation

of their experiences which was generated due to industrial development and socio-cultural revolutions creates a gap between the new generation and the old generation's theology. And more importantly, provided the emergence of this new band gaps in language and behaviour.

Existing approaches to the subject of generational relations have numerous and varied aspects. So that we can illustrate the social, political, economic, cultural and cognitive gaps...community in the forms of such gaps between the tradition and the modernity, the gap between the rulers and the people, the gap between rich and poor, the gap between the dominant discourse and the spirit of the times, the gap between demand of new generation and old generation (Tajik, 2003: p. 265).

How can we understand what is the source of the importance and necessity of generation gaps and how we can consider and learn the future programming level of human society?

That is in a way by paying attention to this fact that societies are trying to do the planning in a minimum problematic areas in future. It is not possible unless we remove the other obstacles and preventing bans, it is to say that the generation gap phenomenon is one of the mentioned preventing bans, so according to the above highlighted issues we should find a way for solving them. The generation gap starts when the rate of society changes accelerates. However, the endogenous acceleration mechanism is not the product of the local social system. But it is the product of the conflict between native – social system with cultural and mental system that originated from the West (Aghajari, 2003: p. 155).

Two or three successive generations gradually moving away from each other in terms of geographical, emotional, intellectual and value creates a new situation in the so-called generational ruptures. In this situation prevails in teenagers and young people try to disrupt last ties of dependency between their parent or adult generations, and often in this way, they behaviour with defiance and rebellion (Sharafi, 1998: p. 3).

With this point in mind that Iranian society has passed from different and big evolutions such as Islamic revolution and imposed war in the current decades. And with considering the period of renewing social relationships and changing wholesale economic policies and also the young Iranian society and the concerning of all about this generation, we pose this question in mind that, whether it is true to think about the generation gap among generations or not?

There was a major change in culture at different levels, from more formal, intimate and more nuclear families grow up seeking views on equality between women and men, and to demand more than the de- democratization and violence, and to without the integration of faith and much more, all inform us about the conflict between tradition and modernity. Today's progressive tradition that arose from past modernism, keeps its historical character that still has the power and stability. Accumulation demands and aspirations of the new generation is shown enjoying ideologies and coercive instruments, the generation gap in the fields of micro and customary law (in the family) and in large areas of the constitution (the government) as one of the most prominent social issues, the gap that will have a significant impact on the future of Iran.

English Language students in the third generation have different attitude and behaviour in contrast to the parents are the first and second generations despite cultural life. In this study, because of the extent of the problem of the generation gap, we have concentrated on the difference between the value of the parent generation (second generation) and Islamic Azad English Language students (third generation) Andimeshk Branch.

This study is the first study which is done on the phenomenon of the generation gap in Andimeshk city and among university English Language students. In the state –level some research has been done on the generation gap that had studied only one or two cases of the class with student. The value of this kind of research and other studies which cover the sample society of the university English Language students will be clarified when we know the student society because of increasing science and knowledge level and changing traditional values do not follow their parents accepted values and this matter leads to creating problems in the family and society.

In this study we follow to see whether there is any significant difference between methods of the leisure time spending, the rate of mass media facilities usage, social economic status, reference group, the type of attitude toward

family structure among English Language students and their parents or not. Also we are not going to solve the problem of the generation gap, because the way of solving these deep and fundamental problems of the society should be done on the huge research designs with high budget and a lot of time. However, the researchers supply a questionnaire that its questions are only in the format of research hypotheses and over goal is to answer this question that, whether is there any generation gap between English Language students and their parents or not? And if it exists, what are its dimensions?

Theoretical perspectives

Several studies have been conducted on the generation gap inside and outside the country. The Office of National Plans in Ministry of Culture and Education (1999 and 2003), Tavakoli (1998), Azad Armaki (1999), Ghazi Nejad (2003), Moayedfar (2004), Safaei Nejad (2003), Abedini (2005), Pahlevan (2006), Movahed, and Moghadas and Abbasi Shavazi (2006), Ahmadi (2009), Haghghatian and Ghafari (2010), Razeghi (2010), Abuli-Zadeh (2010), Janali Zadeh and Soleimani (2011), Staninger and Lissner (1974) and Ingle Hart have done valuable researches in this area.

After reviewing the literature of this study, it was concluded that the explanation of generation gap or discontinuity theories and theoretical approaches have been presented.

Some of these theories stress the point that a huge gap exists between the generations in the community that may lead to a revolution. But some of these theories claim that the generation gap is not something except than an illusion and imagination and there is a great continuity between generations. But some of these theories have emphasized that there is continuity between generations in the important aspects of life (such as values). In Iran particularly, we can note both optimistic and pessimistic approaches. Some believe there are no excessive gaps between parents and children's priority values. According to the optimistic approach may be said that change is a natural, certainly, necessary and ongoing process. And the procedure of cultural absorption and excretion has always existed and it is considered a cultural feature basically.

In contrast, the pessimistic approach believes that the younger generation has been heavily influenced by Western values and have been mesmerized by its traditional culture which is elusive and distant. Therefore the distance has created between the past generation that sees itself adhere to traditional cultural values, which result in family conflicts and loosening the cohesion of it. Today Common sense or a general sense has well understood which in terms of culture changes and revolutions have occurred. Many scholars have concluded that the different generations before and after the Islamic revolution gradually are passing their separation period from each other.

Many sociological studies and research have concluded differently in our society a generation gap or discontinuity has occurred or is going to be occurred. Even sometimes the studies have been concentrated on more detailed aspects and dimension on the generation gap, and ultimately confirmed these results. But with considering statistical evidence we reach to the result that in Iran the generation gap due to the obedience of values and traditions of past generation is not dominant. According to big changes such as Islamic revolution and experience such as imposed war and global developments in the field of information technology and the extension of mass media we can take this difference as big as possible.

After the revolution, the growing student population, coupled with rapid population growth and efforts to obtain the most valuable and scarce resources has caused differences between generations. Because the high inflation of educated people and the increase of expectations level of society and the lack of suitable job opportunities for them are causing frustration, and in other side, it increases "temporary irresponsibility of youth" in their social life increases. But we should treat to this change and revolution gradually and satisfactorily, because any persistence and resistance in keeping benefits and rolling of each of these generations will result in conflict and struggle and huge expenses. We should take this subjects more serious by considering different theoretical strategies generations gap and the issue of finding distance and generation gap among English Language students as the result of fast social evolutions. The scholars of sociology science have tried to study the generation gap in more different scientific manners and for obtaining morphology (Typology) of these gaps.

Vernon has divided political generations into four categories:

1-Gaps related to the social structure, which reflects the economic and social interests of various social groups are in conflict, in other words, structural cracks are cracks that have emerged relating to the necessary characteristics of an effective and sustainable transformation of human society and are existing in any time. Thus, structural gaps are gaps that exist according to society necessities and are originated from human society. Types of structural gaps include:

- The gap between social clusters
- The gender gap
- The generation gap

2- Specific gaps, which represent the differences and inconsistencies associated with identity and social status group. The racial, ethnic and gender gaps are among these categories.

3- Behavioural gaps, which represent the behaviour patterns of political conflicts among different social groups and individuals. Differences in political behaviour among the private sector personnel and the public sector staff is an example of this gap.

Table 1: Foreign scholars examined theories table:

Row	Scholar	Summary of theory
1	Emile Durkheim	Durkheim believed that societies evolve over time, causing the individual to classify different activities in different institutions that are specialized in their work, it is. As a result of the structure and function of the undergo change is broken.
2	Parsons	Parsons studied the phenomenon of the generation gap in his theory of indirect interaction.
3	Simmel	While membership in one or more of the social circles replaced by social status in the network of diverse social circles, the individual personality will be changed.
4	Mannheim	Mannheim generation relies more on experience and believes that every generation has had different experiences than previous generations (i.e. those who are in a war) that are various classes and have different knowledge, but they have same position and common attitude which is obtained from the common experience of that generation.
5	Ingle Hart	He believed in his book which was entitled as cultural revolution in developed industrial society that the older generation resist against more changes and the change in younger generation occurs more easily.
6	Giddens	Giddens believes that difference between the generations in a modern society is a kind of time consideration. In every generation actually it is to take account of the personal life of the cross beams of the lives grouping in different spans of time.
7	McLuhan	The rapid technological developments in information and communications media such as satellite and internet and wide younger generation access in contrast to previous generations put them in different positions.
8	Neil Selmers	His perspective is critical to the younger generation. He believes that the young generation is stupid, protester and critics and they demand for change is fundamental.
9	Jaclyn Godunov	The lack of agreement between parents and children or parents due to misperception or rejection of beliefs, values, beliefs, and values of true understanding parents.
10	Herbert Muller	Inflation of youth movement (A huge increase in the percentage of its population younger than the rest of the population is very high) will be a force for progress and development to create contrast and exacerbate existing problems worse.
11		He believes that in complex societies based on rapid development, generational

	Eisenstaedt	conflict will be unavoidable.
12	Bengstone	He also discusses the gap of generations from three perspectives are different.
13	Flux	Changes in family structure and its transformation of the extended family to the nuclear family and the various educational recommendations from various educational institutions which posed to parents.

After reviewing several ideas of sociology professionals we realized that this important humanitarian concern existed since ancient times and in all schools and different approaches to the problem with previous generations of young there, which shows in acute situations, the difference between generations in their thinking, behaviour, clothing, feeding and orientation.

Further research and theoretical assumptions of each hypothesis will be noted.

- 1- It appears that there is significant relationship between socio-economic status of family and the generational gap of English Language students and parents.

Ingle Hart (1998), believed that increased socio-economic prosperity is the main cause of the change in the Western societies and says: increased economic prosperity leads to better meet the needs of individuals forming the foundation years (late teenage years), which in turn leads to less materialist values. It is from generation to generation. Therefore Ingle Hart considers of the impact of social stratification. In the view of the wealthy families it seems that they grow up less materialist youth than poor families. According to Ingle Hart trust each other as the family satisfaction and happiness is congruent with high levels of economic development. Life satisfaction, political satisfaction, trust each other, high level political discussion and support of the social order are all together, they are signs of positive attitudes toward the world in which they live. Ingle Hart believes that, relatively low levels of satisfaction and confidence propagation make person more likely to accept the existing political system.

- 2- It seems that besides changing the way English Language students spend their leisure time English Language students and parents generational gap becomes more and more.

The prominent point in Giddens's notion, is in the idea that a new generation is morally problematic than the previous generation. He responded to the question of whether the emergence of a generation of "I" will destroy the shared values and common interests and they are severe and extreme individualism, described that a generation of "I" is a misleading to description of new individualism, that is not the sign of a process of moral corruption; In fact, on the contrary, studies show that the younger generations of today are much more sensitive to ethical issues than previous generations. But these values do not relate to the traditions and lifestyle of traditional forms of authority as a determinant accepted norms. According to him, instead of our own era as an era of moral decadence look, it is reasonable to consider it as a moral transition period.

- 3- It seems that the more use of communication between English Language student's causes the generation gap between English Language students and parents become greater.

McLuhan(1994), believed that although technology is a branch of the human mind and action the man of every age and era is born with the technology of his time. In other words, any technology, put mankind gradually in a new space and each new space is a determining factor in the fate of human life. Thus, the study suggests that McLuhan's theory of media influence on the changes occurring in the values, attitudes and norms of a new generation consider as a highly effective and in general for this reason he has done an extensive study on this phenomenon. The theorist reduced main cause of changes occurring in the value to the media and neglected other factors in the creation of this multi-dimensional phenomenon. The researchers do not deny the impact of this new technology on society. But it is believed that social phenomena are multidimensional and we cannot analyse them only from one side or perspective.

Ingle Hart also considers the globalization of communications as one of the factors affecting the generation gap values. He says that, young people around the world dress in jeans and listen to the pop music, but less obvious differences among values are dominant.

- 4) It appears that less being the parents as a reference group, English Language students' generational gap increases.

According to Simmel(1996), when membership is replaced by in one or more of the social circles of their social status in the network from different social circles, the personality is changed. In this case, the individual personality through participation in various circles, highly branched Georg Simmel theories can be explained as the growth of individualism in the modern world. Growing individualism in the new generation led the ethics and values that affect all areas of life, including standards and criteria for the younger generation are distinct from the previous generation. The influence of individualism in a reference group of young people is also different from previous generations.

5) It seems that, by changing family structure, generation gap between English Language students with parents becomes greater.

Flux (2002), believes that, the change in family structure and its transformation of the extended family to the nuclear family and the various educational recommendations from various educational institutions of their parents have been faced with many challenges. Educational advices to parents regarding children with their parents in ways that they have been developed are in conflict.

Table 2: Educational advices

R	The research hypothesis	Theorist
1	It seems that, there is a significant relationship between socio-economic status with the parents of English Language students , families and the generation gap.	Ingle Hart (theory of change value)
2	It seems that, by changing the way English Language students spend their leisure time the generational gap between English Language students and parents becomes greater.	Giddens (theoretical conflict between tradition and modernity)
3	It seems that, the more use of mass media communication among English Language students increases the generation gap between English Language students with parents increases.	McLuhan (theoretically change the socialization process) - Ingle Hart (theory of change value)
4	It seems that, the less the parents play the role of reference group the more the generation gap between English Language students and parents.	Simmel (theory of the transition from tradition to modernity)
5	It seems that, changing the family structure increases generation gap between parents and English Language students .	Flux (Theory family restructuring)

RESEARCH QUESTION

This study attempted to address the following research question:

Have social and cultural factors among English Language students of Islamic Azad University any effect on their generational gap with their parents?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The English Language students in Islamic Azad University of Andimeshk have been considered as a target population. According to the statistics, about 4500 English Language students are studying in this unit. The number of samples required for this study based on Cochran's formula is 305 people. Sampling in this study is a multi-stage random sampling systematic method. The unit of analysis in this study is the individual itself so the analyses level is wisdom.

Instruments

To investigate the relationship between these variables and the dependent variable Pearson correlation, multiple regression and path analysis are used. After data collection, the data should be edited and processed and then analysed by SPSS software.

Procedure

The methodology is measurement based. In this method, the researcher on the basis of changes of each variable and the search for other characteristics that are linked with it regularly, seeking to identify the causes of social and economic phenomena, such as why the generation gap role of social and cultural factors between teachers and parent English Language students. Theoretical data obtained through documentary study and library and collection of data on sample population used field survey and measurement method.

To determine the reliability and validity of formal validity of questionnaire we used and to determine the type of questions and items, Cronbach's alpha has been diagnosed as the most appropriate approach. The alpha reliability coefficient for the main variables is described below: Cronbach's alpha values of variables between the 55/0 to 75/0 to indicate that the internal solidarity and harmony between the variables related items is appropriate and acceptable. In other words, the reliability and trustworthiness is essential. Cronbach's alpha values of the dependent variable generation gap equal to 75/0, which is a relatively high level.

Table 3: Number of items and Cronbach's alpha coefficient research variables

R	Variables	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha coefficient
1	Changes in family structure	16	71%
2	Spending Leisure Time	14	74%
3	The use of mass media facilities	14	55%
4	Reference group	9	67%
5	Generation gap	18	75%

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A survey on respondents' gender show that, the majority of female English Language students constituted 54 percent and the rest are 46 percent of the male English Language students. They were aged between 18 and 39 years and the majority (19%) were located at age 21. The mean of age of respondents is 22/9 year.

The reference group English Language students can be shopkeepers and businessmen, teachers, Clergymen, artists, athletes, etc. English Language students like to obtain benefit reference groups, such as professionals and experts, as well as their parents' and religious persons.

Using mobile in personal and Current Affairs, Interest in the romantic writing and novels, Using satellite dishes and TV sets for watching news and movies and paying attention to the arts and sports are common among English Language students.

Family structure and parental behaviour in the sample population in the society is more of a logical and realistic, active, jealous, conservative and cautious. High expectations of children, looking gorgeous and playful nature and have entertainment so they tend to have fewer features that parents have.

The most important ways that English Language students can use for spending their leisure time are watching TV, travelling with friends, listening to radio programs and music, watching satellite, resting at home and using the Internet and e-mail and chatting. Fewer English Language students in their free time go to the movie or the pool, play at the park, surf the streets, passages, play with computer games, do sports and attend religious delegation.

Generation gap with changing values among English Language students and parents have been evaluated. By generation gap, the researchers mean the gap between the English Language students and the parents' values has been studied in four dimensions of social, cultural, economic, and political. Investigating the English Language students and parents responses about gap status between youth and parents suggests that, the social values of all items related to the social values are completely different. The analysis shows that, there is a significant mean difference among parents and English Language students social values.

The results show the parents and English Language students are significantly different in the case of cultural values, such as this item in the questionnaire "I usually prefer to watch satellite channels on TV channels". English Language students have expressed greater agreement and Parents (fathers and mothers) have not a favourable opinion about this subject. The total score of the political values gap among English Language students is 2/76 and among the parent equal to 2/93, which indicates more disagreement of parents in contrast English Language students about the items above. In all the items of economic values, is more than of the English Language students, because, their average score is higher.

The score of economic values gap among English Language students is 2/61 and among the parents is 2/90 which indicates the more disagreements of parents in contrast to English Language students above mentioned items. The dependent variable of generation gap has been examined with the four dimensions of social, cultural, political and economic. Investigation of the general status of gaps shows that, the mean values of the English Language students have dominant values with parents.

There is a meaningful relationship between socio-economic status of the family and the generation gap of English Language students with parents. For recognising the socio-economic status, the researchers have used several variables such as: type of residence, parental education, parental occupation, income and the amount of monthly expenses. ANOVA shows that, there is a significant difference between type of residence, parental education, and father's occupation and mother's education level with generation gap.

Table 4: The table of ANOVA results between qualitative variables and the variables of generation gap

Qualitative variables	F test	Significance level
Type of housing	2/83	0/025
Education level of father	4/54	0/000
Education level of mother	2/70	0/014
Father's Job	3/32	0/006

The correlation between variables and the dependent variable and the amount of income and monthly expenses, so that the generation gap is negative, or the amount of monthly expenses exceed income, the generation gap (in four dimensions: social, cultural, economic and political) between parents and English Language students increases and vice versa.

Changing ways of spending leisure times of English Language students, English Language students with parents' generation gap become greater. The higher the amount of spare time, the higher the generation gap between parents, English Language students, and conversely the lower the amount of leisure time English Language students, the generation gap between parents and English Language students will be reduced. Positive relationship and direct correlation between the two variables is observed that there is a probability of 99% of significance.

The more level of communication between English Language students is the generation gap between English Language students and parents increases. The higher use of mass media is the generation gap between parents and English Language students to be more and conversely, the lower the level of mass communication is the generation gap between parents and English Language students will be reduced. Pearson correlation coefficients between the reference group of English Language students and English Language students' parents' generation gap does not show a significant relationship.

With changing family structure, generation gap between English Language students and parents increases. Pearson correlation between family structure and the generation gap with parents of English Language students is 0/211. It can be said that, higher change in the family structure is equal to the higher rate of generation gap of their parents and English Language students and conversely, the lower the rate of change in family structure is the amount of generation gap between English Language students and parents will decrease.

Table 5: Table of Pearson correlation coefficients between the independent variables and the generation gap with English Language students and their parents

Variables	Pearson correlation coefficients	significance level	The correlation results
The rate of mass media usage	0/463	0/000	Significant positive correlation
Reference group	-0/052	0/184	The lack of significant correlation
Family structure	0/211	0/000	Significant positive correlation
Methods for spending leisure time	0/224	0/000	Significant positive correlation
The amount of Income	-0/174	0/050	Significant negative correlation
The amount of monthly expenses	-0/197	0/006	Significant negative correlation

The multiple correlation coefficients are equal to 0/627, which represents the relationship between independent variables and a moderate upward generational gap between English Language students with parents. The coefficient of determination is equal to 0/393 and expresses the fact that 3/39 percent of the variations of the independent variables are related to the generation gap between English Language students and parents. ANOVA indicated that, the regression model with a set of independent variables and the dependent variable, generation gap between parents and English Language students has appropriate processing, and the changes have been explained by the actual model.

Table 6: Table of Regression Results Summary of multi variables in generation gap between English Language students and parents

Multiple correlation coefficient	The coefficient of determination	Adjusted coefficient of determination	standard deviation
0/588	0/346	0/325	4/21
Sig = 0/000		F = 5/979	

The regression coefficients indicate that, the variable of changes in family structure, parents' level of education and use of mass media are more than 99% significant. Variables of spending leisure time and housing type are significant at more than 95 percent. The function of variables of family structure changes (0/699), the rate of mass media usage (0/525), and the rate of education level (-0/462) are greater than the other variables.

Table 7: Table of regression coefficients of the independent variables with the generation gap

Variables	Regression coefficients	Standard errors	beta	T Test	Significance level
Constant	33/144	5/517	-	6/01	0/000
Reference group	-0/043	0/145	-0/033	-0/295	0/769
The use of mass media	0/426	0/107	0/525	4/002	0/000
Changes in family structure	0/657	0/138	0/699	4/75	0/000
Spending leisure time	-0/295	0/128	-0/382	-2/309	0/024
Education level of father	-2/064	0/741	-0/462	-2/885	0/007
Education level of mother	-0/934	0/963	-0/135	-0/970	0/335
The amount of monthly expenses	-0/001	0/001	-0/114	-1/023	0/310
Type of housing	-2/53	1/123	-0/272	-2/254	0/027

The amount of direct effects of the all independent variables on the dependent variable of generation gap is equal to 0/11, the indirect effect is equal to 1/045 and the sum of the direct effects and the indirect effect is equal to 1/58.

According to the results of regression analysis we can say that, the total impact of mass media usage variables 0/345 and education level of father with the effect of 0/215 the most of the variability of generation gap.

Discussion

The generation gap as one of the most important social gaps in temporary societies is unavoidable and this phenomenon in the developing communities which are experiencing fast and huge economical and social changes has more intensity. Thus, the generation gap with the change in the value of the area of interest is in the social sciences. Now suppose the developments trend in the future, we can add new increasing depth and dimensions to this phenomenon. Today, what is known as the generation gap and we feel unrest about that area is value break and conflicts between the parents (first generation) and children (second generation) that concerned the minds of thinkers, planners and even the general public.

Evidences show that, in the recent years the challenges between fathers and mothers with children have developed gradually and this issue is completely clarified in done related research. It's better to mention that the distance between generation and the segregation of ideals and the understandings of parents and youngsters are completely a natural concept and nature which always creates positive changes by means of energy generating and potential differences in the way social and cultural revolutions, but when the isolation and distance between family and members become deeper, it leads to a conflict between generations and scatters the family's unity in total and causes cultural and social depression and in the following of that, the increase of social chaos.

CONCLUSIONS

In this study by considering to the theoretical bases and theoretical frameworks which is presented and also by relying on some of the past experimental research, 5 hypotheses have been investigated and examined and the following results have been obtained:

- 1- There is a meaningful relationship between the generation gap of parents and English Language students and socioeconomic status of families. For Socioeconomic Status detection several variables such as type of residence, parental education, parental occupation, amount of income and monthly expenses have been used.

ANOVA shows that there is a significant difference between type of housing, education level of father, father's occupation and education level of mother with generation gap. The correlation between variables of the amount of income and monthly expenses and the independent variable of generation gap was negative, so that the more amount of monthly expenses and income are, the generation gap (in four dimensions: social, cultural, economic and political) between parents and English Language students will reduce and conversely, the lower the socio-economic status is, the greater the rate of generation gap. Results obtained in this study are consistent with the results of Safaei Nejad (2004), Pahlevan (2006), Abedini (2005) and Ahmadi (2010).

- 2- By changing the way of spending leisure time of English Language students , generation gap between English Language students and parents becomes greater. The higher the amount of English Language students ' spare time, the more generation gap between parents and English Language students is, and vice versa, the lower the English Language students ' leisure times, the generation gap between parents and English Language students will be reduced. A positive and direct relationship and correlation between the two variables is observed that it is meaningful with a probability of 99%.

According to Anthony Giddens the difference between the generations is one form of, taking into account the time in modern society. In fact each generation is a kind of taking into account one breed of human being which put the personal life into a span of group lives. The obtained results are in line with Giddens and Ingle Hart theory and studies of Abouli Zadeh (2002) and Razeghi (2002).

- 3- The more level of mass media communication usage among English Language students , the generation gap between English Language students and parents increases. The higher the use of mass media, the generation gap between parent and English Language students is, and vice versa, the lower mass media

communication usage, the generation gap between parents and English Language students will be reduced. Research has shown that numbers of families spend from 5 to 7 hours per day for watching television. Children have habits of watching television before going to school, And as grow up older spare their times in watching and getting effects from watch show programs, recreation, entertainment, political, social, cultural, educational and news programs according to their variables, gender, age, religion, culture and ethnicity.

If we want to analyse the impact of mass media of communication, in this regard Sarokhani poses some theories very important to know such as theories of range, aspect (nominal and real), coatings, absorption, contacts, mental preparation, stereotypical attitudes and formal beliefs. TV is a mass medium that has the largest audience in the most time. Hence, it can be cited as the media which has the greatest role in shaping youth mental orientations and trends. However their impressionability is different but the messages type and quality of impressionability depending on personal experiences, community and long-term and stable conditions and the audience is different. The results of this study supports and also are in line with the previous empirical research findings, including Pahlevan (2000), Ingle Hart, Haghighatian and Ghafari (2002) and Ghazi Nejad (1998).

- 4- Pearson correlation coefficients between the reference group of English Language students and student and parents generation gap does not show a significant relationship. Reference group theory is based on this principle that individuals used others important criteria as a backup and basis for their approval, or compare and moving toward a higher social spaces and bases. The important part of this theory is that individuals have freedom and liberty in joining reference groups that they tend to be a member. Influence and prestige of groups and power that groups have, here are important too. Because these people have the ability to either accept or refuse new individual membership in the group.

Simmel believed that people learn many of their social values from childhood and innate them. But every day changes and revolutions, and their speed in fossilizing the social values make people encounter trouble. In ancient traditional societies, early humans typically lived in a string of relatively small, limited social circles. Such circles of kin groups, families and businesses to town and village heavily govern on the behaviour and performance of the individual and follow all his/her personality. Today, with the development and progress of communities around the family institute as the first institution of socialization, the other institutions are emerged which same as family pay attention to education and socialization of the new generation. According to Simmel, when membership in one or more of the social circles has been replaced by social status in the network of different social circles, the individual's personality has been changed. In this case, the individual's personality has highly branched through participation in various circles. The results of the research does not confirm and does not match the results obtained by Pahlevan (2000), as well as Georg Simmel opinions which have been chosen as theoretical backup of this hypothesis.

- 5- One of the other research hypotheses has been that with changing family structure the generation gap between parents and English Language students becomes greater. Pearson correlation coefficient between family structure and the generation gap of parents and English Language students is equal to 211/0. We can say that the more the rate of family structure change, the generation gap between English Language students and their parents is. And conversely, the lower the rate of change in family structure, the amount generation gap between English Language students and parents will decrease.

Flux believes that changes in family structure and its transformation of the extended family to the nuclear family and the various educational recommendations that have been proposed from various educational and teaching institutions to parents, have been make them face with many challenges. Educational advices to parents regarding their children are in conflict with their parents' ways in which they have been grown up. Therefore, the results obtained in this study are in coordination with the results of the Pahlevan (2000), Moayedfar (2001), Movahed Moghadas and Shavazi Abbasi (2004), Haghighatian and Ghafari (2005) and Ingle Hart(1998).

Limitations of the study

The story of cultural and social factors on language acquisition is interestingly comparable to the story of the elephant which was supposed to be described by a group of people in a dark room. And they all came to different descriptions of the whole body because they just touched parts of the body. The same story still is the case for culture. As it is the case with almost all studies done in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, this study

is not free of limitations. That is to say, because of the eluding nature of culture which is defined differently by different people one cannot claim to provide all inclusive criteria to list the problems with which EFL teachers wish to come to a conclusion in evaluating cultural knowledge and social factor as an approach in EFL contexts. Therefore, the authors of this paper have not intended to come to an absolute conclusion about the perceived problems with which EFL teachers might face in using cultural and social measurement in their real classes. ALL in all, it is hoped that this survey be of use for all colleagues. All defects of this paper are of ours. That is, no fault is to the participants in this study.

Suggestions and Solutions

According to the findings of this study and also found positive correlation and relationship between most of the independent variables with the dependent variable of generation gap between parents and English Language students in Andimeshk the following suggestions can be presented. Although these proposals are based on the results of this study which have been done recently, but they can be considered to reduce the generation gap in whole society of Iran.

- 1- Enhancing relationships between parents and children.
- 2- Considering that most English Language students have set their parents as the reference group model, therefore, they should be more respected in their social behaviours.
- 3- More and correct application of Islamic values and social values of the community in group or social media and new mass media such as satellite and internet.
- 4- Aligning the family in the way of democratic practices with relative authority of parents by means of various approaches such as mass media education and the use of TV media can be useful. Of course, releasing children by themselves and application of educational easy taking approaches as well as obligatory approach is effective in increasing the generations' gap in the thus it should not be privileged in community.
- 5- Promoting the spirit of collectivism and its prevailing among youth through appropriate mechanisms is very effective in preventing and reducing the generation gaps. Since, the spirit of individualism is an affecting factor in the isolation of youth from community and unity as well as the gap between parents and children.
- 6- Raising awareness and parenting skills of parents through administrating family training courses and their consideration to circumstances and feelings of young people can be a key factor in reducing generational tracks. Nowadays of the problems among generations is lack of interactive understanding towards the needs, wishes, requirements and restrictions of each other. These problems mainly occur in families and between parents in relation to their children.
- 7- Proper socialization and efficient transmission of values is an important factor and prevent the escalation of the generation gap. There is actually something called socialization which implies the difference and change between two generations, so previous generations have tried to familiarize the next generation with its own concepts and induce to them toward the norms of its time to. However, it is essential that previous generation to pass values to a new generation by means of common language. For fulfilling this important goal the biased and authoritative language of parents' generation should be converted to logic and empathy. And the existing cultural and educational contexts have been utilized for the correct and true transfer of values.

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BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE AND LISTENING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

The present study tried to investigate the effect of cultural familiarity on improving Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' listening comprehension. To achieve this purpose, a listening comprehension test were administered to three hundred language learners and ultimately one hundred and twenty pre-intermediate language learners were selected and randomly assigned to four groups. The same pre-test was administered for four groups before any treatment lesson. During the experiment, group one participants had exposure to target culture texts in-and out-side the classroom. The participants in group two had exposure to international target culture texts in-and out-side the classroom. The participants in group three had exposure to source culture texts in-and out-side the classroom. The participants in group four had only exposure to culture free texts in-and-out side the classroom. At the end of the experiment, four groups took a post-test which was absolutely the same as pre-test to see whether or not any changes happened regarding their listening proficiency. The results of the posttest showed that the four groups performed differently on the posttest which was indicative of the fact that greater familiarity to specific culturally-oriented language listening material promotes the Iranian EFL learners' listening proficiency.

KEYWORDS: Listening comprehension, cultural background knowledge, L2 listeners, EFL learners.

INTRODUCTION

Foreign language listening comprehension is a complex process and crucial in the development of second language competence; yet, the importance of listening in language learning has only been recognized relatively recently (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Since the role of listening comprehension in language learning was either overlooked or undervalued, it merited little research and pedagogical attention in the past. But at present, some researchers have devoted some time to listening and believe it to be an important skill in teaching and learning. For instance, Nunan (1998) believes that:

... listening is the basic skill in language learning. Without listening skill, learners will never learn to communicate effectively. In fact over 50% of the time that students spend functioning in a foreign language will be devoted to listening.... (p. 1).

As listening is assuming greater importance in foreign language classrooms and in language acquisition (see, e.g., Dunkel, 1991), researchers have tried to do some detailed study of this skill. One idea that has been of focus is the role of the listener as an active processor and the type of knowledge that he/she brings to the context of listening. In

other words, these have been attempts to investigate whether the background of the listener has any effect on the process of listening.

Theoretical

One aspect of language processing widely held as supporting and enhancing comprehension is that of mental schemata. Research in reading supports the notion that activating prior knowledge or knowledge of the world and applying this knowledge to new input greatly facilitates processing and understanding (Graves & Cook, 1980; Hayes & Tierney, 1982; Stevens, 1982). Listening, like reading, is an active process that entails construction of meaning beyond simple decoding. Activation of what is known about the world clearly assists processing the aural code.

Some researchers consider the role of schematic knowledge as one of the factors affecting comprehension. Brown and Yule (1983), for example, describe schemata as “organized background knowledge which leads us to expect or predict aspects in our interpretation of discourse” (p. 248). The listener’s stereotypical knowledge based on prior experiences predisposes him or her to construct expectations in terms of seven areas: speaker, listener, place, time, genre, topic, and co-text. Brown and Yule (1983) contend that the listener uses two basic principles to relate the new information to his or her previous experience: the principle of analogy, i.e. things will be as they were before and the principle of minimal change, i.e., things are as like as possible to how they were before.

In a discussion of ways in which listeners form inferences and use them to interpret spoken language, Rost (1990 as cited in Schmidt-Rinehart, 1994) suggests inferential processes at three levels (lexical or propositional, base or schematic, and interpersonal relevance) and proposes editing principles and procedures by which listeners construct meaning. He defines base meaning for a text as the cultural and experiential frame of reference that makes a text interpretable by a listener. Rost (2002 as cited in Vandergrift 2002) defines listening as a process of receiving what the speaker actually says, constructing and representing meaning, negotiating meaning with the speaker and responding, and creating meaning, and creating meaning through involvement, imagination and empathy. He believes that listening is a complex, active process of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know. These theories underscore background knowledge as a critical component of the listening process.

Empirical

Few empirical studies have explored the potential relationship between prior knowledge and listening comprehension. Mueller (1980) investigated the effects on listening comprehension of locus of contextual visuals for different levels of aptitude of beginning college German students. The aptitude variable consisted of two levels (high and low) that was determined by the subjects’ grades in the preceding German course. He found that the students who had the contextual visual before hearing the passage scored significantly higher on the recall measure than those in the visual-after and the no-visual groups.

In order to determine the influence of religion-specific background knowledge on the listening comprehension of ESL students of varying religion, Markham and Latham (1987) used passages describing prayer rituals of Islam and Christianity. The data indicated that religious background influences listening comprehension. The subjects in this study recalled more information and provided more elaborations and fewer distortions for the passage that related to their own religion. Long (1990) conducted an exploratory study of background knowledge and L2 listening comprehension. Her third-quarter students of Spanish listened to two passages- one was deemed familiar, the other unfamiliar. Comprehension was assessed by a recall protocol in English and a recognition measure, a checklist comprised of statements that referred to the content of the passage and purposefully false statements that were plausible according to the context. On the checklist, students identified items that were mentioned in the passage. Although the English summaries revealed a higher proportion of correct idea units for the familiar topic, no significant differences were found between the familiar and unfamiliar passages for the recognition measure.

Bacon’s (1992) research sheds light on the effect of background knowledge during listening process. She investigated strategies used in three phases identified by Anderson (1985): perceptual, parsing, and utilization. Her sample comprised students of Spanish enrolled in the first course beyond the degree foreign language requirement. After listening to two expository passages selected from a Voice of America broadcast, subjects reported their strategy use and comprehension in an interview situation. Regarding background knowledge, she found little use of advance organizers during the perceptual phase, but effective use of previous knowledge during the utilization phase. She reported that successful listeners tended to use their personal, world, and discourse knowledge while less successful listeners either built erroneous meaning from their prior knowledge or ignored it altogether.

Chiang and Dunkel (1992) investigated the effect of speech modification, prior knowledge, and listening proficiency on EFL listening comprehension. After listening to a lecture, the Chinese EFL students' comprehension was measured by a multiple-choice test that contained both passage-dependent and passage-independent items. Regarding topic familiarity, the subjects scored higher on the familiar-topic lecture than on the unfamiliar-topic lecture.

Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) carried out a study with the main purpose of discovering the effects of topic familiarity on L2 listening comprehension. University students of Spanish at three different course levels listened to two familiar passages, one about a familiar topic and another about a novel topic. The passages represented authentic language in that the recordings were from spontaneous speech of a native speaker. Listening comprehension was assessed through a native language recall protocol procedure. Subjects scored considerably higher on the familiar topic than on the new one. She concludes that background knowledge in the form of topic familiarity emerges as a powerful factor in facilitating listening comprehension.

With a glance into the existing literature, it is felt that there is a shortage of studies with respect to background knowledge and listening comprehension in EFL contexts. It seems that the EFL field is in need of further studies investigating the issue of background knowledge and listening comprehension. Therefore, it is hoped that the results of this study cast some light on this issue and pave the way for a better teaching of listening.

RESEARCH

QUESTION

This study attempted to address the following research question:

Does Cultural Background Knowledge of the Learners influence their Listening Comprehension?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

This study was carried out at two private language institutions. The subjects of this study are learners from the different private Language schools of and they are currently in the same semesters.

Subjects from four English classes participated in this study. In total, there are one hundred and twenty learners aged between 13 and 25. These learners come from Shush, Dezful, Bidrubeh, Azadi town, Bahram town, Chamgolak town and Andimeshk. Most of the learners have been studying in Andimeshk language schools for at least a year. These classes are made up of sixty nine female and eighty one male learners. The English proficiency level of most of these learners is pre-intermediate. At language school, the medium of instruction is English. Therefore, they get a lot of exposure to the English language.

To select the homogeneous subjects, the researcher administered a sample listening comprehension proficiency test to three hundred English language learners in private language institutions selected based on their availability, including both males and females. The one hundred and twenty participants were selected out of three hundred. Having administered the necessary statistical calculations, these one hundred students who had scored between 5.5 and 47.5 out of 100, two standard deviation above and below the mean, in the proficiency tests were selected as pre-intermediate language learners. For the purpose of this research, the selected subjects were both male and female and were randomly divided into four groups of 30.

Instrument

Initially, the subjects in four groups took the listening comprehension section of a sample proficiency test. The test contained 25 multiple-choice items. The reliability of the test was .732 based on KR-21 method. The test was extracted from *How to prepare for the TOEFL Test: Test of English as a Foreign Language* (Sharpe, 2001). The second instrument was the materials which were selected from Internet reliable sites (such as, *Wikipedia.com*, *bbc.com* and *cnn.com*) and other authentic sources such as *New interchange series* (Richards, 2005). McKay identifies three types of cultural materials: target culture materials, learners' own culture materials and international target culture materials. For her, the best one is international target language materials, which supposedly covers a variety of knowledge from different cultures all over the world using the target language (McKay, pp. 9-10). That

will most probably increase the learners' interest rather than imposing only one culture all the time and prevent learners from having the fear of assimilation into a specific culture, and help them respect other people's cultures. Students' own culture should be discussed together with target culture. In order to account for the influence of culture on listening comprehension, four types of materials were proposed: materials that reflect English and American culture, materials that reflect international target culture, materials that reflect Persian culture and culture-free materials which were provided for the four groups throughout the whole semester. The difficulty level of these materials as determined by systematic functional grammar criteria (Shokrpour 2004:pp.5-25) was calculated to make them appropriate for pre-intermediate EFL learners.

Procedures

The first step to take, before the participants were selected, was to verify the reliabilities of the sample listening and proficiency test. To do so, first the sample listening proficiency test was given to a group of learners including both males and females. Then, the reliability of test was calculated separately by means of KR-21 formula. The reliability of listening test was calculated as .732. Once the reliability of the proficiency test was verified, the test was given to three hundred EFL learners including both males and females from Andimeshk private language institutions (Mehre Taha, Khadir and Daneshjoo institutions). After the scores of the proficiency tests were obtained, the average mean of the scores (out of 100) was calculated and 120 participants who scored two standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as pre-intermediate to participate in the present study. When the homogeneity of the sample population was assured, 120 participants who scored between 36 and 64 out of 100 in the proficiency test, two standard deviation above and below the mean, were selected as pre-intermediate language learners; they were divided into four groups based on systematic random sampling. Throughout the semester which lasted for 10 weeks (20 hours).

They will be divided randomly into four groups, group A (English culture), group B (International target culture), group C (Persian culture) and group D (culture-free). Over the course of 16 weeks, two hour classes are conducted two times a week for the groups by an experienced teacher in the private language school. The testees, in each group, will practice listening comprehension materials that reflect a particular culture.

Finally, the four groups will take a listening comprehension test. The test includes sample authentic listening comprehension materials. As mentioned before, they are selected from reliable sources. The scores which are obtained by the four groups will be compared with one another to see whether or not the possible differences occurred in listening comprehension of each group will be the result of their exposure to particular culturally-oriented texts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. The analysis of variance of participants' post-test scores in four groups

Results of a One-Way ANOVA test for the study supported hypotheses. Table 2 illustrates the mean scores gained by each group in post-test in the study. As can be seen in the table, the participants who listen to the culturally-oriented texts scored higher than the other two groups and outperformed them. The participants who listen to target culture texts scored higher than those who listen to culture free texts even higher than to that group who listen to international target culture and source culture texts, the TCT and ITCT groups outperformed the other three groups who listen to other listening materials. The Figure 1 and 2 demonstrate the scores gained by each group in pre-test and post-test.

Table1: Mean scores gained by treatment groups in the pre-tests

CONDITION	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
TCT	11.56	30	1.57
ITCT	10.6	30	1.76
SCT	10.1	30	1.72
CFT	10.13	30	1.72
TOTAL	42.39	120	6.77

As Table 1 indicates and Figure 2 demonstrates, there are some differences among the mean values of the groups gained in the study. Table 3 indicates statistically significant differences between groups where $p < .05$. The results

of One-Way ANOVA Test point out that the mean values of the treatment groups gained in the study are not the same.

Table2: Mean scores gained by treatment groups in the post-tests

CONDITION	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
TCT	14.46	30	1.52
ITCT	13.73	30	1.82
SCT	13.1	30	1.72
CFT	10.16	30	1.71
TOTAL	51.45	120	6.77

An analysis of variances (ANOVA) found the scores on the four groups in post-tests to be significantly different. Since the F-ratio is longer than 1, we know that there is a meaningful difference among the means, but where is that difference? So for pinpointing the precise location of any statistically significant differences between four groups the researcher calculated a dependent t-test. Additionally, post-hoc dependent t- tests indicated that all groups differed significantly from each other as well [group A - $p < 0.001$; group B - $p < 0.001$; group C - $p < 0.001$; group D- $p < 0.001$]. The differences between the mean scores of two groups 1 and 2 ($d = .73$) was expectedly lower than between groups 1 and 4 ($d = 4.3$). The differences between the mean scores of two groups 1 and 2 ($d = .73$) was expectedly lower than between groups 2 and 4 ($d = 3.57$). The differences between the mean scores of two groups 1 and 3 ($d = 1.36$) was expectedly lower than between groups 3 and 4 ($d = 2.94$). The differences between the mean scores of two groups 2 and 3 ($d = .63$) was expectedly lower than between groups 2 and 4 ($d = 3.57$) or groups 3 and 4 ($d = 2.94$), where is the for effect size (mean difference / standard deviation).

Table 3: One-Way ANOVA Test Results

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	df.	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Post-Test score	Between Groups	319.41	3	106.47	11.92	9.24
	Within Groups	1035.98	116	8.9308		
	Total	1373.39	119			

2. The results of group one on the pretest and posttest

Regarding group one performance, there was a significant difference between the participants mean scores in the pretest and the posttest. In order to make sure that the difference in the mean scores was statistically significant, the statistical t-test was administered. For group one, the t-observed was calculated (4.02) for a degree of freedom of (58) which was higher than the t-critical of (1.671). The results, therefore, confirmed that the group one of the participants performed differently in the two tests. In other words, as the table indicates, the difference between the means of the scores of the group one is statistically significant ($P < 0.01$, t-value = 4.02). This shows that the subjects in TCT group performed better in the test and this better performance seems to be the result of the treatment (familiarizing them with the culturally-oriented materials and activating their target cultural background knowledge) given to them. So the participants in group one could improve their listening comprehension during the semester through having greater exposure to target culture texts as one kind of specific culturally-oriented language listening materials. (as shown in Table 4)

Table 4: Descriptive statistics related to the results of the pretest and the posttest of group one participants

Groups		N	Mean	SD	t-test
Group Pretest	One	30	11.56	1.57	4.02
Group Posttest	One	30	14.46	1.52	

3. The results of group two on the pretest and posttest

Regarding group two performance, there was a significant difference between the participants mean scores in the pretest and the posttest. In order to make sure that the difference in the mean scores was statistically significant, the statistical t-test was administered. The t-observed was calculated (3.30) for a degree of freedom of (58) which was higher than the t-critical of (1.671). The results, therefore, confirmed that the group two of the participants performed differently in the two tests. In other words, as the table indicates, the difference between the means of the scores of the group two is statistically significant ($P < 0.01$, t-value = 3.30). This shows that the subjects in ITST group performed better in the test and this better performance seems to be the result of the treatment (familiarizing them with the culturally-oriented materials and activating their international target cultural background knowledge) given to them. the participants in group two could improve their listening comprehension during the semester through having greater exposure to international target culture texts as one kind of specific culturally-oriented language listening materials. (as shown in Table 5)

Table 5: Descriptive statistics related to the results of the pretest and the posttest of group one participants

Groups		N	Mean	SD	t-test
Group Pretest	Two	30	10.60	1.76	3.30
Group Posttest	Two	30	13.73	1.82	

4. Results of group three on the pretest and the posttest

Regarding group three performance, there was a significant difference between group two mean scores in the pretest and the posttest. In order to make sure that the difference in the mean scores was statistically significant, the statistical t-test was administered. The t-observed was calculated (3.42) for a degree of freedom of (58) which was higher than the t-critical of (1.671). The results, therefore, confirmed that group three participants performed differently in the two tests. In other words, as the table indicates, the difference between the means of the scores of the group three is statistically significant ($P < 0.01$, t-value = 3.42). This shows that the subjects in SCT group performed better in the test and this better performance seems to be the result of the treatment (familiarizing them with the culturally-oriented materials and activating their source cultural background knowledge) given to them. the participants in group three could improve their listening comprehension during the semester through having exposure to source culture texts as one kind of specific culturally-oriented language listening materials (as shown in Table 6)

Table 6: Descriptive statistics related to the results of the pretest and the posttest of group two participants

Groups		N	Mean	SD	t-test
Group	Three	30	10.10	1.72	3.42
Pretest					
Group	Three	30	13.10	1.72	
Posttest					

5. The results of group four on the pretest and posttest

There was not any significant difference between group four mean scores in the pretest and the posttest. In order to make sure that the difference in the mean scores was statistically insignificant, the statistical t-test was administered. The t-observed was calculated (.55) for a degree of freedom of (58) which was less than the t-critical of (1.671). The results, therefore, confirmed that group four participants performed nearly the same in the two tests. In other words, as the table indicates, the difference between the means of the scores of the group four is not statistically significant ($P < 0.01$, t-value = .55). This shows that the subjects in CFT group did not perform better in the test and this performance seems to be the result of the treatment (familiarizing them with the culturally-sterile materials and do not activating their background knowledge) given to them. the participants in group four failed to improve their listening comprehension during the semester through having exposure to culture free texts as one kind of specific language listening materials (as shown in Table 7)

Table 7: Descriptive statistics related to the results of the pretest and the posttest of group two participants

Groups		N	Mean	SD	t-test
Group	Four	30	10.13	1.72	.55
Pretest					
Group	Four	30	10.16	1.71	
Posttest					

Armed with this above mentioned information, in group one ($T_{\text{observed}} = 4.02$), the researcher moved to the table of critical value. The critical value of group one was 1.671 which meant that the difference between the observed T and the critical T was significant. Therefore, H01 which emphasized the point that texts with English and American culture orientation have not any significant influence on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners was rejected. And the critical value of T in group two was 1.671 which is lower than observed T ($t_o = 3.30$) of this group, it meant the difference between the observed T and the critical T was significant. Therefore, H02 which emphasized the point that texts with International culture orientation have not any significant influence on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners was rejected. And the critical value of T in group C was 1.671 which is lower than observed T ($t_o = 3.42$) of this group, it meant the difference between the observed T and the critical T was significant. Therefore, H03 which emphasized the point that texts with Persian culture orientation have not any significant influence on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners was rejected. But as it is clear from the above tables the critical value of T (1.671) of group four is higher than observed T (.55) in this group so there is not any significant difference between T observed and T critical, so HO4 was not rejected and according to HO4, culture-free texts have not any significant influence on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

In other words, the t-value revealed that the four groups performed differently on the posttest which was indicative of the fact that greater cultural familiarity with language listening materials promotes the Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. Therefore, H1, H2 and H3 were verified and H4 was nullified.

The result of the study supports those of Markham and Latham (1987), Chiang and Dunkel (1992), and Schmidt-Rinehart (1994), since they all claimed that background knowledge and topic familiarity would improve students' performance in listening comprehension. The results of the study, on the other hand, contradict that of Long (1990) in that she observed no significant difference between the familiar and unfamiliar passages for the recognition measure, though the English summaries revealed a higher proportion of correct units for the familiar topic. At the same time, the results of the study contradict the perceptual phase of Bacon's (1992) study in which she found little use of advance organizers during this phase.

Discussion

Here, some justifications possible reasons behind the results will be presented. Most of the results were in line with the previous studies, but some were different all of which will be discussed. This section discusses the results of the research by direct reference to the following questions raised in the study.

Question (1): To what extent does cultural familiarity affect Iranian EFL learners listening comprehension?

Cultural familiarization of the text has a significant effect on reading comprehension.

Readers are expected to achieve the writer's intended meaning by combining existing information with what they read (Nunan 1998; Chastain 1988; Anderson 1985). Readers are thought to engage in three metaphorical models of reading (Anderson 1985). The familiarization of the names of people and places in the short story contributed to schema activation of the readers (Alptekin 2002; 2003). The readers who read the nativized version also did not have to deal with unfamiliar names in it and this resulted in better comprehension since they could process new input in their short-term memory. So original text readers in this study used controlled processes that required greater effort. On the other hand, nativized text readers used automatic processes since they were familiar with the new information and that would make it possible for them to free up space in their short-term memory (Nunan 1998).

In accord with previous research on the relationship of cultural familiarity and comprehension, this study found that participants performed significantly better on test questions that had culturally familiar content.

The result of the study supports those of Markham and Latham (1987), Chiang and Dunkel (1992), and Schmidt-Rinehart (1994), since they all claimed that background knowledge and topic familiarity would improve students' performance in listening comprehension.

The results of the study, on the other hand, contradict that of Long (1990) in that she observed no significant difference between the familiar and unfamiliar passages for the recognition measure, though the English summaries revealed a higher proportion of correct units for the familiar topic. At the same time, the results of the study contradict the perceptual phase of Bacon's (1992) study in which she found little use of advance organizers during this phase

The results indicate that the higher mean score in the post-test is significantly different at $p < 0.01$. This significant improvement in the post-test is attributed to topic knowledge that the subjects gained from the treatment lessons.

In the pre-test, subjects were unable to determine answers to the comprehension questions as they faced a lot of barriers in the form of new vocabulary and advertising concepts. As they tried to overcome this, the process of interpreting the text was interrupted. Therefore, they could not identify the main ideas and information in the lecture that they needed to answer the comprehension questions.

According to Anderson & Lynch's (2000) view of 'Listener as Active Model-Builder,' successful comprehension in listening takes place when the listener has schematic knowledge, knowledge of the context and systemic knowledge.

The treatment lessons had successfully provided the subjects with these three categories of knowledge. In the treatment lessons, the subjects had the opportunity to deal with key vocabulary items that were presented in the same context as they would hear in the lecture. Other activities that allowed them to relate content to their own experiences like identifying effective advertisements and the elements that make them appealing also gave them an

insight into the field of advertising. Creating an advertisement for their own product gave the subjects a chance to put into practice their newly acquired knowledge on this topic. This familiarity of topic enabled the subjects to successfully identify the facts and details of the advertising techniques, as well as details that support these main ideas. This ability facilitated their understanding of the text which explains why they performed significantly better in the post-test.

This is consistent with previous studies (Van Duzer, 1997 & Schmidt – Rinehart, 1994) indicating that familiarity with the topic facilitates listening comprehension.

In light of the findings from previous research carried out in relation to both reading (Roller & Matambo, 1992) and listening skills (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Markham & Latham, 1987), it was assumed that these participants' comprehension of excerpts 1 and 3 would be impeded considerably, as they would lack the schematic information necessary for effective comprehension (Alderson & Lynch, 1988; Buck, 2001) even though they were proficient enough in English to process the language element.

CONCLUSIONS

In sum, the findings of the study show that the experimental group had a better performance as compared with the control group in their listening comprehension, and this better performance in the listening test seems to be the result of the background of the subjects in the EG. Although one study cannot dictate instructional practice, it can provide directions. Findings regarding the supportive role of background knowledge are consistent with the findings of the majority of L2 listening studies. It seems, therefore, that educators who advocate the use of advance organizers and other types of pre-listening exercises that activate appropriate background knowledge are making suggestions that are congruent with the research results. It is important for teachers to recognize that students' existing knowledge contributes significantly to their comprehension and that listening is not a passive activity. Taking time to assess the conceptual base the listeners bring to the text will enable teachers to go beyond dealing with the linguistic information in order to help students understand and make their learning more meaningful. The result of this study and others indicate that helping students make connections to their previous knowledge in order to build a mental framework with which to link the new information might facilitate comprehension.

Based on the results obtained, it seems that the Iranian EFL course books do not adequately prepare students for an intercultural communication due to the fact that they focus excessively on language forms, lack diverse social issues, and do not promote students' awareness of the target language culture.

As it was stated in the previous chapters, if culture and language are inseparable, then we need to try to teach culture in some kind of systematic way as we try to do with other aspects of language such as grammar and vocabulary.

The results indicate that the Iranian EFL course books do not prepare students to cope with the international society. Additionally, the aim of FLT does not seem to develop the basic competence for mutual communication, using and understanding modern every day English due to the fact that TM are not directed, as it should be, toward the target language culture.

Mere fluency in the production of utterances in a new language without any awareness of their cultural implications or of their appropriate situational use, or the reading of texts without a realization of the values and assumptions underlying them-these so-called skills are of little use even on a practical level, and certainly leave open to question the claims of language study to a legitimate place in a program of liberating education.

In brief, the researcher arrived at the following conclusions:

1. Having background knowledge is a key feature of any kinds of listening materials, so language learners wanting to improve their listening comprehension should have greater exposure to two kinds of listening materials: target culture texts and international target culture texts. Through having greater exposure to specific culturally-oriented texts, for example, English culture texts, language learners can improve their listening comprehension.

2. Background knowledge, cultural familiarity and linguistic complexity are essential linguistic and meta-linguistic features for the enhancement of listening comprehension. Accordingly, having exposure to language materials in which these three features are highly observed can boost listening comprehension development.

3. Vocabulary recycling is another feature regarding developing any listening materials which is generally supposed to help language learners build up their lexicon over time. Moreover, according to Abu Rabia (2000), language learners can acquire the knowledge, structures, strategies, and vocabularies they can use in everyday situations through having exposure to culturally-oriented texts. The vocabularies used in culturally oriented texts are basic to the type of conversations that language learners are likely to encounter in a social situation.

Limitations of the study

The story of second language acquisition is interestingly comparable to the story of the elephant which was supposed to be described by a group of people in a dark room. And they all came to different descriptions of the whole body because they just touched parts of the body. The same story still is the case for SLA. As it is the case with almost all studies done in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, this study is not free of limitations. That is to say, because of the eluding nature of Cultural Knowledge which is defined differently by different people one cannot claim to provide all inclusive criteria to list the problems with which EFL teachers wish to come to conclusion in evaluating Listening Comprehension as an approach in EFL contexts. Therefore, the authors of this paper have not intended to come to an absolute conclusion about the perceived problems with which EFL teachers might face in using anxiety measurement in their real classes. ALL in all, is hoped that this survey be of use for all colleagues. All defects of this paper are of ours. That is, no fault is to the participants in this study.

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DEVLING THE NEXUS BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND TEACHER RETENTION IN AVIATION UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine teacher job satisfaction and its impact on teacher retention in the independent school. This case study was completed at Aviation University, Tehran branch. 87 full-time English teachers who were distributed throughout the lower, middle, and upper school divisions were selected. Participants included 69 females and 18 males representing. Osborne and Reiman's (2005) teacher retention questionnaire and Smith's job satisfaction questionnaire (1969) were used to measure the variables. Data from the survey instrument incorporated the use of the Likert Scale. The result of analysis confirmed the significant correlation between the subscales of two variables. These results have some implications for educational researchers and administrators who pursue to improve effective teaching and learning situations. Thus, considering teachers' individual characteristics must be of the most significant for school administrators to improve educational results.

KEYWORDS: Job Satisfaction, Teacher Retention

INTRODUCTION

Few discussions have considered with qualified teachers; yet surveys on turnover within various kinds of schools displayed that small schools have the highest proportion of teacher turnover (Ingersoll, 2002). Ingersoll indicated that few researchers have studied the properties of schools that can influence teacher turnover. Yet, when a school improves a maintainable climate, teachers are to feel socially, emotionally, and safe (Booth, 2007). Therefore, more study is required to develop an understanding of job satisfaction by making strategies. Thus, according to Crossman and Harris (2006), more attention must be taken into consideration on job satisfaction. Institutional conditions such as environmental, psychological, and demographic factors can influence on job satisfaction. Johnson, Berg (2005) recommended that critical factors like: a) leadership, b) benefits, c) salary, and d) compensation should be considered to reduce teacher attrition.

Job Satisfaction & Teacher Retention

Teacher job satisfaction has been found to be an important predictor of effective teacher retention (Ostroff, 1992; Zigarreli, 1996). A New Jersey State Board of Education study in 1984 discovered similar findings (Ellis, Klagholz, Schechter, & Newman, 1991; cited in Gold, 1996). Therefore, it suggests that while individuals' payment represents a teacher in the short term, it does not consider the problem of teacher retention in the long term. Furthermore, when teachers without appropriate personal and academic qualifications enter teaching, they lead to a higher probability of teacher attrition. (Lutz & Hutton, 1989).

Statement of the Problem

Based on the prior studies due to the importance of retaining quality of teachers, it was significant that teacher job satisfaction be evaluated why teachers work in schools. The study recognized components of teacher satisfaction while focusing the matters for teacher retention. Research in this area taken into account the properties of the school environment, organization, and culture that influenced teacher job satisfaction and evaluated whether these factors are correlated to the retention of teachers. Booth (2007) stated that schools were primarily able to attract teachers because they suggested small class sizes, active participation in curriculum development. Further examination assessed if these factors were enough to retain teachers. An investigation of teachers displayed by years of teaching experience to illustrate if schools were at risk for teacher attrition due to dissatisfaction and conclude when schools were in the danger of losing their professionals. An investigation of environmental, psychological, and demographic matters in an effort to recognize the factors that have influenced on job satisfaction (Crossman & Harris, 2006).

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

This case study will examine the relationship between teacher job satisfaction and its effect on teacher retention. This investigation will be carried out by the following questions:

Q: To what extent do the factors of job satisfaction impact on teacher retention?

H0: Factors of job satisfaction does not have any impact on teacher retention.

METHODOLOGY

Participants and Procedure

This study occurred at Farhangian University. 87 full-time teachers who were divided into the lower, middle, and upper levels were selected. Participants included 69 females and 18 males. The age of teachers ranged from 24 to 60 years of age. Participants completed the questionnaire within a month. The questionnaire distributed through email. Teachers received instructions on completing all questionnaires through a letter from the researcher.

Instruments

To collect the data, the following instruments were utilized.

Osborne & Reiman's (2005) teacher retention questionnaire which assesses teachers' perceptions on teacher retention. There are three sections to this questionnaire. The first section includes 35 statements that describe issues affecting teachers. These statements can be categorized into five domains: (a) time issues, (b) student discipline, (c) teacher professional growth and development, (d) school leadership, and (e) classroom materials, supplies, and resources. Teachers were asked to respond to: (a) the degree to which the statement is true for them in their school and (b) the degree of importance as to how each statement affects their decision to stay at or to leave their school. Responses were measured by a five point Likert scale (1 =never true to 5=always true and 1 =not important to 5= very important).

Smith's Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (1969) is a valid measure of job satisfaction. This measure has been designed to measure satisfaction through 5 aspects of a job, the work itself, pay, promotion, supervision and co- workers.

Reliability and Validity of the Instruments

In order to ensure the reliability of the questionnaires, the researcher used coefficient Alpha reliability analysis to compute the reliability and to determine if they could be employed in Aviation University in Iranian EFL context. According to KR-21 formulae, the reliability was .68, which is highly significant. However, some of the items in questionnaires were modified or changed after the results. In order to determine the validity of the tools utilized in the study, the researcher asked four university teachers and teachers teaching at different institutes to offer an unbiased judgment as to whether the questionnaire have content validity. All of them had at least 5 years of teaching experience in institutes. In addition, the researcher asked some other teachers to express their comments and suggestions with regard to the tests which had been considered as the main instruments of this study. The modification was made to reflect a reasonable domain of the content before the study was formally conducted.

RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this study was to consider teacher satisfaction and its effects on teacher retention in Aviation University. Null hypothesis was tested for significance at the .05 level. Statistical methods used to analyze the data contained: descriptive statistics, Spearman Correlation Analysis. Table 1 represents that the mean total scores of the job satisfaction. The mean total scores of the job satisfaction are displayed in Table 1. Mean score of job satisfaction was 1.2857 (S.D. = 2.6277). The second job satisfaction aspect was contingent reward with a mean of 7.5714 (S.D. = 6.7295).Benefit was the third job satisfaction aspect, with a mean of 14.8571 (S.D. = 9.0079). The fourth section was supervision with a mean of 19.0 (S.D. = 10.2307). The most applicable facet was problem solving, with a mean of 57.2857 (S.D. = 10.0285) which had the highest proportions.

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of Job Satisfaction

J. S.	Mean	S.D.
Promotion	57.28	10.02
Supervision	19.0	10.23
Benefits	14.85	9.007
Contingent Reward	7.57	6.72
Operating procedures	1.28	2.62

The mean scores across the four dimensions of teacher retention are displayed in Table 2. Mentor support and classroom management had the highest proportions, with a mean of 37.311 (S.D. = 11.698) and 31.71 (S.D. = 14.77), respectively. Student success that received the second highest ratings with a mean of 27.55 (S.D. = 15.61). Instructional resources were third subscale, with a mean rating of 13.46 (S.D. = 6.78) which had the lowest rating.

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation of Teacher Retention

Teacher Retention Subscales	Mean	S.D.
Mentor Support	37.311	11.698
Classroom Management	31.717	14.778
Student Success	27.555	15.614
Instructional Resources	13.463	6.786

As it is clear in Table 3, correlation coefficients of the measures utilized in this study are reported. The correlation table displays a significant positive relationship ($r=.886$) between the job satisfaction and teacher retention. The highest positive correlation is correlated to promotion ($r=.878$) followed by supervision ($r=.871$), contingent reward ($r=.853$) and operating procedure ($r=.841$) and a strong negative relationship with benefit ($r=-.864$). Strong internal positive relationships were observed between sub-scales of job satisfaction and teacher retention.

Table 3: Spearman correlations between Job Satisfaction and Teacher Retention

	J.S.	Promotion	Supervision	Benefit	Contingent Reward	Operating Procedure
T.R.	.886**	.878**	.871**	-.864**	.853**	.841**

Note. T.R.= Teacher Retention; J.B.= Job Satisfaction

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Discussion

It is vital to confirm factors that attract teachers to schools in a small size. It is also important to look at the factors of job satisfaction to consider whether schools are at risk for losing their teachers and, their quality teachers. Previous study in education focused on the relationships between the leadership styles, and improved student learning and (Heck, 2000; Mulford & Silins, 2003). The findings of this study were congruent with Ingersoll's (2001, 2002) suggests that a teacher shortage might have more to do with teacher migration. According to Johnson, Berg, and Donaldson's (2005) study factors such as work environment, school leadership, and teacher preparation were significant factors influencing new teacher satisfaction and retention. Findings represented that the work environment, leadership, compensation and benefits, and mentoring new teachers were the factors to affect teacher satisfaction and create the most information from the participants. These results duplicate the study by Booth (2007) and will be discussed more. Participants in this study indicated that they are not working but discovered that it was difficult to perform making it a factor which empowered the schools making progress. Responses from Booth's study and this case study are persistence with other current research to offer that organizations consider the work environment to take into account matters with work (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Spinks, 2004). Koppes (2008) expressed that personal lives of teachers is an important factor to achieve satisfaction and is one of the most prominent issues influencing teacher job satisfaction and the most significant factor which affect work. Certo and

Fox, (2002) stated that those who missed other jobs to teach in schools received low salary, over-scheduling, no breaks as factors causing dissatisfaction. Findings from this study is consistent with previous research explaining that work overload, low salary was reduced the worth of teachers' time. Booth (2007) and Johnson, Berg (2005) expressed the importance of the environment and its influence on job satisfaction and personal efficacy. Participants in this study indicated during the data that there were components of the work environment that affected their job satisfaction. Throughout the other data, participants confirmed that leadership affected their job satisfaction. Leithwood & Beatty (2008) stated that this study homogenizes with research that administrator affect on work environment of a school. According to Danielson (2007) and Tye and O'Brien (2002), teaching has often been referred to by researchers as a "flat profession" which makes necessary that administrators take into account leadership opportunities to provide professional interest and commitment. McMillan et al. (2008) stated that quality teaching, experience, and dedication should be rewarded by school leaders as it is a source of teacher commitment and job satisfaction. All of these factors affect job satisfaction and the ability to achieve work and life balance.

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Generally, the findings of this research represented that there is a strong relationship between teachers retention and job satisfaction. In this study, I estimated teacher retention and job satisfaction as distinctive properties through their sub-scales except one sub-scale of job satisfaction was not correlated with teacher retention. These results harmonized with prior studies which mostly evaluated job satisfaction as a generic measure that was contained in the concept of teacher retention. Even though some of the previous research illustrated positive and predictive relations between teacher retention and job satisfaction, there were also some counter-evidences which couldn't discover any relationships between these two variables. These inconsistencies represent to the fact that there may be other factors which make the relationships between teacher's retention and their job satisfaction that differ from one context to another.

These results have some implications for educational researchers and administrators who pursue to improve effective teaching and learning situations. If educational researchers and administrators plan to lead a research to examine the probability factors affecting teachers' performance in teaching contexts, they must access the issue from different perspectives. Considering the fact that teachers' feelings and thoughts about their job affect on their retention in all views. Thus, considering teachers' individual characteristics must be of the most significant for school administrators to improve educational results. Although strong conclusions about the relationships between teacher retention and job satisfaction aspects cannot be drawn from this study, both of these issues are significant factors helping to improvements in educational settings. The evidence from this study offers that teachers' beliefs, feelings and thought toward their job shouldn't disregard effective issues such as teachers' inner moral criteria, culture and whole human being properties. Therefore, it becomes necessary upon educational administrators to be more sensitive about teachers' inner worlds. In this study, we emphasized on different perspectives of teacher retention and job satisfaction issues. Further studies may approach the issue by taking into account the overall measures of these two concepts. In spite of the fact of the findings due to the relationships between variables, cultural and social differences which may affect the established results were not considered. Providing that cultural and social sources of difference be accounted for, the findings may represent more consistency from one context to another.

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THE APPLICATION OF ESP PRINCIPLES ON COURSE DESIGN: THE CASE OF ENGLISH FOR
STUDENTS OF MANAGEMENT AND FISHERIES

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ABSTRACT

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has become one of the predominant approaches to language teaching in tertiary education, as it is directed towards the specific needs of the particular specialty students. The study concerns about the role of needs analysis and materials evaluation in designing ESP courses meeting the needs of students in tertiary education. The purpose of this study was to find out whether ESP courses in Iran had been developed according to the principles of ESP course design. Participants of the study were selected from Chabahar Maritime University in Iran, consisting of two groups of senior students majoring at management and fisheries as well as a group of lectures teaching ESP courses. In this study three instruments were used. First, a needs analysis questionnaire administered to students to find out their needs, lack and wants. The second tool to get data was a curriculum design analysis questionnaire, administered to lecturers to find out the elements of ESP courses. The third tool was ESP textbooks used for the aforementioned students, evaluated for their appropriateness to the specific needs of students. The results were analyzed and the findings showed that the ESP textbooks used at faculties of management and fisheries at Chabahar Maritime University were not complied in accordance with the specific needs of students and they did not have the power to motivate and in turn facilitate students' language learning.

KEYWORDS: ESP, needs analysis, course design, materials evaluation.

INTRODUCTION

The end of the Second World War brought new perspectives of changes and, consequently, new developments concerning trade and business at an international level. The increase in global exchange of goods and services created a demand for an international language, and English took this role due to the economic and political power of English-spoken countries, such as the United States, among other reasons. These developments along with the emergence of the communicative language teaching (CLT) in the 1970s caused a great shift in syllabus design from learning English as a system to learning English as a tool for communication. This shift of attention led to needs-based syllabus design and consequently differentiated courses appeared to match the differentiated needs of learners.

Since then learning and teaching languages has been changed a great deal for the learners increasingly interests in using languages for some directed purposes. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1992), learners know specifically why they are learning a language and it is the awareness of a need that ESP distinguishes for. Thus, they see students' needs analysis as a key point in the development of an ESP course as this approach of language learning is student-centered. The continuous advancements in various fields of commerce and technology have created the need for students and professionals to master the language specific for their need. In this regard, English carries heavy responsibility as it has become an intermediate language in many areas of modern science and technology which has turned to the growing demand to prepare and conduct courses for English for specific purposes.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

English for specific purposes (ESP) refers to the teaching and learning English as a second or foreign language by the aim of recognizing and covering the needs of learners in a particular domain. It is said that ESP is a "reaction against conventional foreign language instruction" (Strevens, 1977, p. 145). As the abbreviation suggests, such courses should satisfy very specific needs of people working or studying in various narrow fields (Petrova, 2008). So, it is assumed that any ESP course should obey a strategy of predetermined objectives based on a needs analysis of students learning English, to find out for what they are requiring the language which in turn leads to define as specifically as possible what the students need to learn in that language.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the approach to ESP should be based on the learner's needs in their respective specialized subjects. Hutchinson and Water's view of ESP points to the importance and roles of learners both in the design of the course and its implementation in the teaching and learning processes.

To recognize specific needs of students one would have to carry out some kind of assessment or evaluation of the existing textbooks. The types of modifications of learning resources are made accordingly to meet the kinds of individual differences with regard to time, goals, mode, or expectations of learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

The discussion of the importance of needs analysis focuses on its roles as a starting point or a guide for course design, syllabus design, materials selection, assessment or even classroom activities. With the information at hand of learner needs a course designer will be able to produce a detailed description of language skills, functions, and forms as determined in the learner needs profile, which in turn leads to design a course.

According to Robinson(1991),needs analysis is a predominance process in ESP programming procedure. For him the key criteria of ESP is its goal directedness, and its development fromneeds analysis to design courseswith the "aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English" (p. 3).Needs analysis is neither unique to language teaching nor within language training but it is often seen as being the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 122).

The evaluation of teaching materials is closely related to students' motivation and their needs, thus affecting the efficiency of the course. Materials provide a stimulus to learning. Good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn (Hutchinson and Waters, 1992, p.107). According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), evaluation in ESP situations is concerned with the effectiveness and efficiency of learning; with achieving the objectives. Not only does it contain assessment and evaluation of students' achievements, but also it satisfies the goals and objectives of the course. Therefore, materials should contribute to the achievement of the goals and objectives and meet the criteria for their selection. Alderson and Waters (1983 as cited in Pranckevičiūtė & Zajankauskaitė, 2012) point out that all those who share the learning process should carry out the materialsevaluation. Robinson (1991) mentions the tools to carry outthe evaluation: questionnaires, interviews, checklists,observation, grading scales, and records. Naturally, as theevaluation of the teaching materials and the students' needsare closely connected, they share the same tools. Thus, the selection of ESP materials should dependon specific the needs of the learners in relation to their future or presentoccupations or studies: that is, the focus of materials should be on the appropriatetopics and cover the tasks and activities practicing the targetskills areas (Ellis and Johnson, 1994, p.115).

The aforementioned ideas for choosing ESP materials and, consequently, for their evaluation, can be shortlisted in five criteria (Wallace, 1992, as cited in Pranckevičiūtė, & Zajankauskaitė, 2012):

1. Adequacy — the materials should be of the appropriate language, age, level.
2. Motivation — they should present content which is interesting and motivating for students' work. It aims atstudents' effectiveness, interest and pleasure of work.
3. Sequence — it is important if there is some relation to previous texts, activities, topics not to miss the sense of a lesson.
4. Diversity — they should lead to a range of classroom activities, be a vehicle for teaching specific language structure and vocabulary and promote reading strategies.
5. Acceptability — they should accept different cultural customs or taboos.

To sum up, materials evaluation not only helps an ESP practitioner to adjust the teaching materials to the learners' needs and their level of proficiency, but also keep them motivated. ESP courses have started to be more prevalent

particularly in our rapidly developing country in recent decades since Iran has undergone a lot of changes in her national and foreign policy, international trade and economy. Sometimes, it has been observed that students are not motivated to study English. As most of them do need English for their future studies and careers, it should be found out why they do not show enough motivation to learn English. One of the reasons would be that they have to study books which are not compiled for their specific needs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- 1) Are the books compiled for Management and Fisheries written in accordance with the principles of ESP?
- 2) Do ESP books for Management and Fisheries facilitate language learning if they are written in accordance with the principles of ESP?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Although a lot of books have been written with the claim of containing materials for specific purposes, some of them have not been prepared in accordance with the principles of ESP. This study intends to focus on some primary principles of ESP, especially needs analysis, and will show the significance of these principles on compiling books for special needs. Then by observing ESP principles and considering special needs of language learners, text-book writers can provide more beneficial texts, which will promote motivation among learners and encourage them to learn language in a directed way.

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive study was supposed to examine the application of ESP principles on course design of Iranian ESP learners at university majoring at management and fisheries. The type of research questions in the current research is quantitative and no hypotheses are supposed due to the descriptive nature of the research. To explore the needs of ESP learners, a needs analysis questionnaire was administered to senior students and their specific weaknesses and strengths in the four skills were identified. This questionnaire was administered among whom had already passed ESP course. Another questionnaire was administered to lecturers teaching ESP to define the elements of ESP courses. Finally, the ESP textbooks used for these students were analyzed for their appropriateness to specific needs of students.

Participants

The samples were selected from lecturers and students at Chabahar Maritime University. Lecturers were those who had taught ESP courses. Some of them were specialist in English teaching and some of them were specialist in the fields of management or fisheries. The other group of subjects, that is the students, was male and female college seniors, majoring in two different fields of management and fisheries at Chabahar Maritime University. The total number of students was 103 whose age ranged from 21 to 23 consisted of male and female students. The number of students at management group was 58 and the number of students at fisheries group was 45. Moreover, all the subjects were Persian native speakers and they had already passed their ESP course.

Instrumentation

Three instruments were used in this study as a whole to achieve the goals of the study.

Needs analysis questionnaire

The main data collecting instrument in this study was through distributing questionnaire. Two different kinds of questionnaires were prepared to achieve the goals of the study. First, a needs analysis questionnaire written in Persian was distributed among the management and fisheries senior students at Chabahar Maritime University where the research is from. It was adapted and adopted from Dakhmouche (2008) and translated into Persian to make the items easier and more usable for ESP projects. Second, a questionnaire for curriculum course design analysis written in English was addressed to the teachers who have taught relevant ESP courses at the departments of management and fisheries at Chabahar Maritime University. It was adapted and adopted from website (see references). Both questionnaires were closed-ended.

ESP Textbook Analysis

Another instrument used in the present study is the ESP textbooks written for management and fisheries students and taught to senior students majoring at these fields at Chabahar Maritime University. The kind of materials used as a textbook has such great influence on the motivation of students that can draw them to one side of the feeling of accomplishment or, on the other hand, disappointment. So, the researcher decided to analyze materials used as the ESP texts in the departments of management and fisheries at Chabahar Maritime University to determine their functions, percentage of technical, semi-technical, and general words, methodology and etc used to teach the ESP book. Having determined these elements, one can decide how much of the text goes in line with the ESP principles. A checklist, adapted from Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, and Nimehchisalem(2011), was used to analyze the aforementioned ESP textbooks.

Procedure

To achieve the goals of the study, the following procedures were pursued. First, the questionnaires were distributed among students. In order to get the student views on the effectiveness of the ESP courses, as well as the course-book, a needs analysis questionnaire was prepared and given to the aforementioned students after their final exam. Although 103 students participated in this survey, not all of them took it serious and only 89 of the questionnaires data were useful.

Having finished their final exams, the students filled the questionnaire and answered the required items and handed it out to the researcher. Also they might be too exhausted to answer the questions to the end or they might not be eager enough to complete them. The students were not asked to mention their names. Actually this part has been omitted intentionally because the researcher felt that it would influence the results as the students might feel embarrassment when answering the items. After collecting the questionnaires, the researcher read over the answers and started grouping them into categories. Then she encoded the data and transferred them to a computer for analysis using SPSS22 software analysis and assessment.

Distributing Needs Analysis Questionnaire to Teachers

To gain a complementary view of ESP course and students' ESP needs, it was necessary to administer a questionnaire to the teachers teaching ESP courses. So the researcher distributed another needs analysis questionnaire among the aforementioned teachers. This questionnaire consisted of two main parts: part A, overview of curriculum project, consisting of one closed type of question with eleven choices enquiring about the purpose of the ESP course. Part B, analysis of curriculum project, with three subsections: type of course, language requirements of students, and independent learning skills consisting of closed type of items.

The researcher asked the teachers to indicate their opinions by selecting items from the given choices. The researcher either collected the questionnaires herself or received them via email. Having collected all the questionnaires, the researcher encoded the answers in ordinal scale and then transferred them to SPSS software to be analyzed by the necessary procedures.

Text Analysis

As textbooks constitute an essential part in ESP courses and have a significant role in motivating the students, analyzing them to find out their degree of obedience to the rules of material preparation for ESP learners, is necessary. So the researcher adapted the ESP books taught in management and fisheries faculties in Chabahar Maritime University to examine their content against the ESP principles. The book taught as ESP material for management students was English in public and business administration, published by Payame Noor University, and the one for fisheries students was English for the students of fisheries, published by the Center for Studying and Compiling University Books in Humanities(SAMT). The researcher evaluated these textbooks with the help of a checklist for textbook evaluation, adapted from Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, and Nimehchisalem (2011), the have been proved to be valid.

Data Analysis

Research Question 1

Are the books compiled for Management and Fisheries in accordance with the principles of ESP?

The first research question aimed at investigating whether the books compiled for Management and Fisheries are written in accordance with the principles of ESP. No hypothesis was determined due to the descriptive nature of the

research. After analyzing the textbooks and the results of questionnaires, it seems that these textbooks are not written in accordance with the needs of students. According to the selected options by students in the questionnaire especially the questions 12, 13, and 14 (as is shown in the figures 1, 2, and 3), one can conclude that the priority of skills in their opinion are reading, listening, speaking and writing. In so far it is the responsibility of books to develop these skills, one can see that these books are not compiled in accordance to students' needs. On the other hand, as the lecturers are in the opinion that the priority of students' required skills are reading, writing, listening, and speaking, again one can deduce that these books have some deficiencies: they lack any part dedicated to skills other than reading. Although these books have done extensively on reading, they do not cover the other skills considered necessary both in the students' and in the lecturers' point of view.

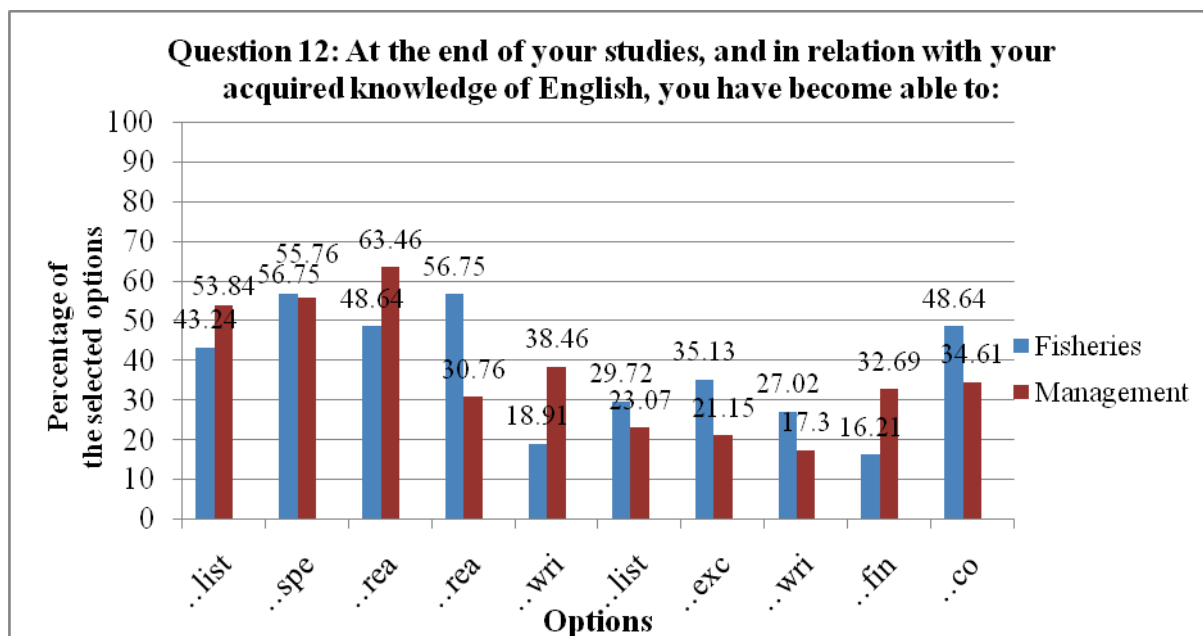


Figure 1: Percentage of the selected options for question 12

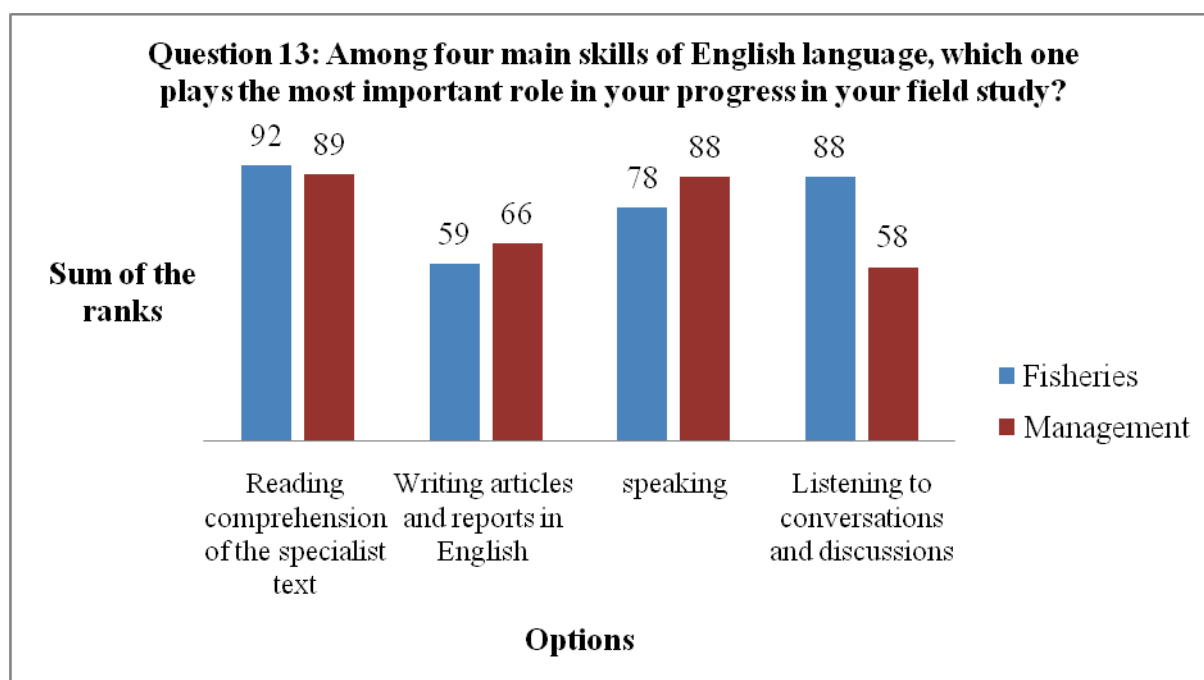


Figure 2: Sum of the ranks for question 13

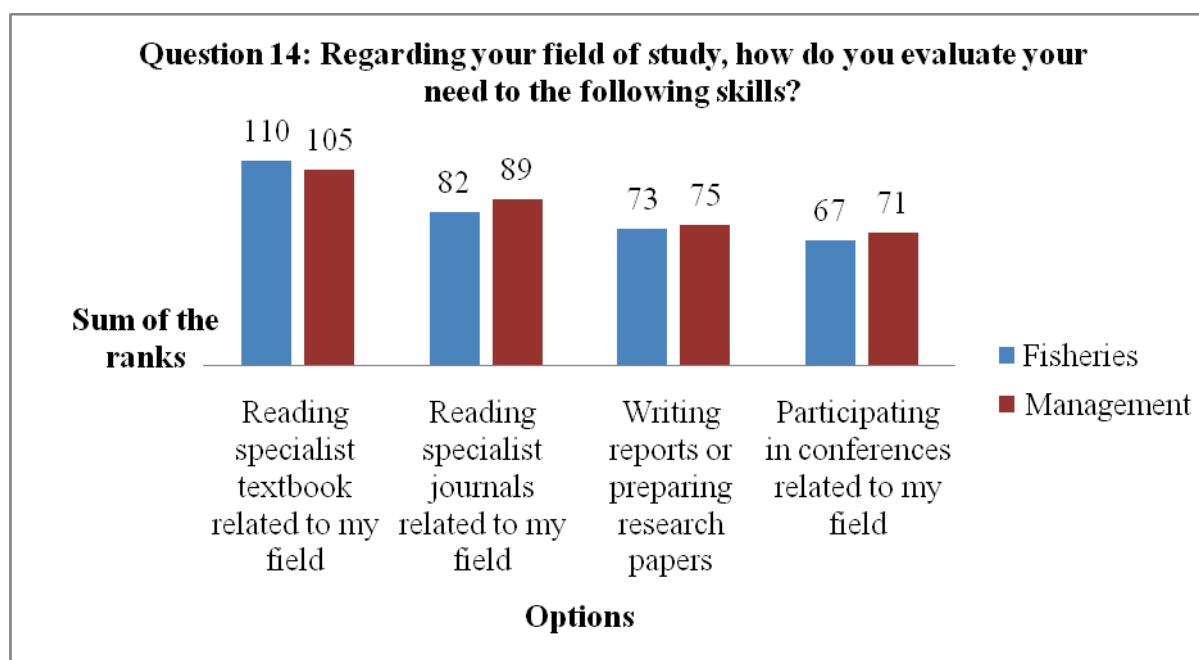


Figure 3: Sum of the ranks for question 14

Research Question 2

Do ESP books for Management and Fisheries facilitate language learning if they are written in accordance with the principles of ESP?

The focus of the second research question was on figuring out whether ESP books for Management and Fisheries facilitate language learning if they are written in accordance with the principles of ESP. To answer this question one can again refer to the students' answer to questionnaire. According to questions 8 and 9 (as is shown in figures 4 and

5), almost one-third of the students participated in this survey do not use English books other than their ESP course books; for the other two-third of students, the proportion of using these books to the whole amount of their books reaches 25%. Almost all of the students have considered English important to their studies (question 1); they have felt some kind of weakness and strength in different skills (questions 2 and 3, as is shown in figures 6 and 7), and they have determined and clear goals to learn English as well (question 12). On the other hand, seemingly their ESP books do not meet their expectations and needs. So, one can deduce that if these books are written in accordance with the principles of ESP, they can motivate students and in turn facilitate their language learning.

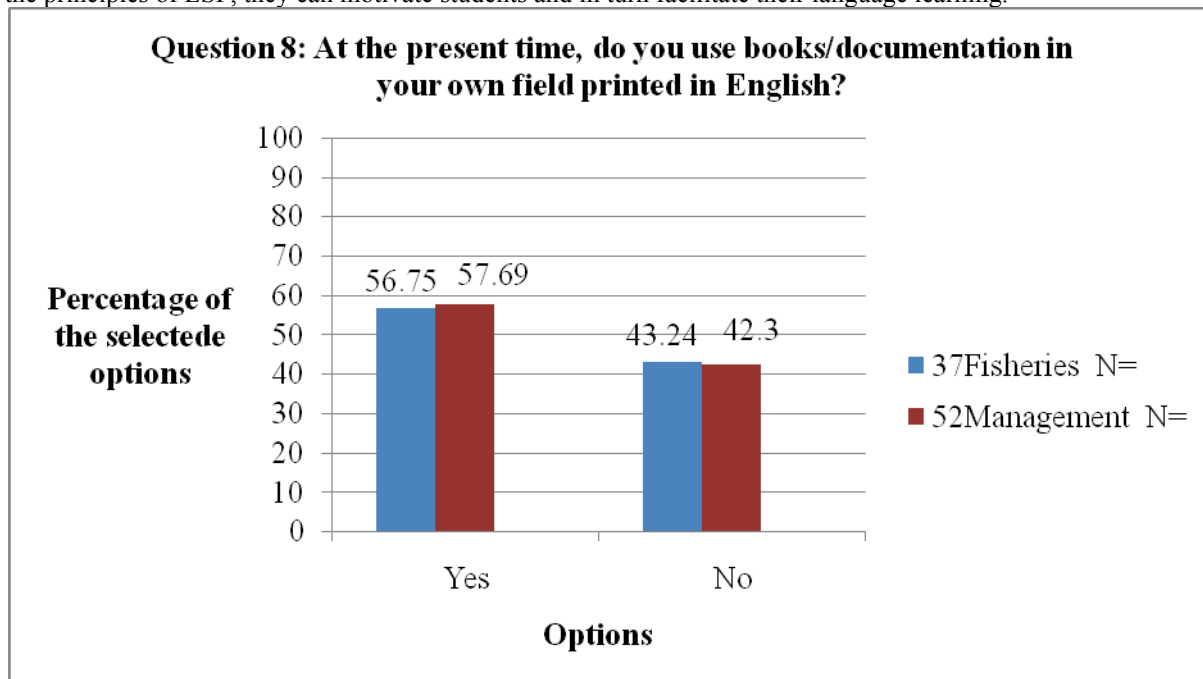


Figure 4: Percentage of the selected options for question 8

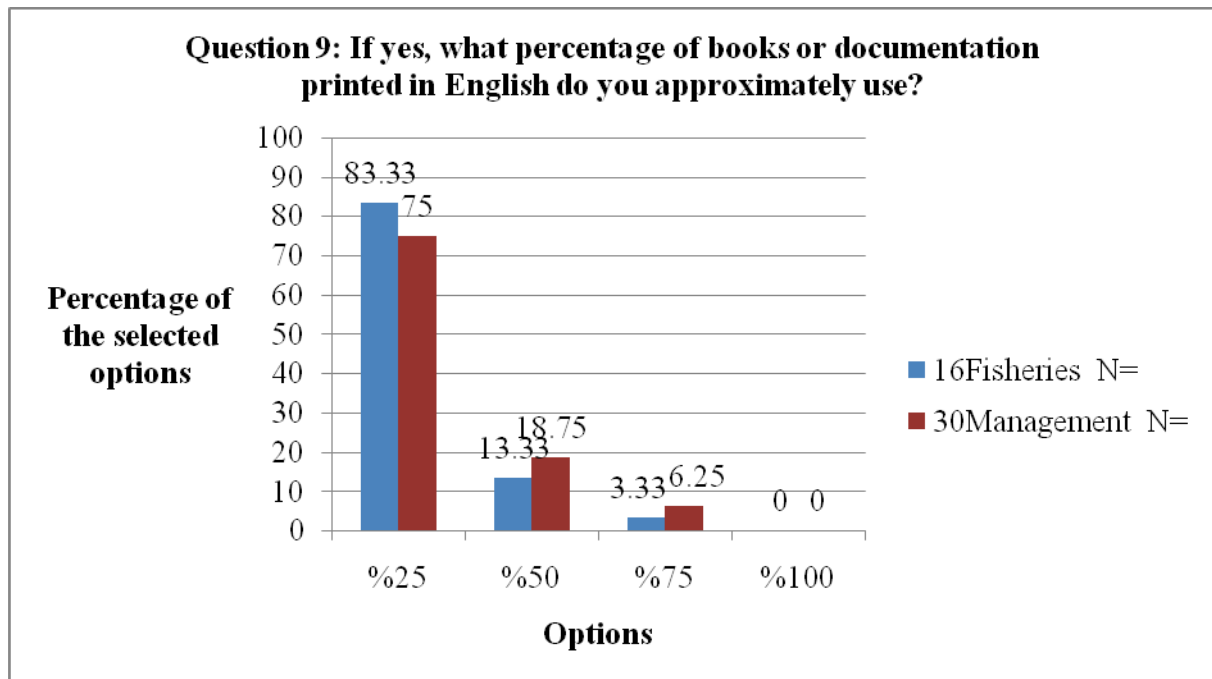


Figure 5: Percentage of the selected options for question 9

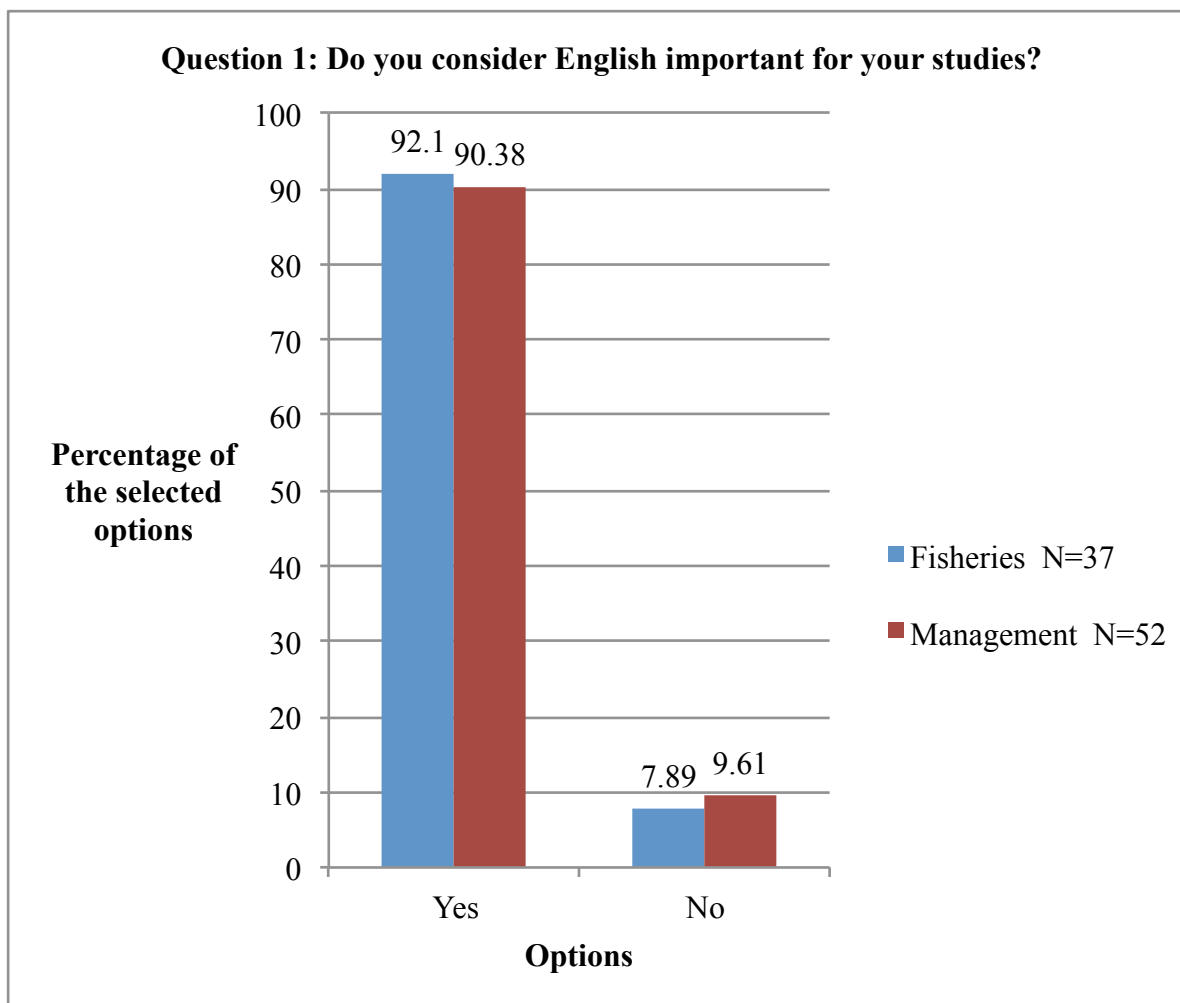


Figure 6: Percentage of the selected options for question 1

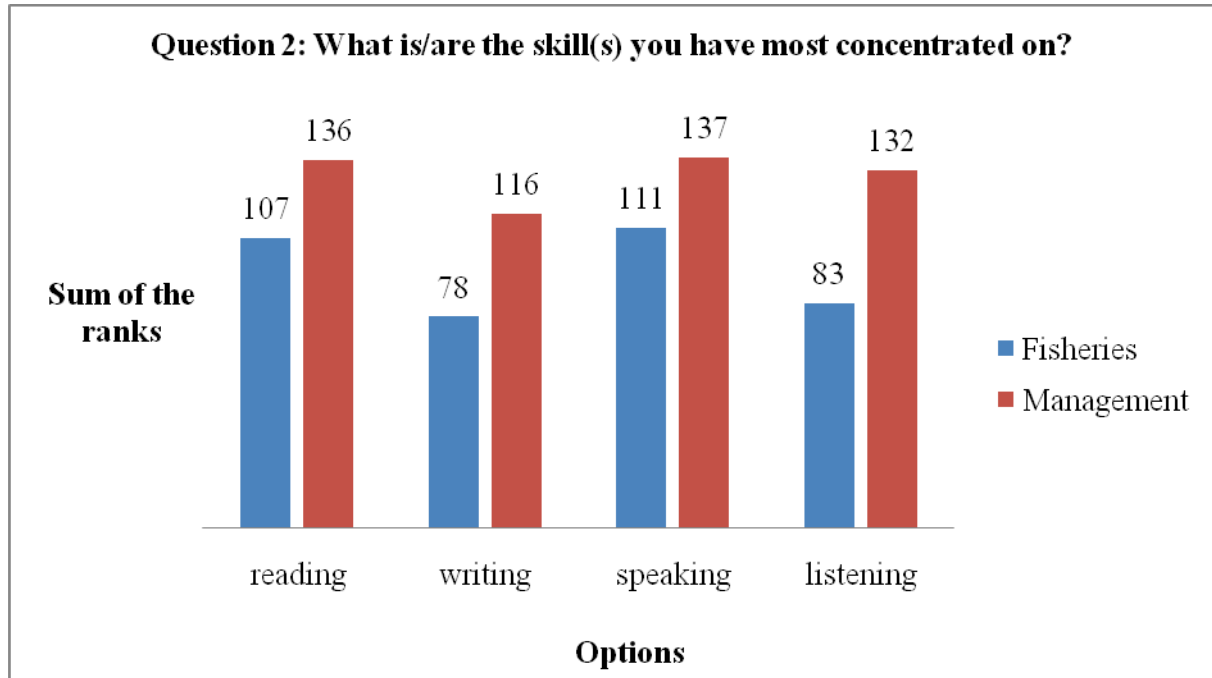


Figure 7: Sum of the ranks for question 2

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As stated in the preceding parts and chapters, this study aimed at investigating the application of ESP principles on course design: the case of English for students of management and fisheries at Chabahar Maritime University. Moreover, it is new in comparing the results of needs analysis questionnaire and curriculum design needs questionnaire with ESP textbooks. Two research questions were addressed in this descriptive research that would be discussed here:

1. Are the books compiled for Management and Fisheries written in accordance with the principles of ESP?
2. Do ESP books for Management and Fisheries facilitate language learning if they are written in accordance with the principles of ESP?

To answer the first research question, two questionnaires and textbook evaluation was conducted. According to the obtained results from the questionnaires and textbooks evaluation, it seems that the ESP textbooks used for students of management and fisheries at Chabahar Maritime University are not compiled in accordance with the principles of ESP course design. This finding is in line with the findings of the studies done with the purpose of textbook evaluation, such as: Zangani (2009), and Razmjoo and Raissi (2010).

Zangani (2009) evaluated ESP textbooks in Humanities published by the Center for Studying and Compiling University Books in Humanities (SAMT) and found out the objectives and materials of the textbooks are not in line with students' present language and vocational needs. As a result, the textbooks need to be examined thoroughly regarding students' needs. Razmjoo and Raissi (2010) aimed at describing the present state of SAMT ESP textbooks used in the Iranian universities of Medical Sciences from the viewpoints of students and instructors in order to provide a clear picture of the current status of those textbooks. The results indicated that instructors and students were not satisfied with most of the criteria which the SAMT ESP textbooks should fulfill. Moreover, the results showed no significant difference between the students' and instructors' opinions.

The second research issues under questioned in this study was whether ESP books for Management and Fisheries facilitate language learning if they are written in accordance with the principles of ESP. To answer this question, one can again refer to the results of the questionnaires and textbooks evaluation. According to these results, although students have clear goals to learn English, they are not motivated enough. One of the reasons of this fact, due to the answer of the first research question, would be the inappropriateness of ESP textbooks for the specific needs of

students, which cause students' frustration and failure in learning language thoroughly. So, if these books are written in accordance with the principles of ESP, they do facilitate language learning.

It's worth mentioning that Pranckevičiūtė and Zajankauskaitė (2012) conducted a research with the same purpose. They found that some of needs of the students were not met, but the materials used as ESP textbooks were reasonable somehow. Nevertheless, any interpretation of the results should be done with caution, because this research has been conducted in certain scope and limitations. Not surprising that any further research with the same purpose may reveal different results.

CONCLUSION

An overview of literature reveals the importance of needs analysis and teaching materials' evaluation as the determining factors for adjusting an ESP course to students' needs. Insights into teaching materials evaluation reveal their significance to designing courses, their implementation, and also their relation to the students' needs and motivation. The survey findings indicate that most of the students are motivated to learn English as they regard it important for their academic or occupational needs. The results of the survey show that the need for the development of particular English skills especially reading scientific English and vocabulary development seems necessary. Both groups of students felt a lack of productive skills, with speaking being the top priority. The teaching materials did not satisfy the students' needs for professional English considerably and did not meet the goals set for the ESP courses. Moreover, ESP teaching materials were not very motivating.

As the survey was conducted referring to the results obtained from the needs analysis questionnaire of students and questionnaire for curriculum design course analysis of teachers, the further study of the adjustment of the ESP courses to students' needs could be based on the analysis of the students' needs during the course and identification of their needs, wants, and lacks and comparing the results. This research evaluated two ESP course-book materials, referring to the principles of materials development, and matched the results of the analysis with the students' approach.

Referring to the survey results, the following recommendations and future improvements could be made: Although the students felt a high lack in productive skills specially speaking, the teachers recognized that learning this skill is not necessary in ESP. Maybe there could be a justification in meeting this need of students by including some texts covering this skill during the course.

A crucial implication of this study would be a change in the conventional procedure of materials development. It is also worthwhile to mention that a modification of materials would be necessary in order to present new contents based on present situation and target needs analysis. Due to the insufficient motivational power of the ESP teaching materials some ready-made materials with more powerful visual impact could be included into an ESP course as well. Another significant implication of this study is for course designers. Certainly, carefully planned and developed ESP courses offer a potent framework for effective specific English learning.

As with any research, the present study suffered from some limitations that make it conducive to further investigation. This study has provided empirical data on a certain group of learners who belong to a small group of students representative of management and fisheries students. Though the aim of this study is to have a clear picture of their specific English language needs to improve their English proficiency at academic and occupational situations, the picture does not yet cover the entire wide spectrum of the ESP process.

The results presented may not be generalized due to the fact that a variety of factors, including resources and the target population, can influence the decision of when, why, and for whom to conduct another needs analysis. Although, it seems relatively easy to administer and analyze the results of a questionnaire, there are some limitations in conducting it. The researcher faced the following limitations in this regard in her research study:

- I. As the questionnaires were distributed among students after their final exam, the researcher did not have any opportunity to explain about the questionnaire, clarify any ambiguity, and inform about the benefits of answering the questions honestly as well as the importance of the questionnaire.

- II. The students might have been too exhausted to answer the questions to the end or they might not have been eager enough to complete them, because the questionnaires were distributed after their final exam
- III. This research study was conducted on a limited number of students, so the findings may be different from those of similar studies carried out on larger samples.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE USE OF REFUSAL STRATEGIES BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL
LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate the perception of native speakers of Persian, Iranian EFL learners, and native speakers of English of how they would make refusals in different situations. In doing so, a discourse completion test (DCT) which was in the form of a questionnaire and introducing some natural situations was used and given to the participants of the study. The DCT consisted of three requests, three invitations, three suggestions, and three offers. Responses of English native speakers were considered as a base of speech act sets. The responses were compared with non-native speakers' responses to determine which semantic formulas and refusal strategies were used. In order to analyze the data of this study a chi-square test was used. The results showed that according to statistical analysis of the data of this study, there are some significant differences among the participants (ENS, PNS, and EFL) of the study in using refusals strategies in making refusals and there is a significance difference between social status and gender of people and their directness and indirectness in making refusals.

KEYWORDS: Refusal strategies, Pragmatic transfer, Discourse Completion Task (DCT), Iranian EFL learners.

INTRODUCTION

Much of the work in interlanguage pragmatics has been conducted within the framework of speech acts. Speech acts can be thought of as 'functions' of language, such as complaining, thanking, apologizing, refusing, requesting, and inviting. Within this view, the minimal unit of communication is the performance of linguistic act. All languages have a means of performing speech acts and presumably speech acts themselves are universals, yet the 'form' used in specific speech acts varies from culture to culture. Thus, the study of second language speech acts is concerned with the linguistic possibilities available in languages for speech act realization and the effect of cross-cultural differences on second language performance and on the interpretation by native speakers of second language speech acts (Wolfson, 1989:183).

One method of examining communication style is to use small and comparable units of discourse (Nelson, et al., p. 42). Speech acts have been used for this objective (e.g., Rose, 1992, 1996). Speech act has been defined and introduced as a minimal unit of discourse (Searle, 1969) and as a basic and useful unit of communication and interaction (Cohen, 1995). Examples of speech acts contain giving and responding to compliments, asking questions, apologizing, leave taking, making introductions, and giving refusals. Refusing as a one type of speech act has been selected as the unit of comparison because refusals often require strategies of indirection; refusals are face-threatening, and the possibility of offending someone is inherent in the act itself (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989). According to Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), the objectives of communicating clearly and protecting face are discussed in a face-threatening act. In making a refusal, a person rejects and refuses an offer initiated by another or backs out of an agreement, and risks offending the initiator. The more direct the refusal, the more the threat to the person's face. Because of this risk, "some degree of indirectness usually exists" (Brown & Levinson, 1978, p. 56); the person who refuses may need to soften the force of the refusal. Several studies have been conducted on refusals among which the works of Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Welts, 1990; Saeki & O' Keefe, 1994; Chen, 1996; Al-Issa, 1998; Kwon, 2004; Allami & Naeimi, 2011 are of great importance. To the researcher's best knowledge, while there are a lot of studies in the literature of refusals that have investigated the effect of interlocutors' social rank on their

responses, very few have paid proper attention to the role of the speakers' gender in selecting refusal strategies. For this reason, the present study aims to fill up this gap by investigating the influence of interlocutors' social status and gender on the provided refusal strategies. Moreover, this study examines Iranian refusal strategies and aimed at showing to what extent Iranian EFL learners were familiar with English refusal strategies and how they would use these strategies in their English. Then, in case of mal-application or wrong use of the refusal strategies, this study detect these pragmatic problems and propose new ways in solving these problems.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The relevant literature for refusals is rich, especially in intra-cultural interaction. Beebe, et al. (1990) compared the refusals given by native speakers of Japanese and native speakers of English by using a DCT of 12 items. The classification used in the present study and all other studies before are Beebe, et al's. They found great differences between Americans and Japanese in the order, frequency, and content of semantic formulas in refusals. Each adopted a different strategy for refusals; Japanese based on the social status of interlocutors while Americans on the degree of familiarity or the social distance from the interlocutors. Saeki and O'keef (1994) studied American and Japanese refusals by using an experimental design. Participants responded to a scenario, like a candidate looking for a job, by writing what they would say to the person in the situation. Chen (1996) has conducted a study to examine refusals employed by American and Chinese speakers of English by a set of semantic formulas. It was noticed that "direct refusal was not a common strategy for any of the subjects, regardless of their language background", and also that "an expression of regret, common in American speakers' refusals, was generally not produced by the Chinese speakers, which could lead to unpleasant feelings between speakers in an American context. Al- Issa (1998) ,in a study of Jordanian Arabic refusals, found by using a DCT that Jordanians were more likely to express regret (like "I'm sorry") than Americans, and that both groups employed explanations and reasons more than any other strategies. It was found that there were three areas in which socio-cultural transfer is existent in EFL learners' speech: choice of selecting semantic formulas, length of responses, and content of semantic formulas. Each was found to reflect cultural values transferred from Arabic to English. Nelson, et al (2002), in a DCT study, found that Egyptians and Americans differ in the level of directness used in face-to-face communication; both groups employed similar strategies when making refusals; and many were used with equal degree of frequency. Robinson (1992) concluded that Japanese ESL learners were all aware of the differences in appropriate American and Japanese situations of the speech act. Yet, the lower proficient students were more influenced by their native language refusal style, while the more proficient learners knew how to use the rules of English in completing the DCT items. In a preliminary study, Shigeta (1974) compared responses by Japanese and Americans in six DCT (Discourse Completion Test) situations; 2 apologies, 2 requests, and 2 refusals, and found that the Japanese were concerned about relative status while the American counterparts paid more attention to the personal relations or closeness with the person. Besides, the Japanese were more unclear in their responses. Kwon (2004) took a study in refusals of 40 Korean speakers in Korea and 37 American English speakers in the USA. The results showed that Korean speakers "hesitated more frequently and used direct refusal formulas much less frequently than did English speakers. Thus, Korean speakers' refusals at times sounded less transparent and more tentative than those of English speakers. In addition, Korean speakers frequently paused and apologized before refusing, while English speakers often stated positive opinion and expressed gratitude for a proposed action." It was also suggested that Korean speakers "tended to take a more mitigating approach in dealing with a higher status person as compared to other status types, whereas English speakers did not seem to be particularly sensitive to one status versus another in their refusals across the different situations." Kwon concluded that the way Korean-as-a-foreign-language learners speak often digresses from conventional patterns and may fail to convey the intended illocutionary force or level of politeness and appear unintentionally rude, uncultured or awkward.

The relevant literature of Persian EFL learners' refusals is not as rich as other cultures or nations. Some of these studies were done by Persian linguist and co-authored. Allami and Naeimi, (2011) have conducted a study to recast the issue of production of refusals by Iranian EFL learners, exploring the frequency, shift and content of semantic formulas with regard to learners' language proficiency (lower-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate), status of interlocutors (lower, equal and higher) and types of eliciting acts (requests, invitations, offers, and suggestions) on realization of the strategies. In this study thirty Persian speaking learners of English were asked to fill out a discourse completion test (DCT), consisting of 12 situations realizing the refusal of 4 types of eliciting acts. In addition, 31 native speakers of Persian were asked to fill out the same DCT, rendered into Persian, for comparative analyses. Responses of 37 American native speakers in a relevant study (conducted by Kwon, 2004) were also reviewed for evidence of common components of speech act sets to establish a set of baseline responses.

The results revealed that there are differences in the frequency, shift and content of semantic formulas used in refusals by Iranian and American speakers when responding to a higher, an equal, and a lower status person. Data also indicated pragmatic transfer in the realization of the speech act of refusal among Iranian EFL learners, and that there is a positive correlation between L2 proficiency and pragmatic transfer; upper-intermediate learners tended to transfer more L1 socio-cultural norms to L2 and made more pragmatic errors than the lower intermediate learners. The finding indicated that refusing in an L2 is a complex task as it requires the acquisition of the socio-cultural values of the target culture. Ghazanfari, Bonyadi, and Malekzadeh, (2012) have studied the cross-linguistic differences in refusal speech act among native Persian and English speakers with respect to linguistic devices. They conducted the study in two phases. In the first phase, they analyzed refusal utterances with respect to semantic formulas; that is, some words, phrases, or sentences meeting a particular semantic criterion to perform an act of eliciting. In the second phase, they examined gender differences, as well. In this study they used hundred movies (50 in Persian, 50 in English) as instruments for gathering the data. They watched the movies closely, and transcribed and analyzed the utterances native speakers employed in their refusals. Persian speakers used *excuse* more than English speakers; however, they applied strategies such as *regret*, *non-performative* statements, and *lack of* enthusiasm less frequently than English speakers. The Chi-square (χ^2) formula was then conducted to find out whether there were any significant differences in performing refusals speech act among the speakers of the two languages. The results showed that there are some differences between the two languages with regard to refusal utterances and gender. According to the refusal results, it was concluded that most Persian speakers used refusals as a way to reflect their conformity the first phase of the study showed that Iranians are more eager to consider themselves as a *community* when they refused others. In other words, in refusal utterances, they tended to use the word *we* more than *I* to keep their conformity even in refusing or rejecting others' requests. Therefore, Persian speakers tend to be of a collectivist nature, valuing group desires, while English speakers used more sentences containing 'I' in refusing utterances (regret and self-defense).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to draw up the boundaries of research, this study intended to pursue the following questions:

1. According to their perceptions, do Iranian speakers of Persian and Native speakers of English use similar strategies in making refusals?
2. According to their perceptions, do Iranian EFL learners and Native speakers of English differ in their use of indirectness to soften the impact of refusals?
3. According to the perceptions of the respondents, are status and gender significant factors in relation to indirectness in making refusals?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the study included 100 MA Iranian university students majoring in Persian literature, and Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) who directly participated in this study. These participants parsed into fifty Persian-speaking learners of English (17 males and 33 females) who were between 24 and 29 years old and fifty native speakers of Persian (20 males and 30 females), their ages ranged from 25 to 30. Moreover, the native participants of English were 10 (6 male and 4 female). The ages of ANSE were between (18-37) living in the Malaysia.

Instruments

In this study in order to cull the data, a written discourse completion test (DCT) that was in the form of a questionnaire was used. This test introducing some natural situations to which the respondents were asked to respond making refusals. A controlled elicitation way to source researchers with a means of controlling for a variety of variables and establish the differences statistically which are significant intra-linguistically and cross-culturally is discourse completion test (Olshtain, 1993). As pointed out by Hill and others (1986 as cited in Kwon, 2004, p. 341), "the virtue of authenticity in naturally occurring speech must be weighed against its reflection of speakers' sociolinguistic adaptation to very specific situations". Since the goal of the present study was to examine and observe the participants' use of refusal strategies based on some given situations, a DCT was considered to be an acceptable tool to choose. In this study an original version of the test (DCT) which consisted of three requests (items

1, 2, and 12), three invitations (items 3, 10, and 4), three offers (items 8, 5, and 6), and three suggestions (items 7, 9, and 11) designed by beebe et al. (1990) was used for the EFL learners and English native speakers and again a translated version of this DCT was used for the Persian native speakers. Of course some minor modifications were made to make the questionnaire more appropriate for Iranian context. For example, in situation 4, "Next Sunday, my wife and I are having a little party in my house." Was changed to "Next Friday" to show the weekends based on Iranian calendar. In addition, a second group of participants (Persian native speakers) were asked to fill out the same DCT translated into Persian. It was designed for the comparison of Persian native speakers' employed semantic formulas with those of the EFL learners. Requests are presented by Nelson et al. (2002) as polite demands for something; the requester asks a favor of the other person (e.g., asking to borrow class notes). Invitations are regarded as kinds of requests (e.g., asking someone to come to dinner), offers referred to (e.g., a piece of cake), and suggestions considered to (e.g., to lecture less in class). Moreover, situation types involved refusals to a person of higher status, equal status, and lower status. To assure the equality of the Persian and English versions of the DCT, the Persian version was assessed by five individuals (English teachers) fluent in Persian and English, and the existing discrepancies were resolved over some discussion sessions. Qualitatively, four native speakers' responses were analyzed to account for the validity of questionnaires and comparative purposes.

Procedure

The questionnaires were administered in Islamic Azad University of Abadeh as was done to the native speakers of English. ANSEs answered by emails; most of them took about one month to reply to the researcher's emails. Both groups of participants (EFL learners and Persian literature students) were given the DCTs and asked to respond in Thirty minutes. Then, the responses of these two groups were analyzed and examined to check which semantic formulas were used. The collected data were analyzed for components of each speech act present in the responses. Then, they compared with similar data elicited from native speakers of English responding in English. In order to have a fair analysis of the data, the produced refusals were divided into strategies. This keeps the researchers analytically and logically sincere, and also all the data are accounted for. The same classification of semantic formulas as employed by Beebe et al. (1990) was used.

Data Analysis

In order to gather the data of the study, a discourse completion test (DCT) which was in the form of a questionnaire and depicting some natural situations taken from Allami and Naeimi (2011), was used and given to the participants of the study. The DCT consisted of three requests, three invitations, three offers, and three suggestions. Responses of English native speakers were considered as a base of speech act sets. The responses were compared with non-native speakers' responses. Semantic formulas were used as units of analysis. A semantic formula refers to "a word, phrase, or sentence that meets a particular semantic criterion or strategy; any one or more of these can be used to perform the act in question" (Cohen, 1996, p. 265). In the case of a refusal, for example, one might produce three separate speech acts: (1) an expression of regret, "I'm so sorry," followed by (2) a direct refusal, "I can't come," followed by (3) an excuse, "I will be out of town on business."

The statistical analysis of chi-square was used to test possible differences among these three groups. Based on the answers given to the situations, the interlocutors were divided into the three groups of high status, similar status, and low status. In order to analyze, a chi-square test was carried out to examine the differences between male and female responses with regard to different status of interlocutors. The frequencies of male and female responses to request, invitation, suggestion, and offer items in DCT were determined and subjected to statistical analysis to see the probable significant statistical differences. Also, again this test (χ^2) was used to determine which semantic formulae and refusal strategies used by these three groups of participants (Iranian EFL learners, Native speakers of Persian, and Native speakers of English) and whether there is possible difference among them or not.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The subject of this study used different strategies in refusing requests, invitations, suggestions, and offers. The following table shows the type of strategies which were used by the native speakers of English and their frequencies in the act of refusing requests, invitations, suggestions, and offers:

Table 1: The frequency of the type of strategies used by NES

	strategies	Frequency	Percent
Direct	no	8	6.6
	negative	9	7.5
Indirect	regret	0	0
	wish	12	10
	excuse	45	37.5
	alternative	10	8.3
	condition	8	6.6
	criticism	12	10
	apology	5	4.1
	forgiveness	14	11.6
	empathy	5	4.1
Total		120	100

The analysis of the information of the table shows that the native speakers of English had only the two strategies of "no" and "negative" in their direct refusals. In this case, the percent of the use of "no" and "negative" is 6.6 and 7.5 respectively. When native speakers of English want to indirectly refuse something, they have more choices and they make use of the nine strategies of wish, excuse, criticism, alternative, condition, criticism, apology, forgiveness, and empathy among which the use of "excuse" with 37.5 percent had the highest frequency. The Iranian EFL learners on the other hand, used "no" and "negative" as the only strategies of directly refusing a request, invitation, suggestion, or offer. Table 2 shows detailed information of the type of strategies used by Iranian EFL learners:

Table 2: The frequency and the type of strategies used by EFL learners

	strategies	Frequency	Percent
direct	no	72	12
	negative	14	2.3
	regret	0	0
indirect	wish	32	5.3
	excuse	25	4.1
	alternative	34	5.6
	condition	21	3.6
	criticism	15	2.6
	apology	166	27.7
	forgiveness	129	21.5
	swear	78	13
	empathy	14	2.3
Total		600	100

Like the native speakers of English, the Iranian EFL learners also used 9 refusal strategies with just one important difference: while native speakers of English use "excuse" as an important refusal strategy, the Iranian EFL learners use "swear" as a very important refusal strategy which is nonexistent in the list of strategies used by native speakers of English. The use of this strategy shows a very important aspect of Iranian culture. In order to reemphasize the truth of everything, most Iranians have got to using swear expressions. The use of "swear" as a refusal strategy shows the impact of the patterns of Persian language and culture on Iranian EFL learners. On the other hand, Iranian EFL learners like native speakers of English did not use "regret" as one type of strategy in refusing requests, invitations, suggestions, and offers. While "excuse" as a refusal strategy has the highest frequency among the native speakers of English, "apology" with a frequency of 166 and 27.7 percent had the highest frequency for the Iranian EFL learners. Quite similar to the native speakers of English (NES), and Iranian EFL learners, the native speakers of Persian also use only the two strategies of "no" and "negative" as direct refusal strategies. The following table shows the frequency and the type of refusal strategies used by native speakers of Persian:

Table 3: The frequency and the type of strategies used by NPS

	strategies	Frequency	Percent
direct	no	42	7
	negative	23	3.8
indirect	regret	38	6.3
	wish	23	3.8
	excuse	44	7.5
	alternative	21	3.5
	condition	24	4
	criticism	22	3.7
	apology	147	24.5
	forgiveness	96	16
	swear	108	18
	empathy	12	2
Total		600	100

As the analysis of the table shows, quite similar to the Iranian EFL learners but different from the native speakers of English, "swear" has a very high frequency and is used as a very important refusal strategy. The interference of this strategy can be clearly seen in the type of English which is used by the Iranian EFL learners. Again like the Iranian EFL learners, "apology" with 24.5 percent has the highest frequency. It seems that the other refusal strategies are not often used by the native speakers of Persian.

According to the statistical analysis of the data, the researcher came across three important questions. The first question was do Iranian speakers of Persian and Native speakers of English use similar strategies in making refusals? The following table shows the Sig. and the X^2 of the strategies used by the participants (Iranian speakers of Persian and Native speakers of English) of the study.

Table 4: The chi-square applied to refusals by Persian and English speakers

Strategies	PNS	ENS	Expected	Sig.	X^2
no	42	8	25	.098	1.231
negative	23	9	16	1.23	.000
regret	38	0	19	.010	2.022
wish	12	23	17.5	1.87	.000
excuse	45	44	44.5	2.47	.000
alternative	21	10	15.5	.141	.009
condition	24	8	16	1.02	.035
criticism	22	12	17	1.19	.021
apology	147	5	76	.002	4.324
forgiveness	96	14	55	.022	4.271
swear	108	0	54	.000	12.253
empathy	12	5	8.5	1.22	.000

According to Table 4, The amount of Sig in using strategies such as "regret, apology, forgiveness, and swear" is less than 0.05. So, there is a significance difference in using strategies between Iranian speakers of Persian and Native speakers of English.

The second question was, do Iranian EFL learners and Native speakers of English differ in their use of indirectness to soften the impact of refusals? The following table shows the Sig and the X^2 of the indirect strategies used by the participants (Iranian EFL learners and Native speakers of English) of the study.

Table 5: The chi-square applied to indirectness refusals by EFL and English speakers

Strategies	EFL	ENS	Expected	sig	X ²
regret	0	0	0	3.782	S
wish	32	23	27.5	1.87	.030
excuse	25	44	34.5	1.47	.020
alternative	34	10	22	.189	.029
condition	21	8	14.5	.089	1.258
criticism	15	12	13.5	1.19	.098
apology	166	5	85	.000	9.374
forgiveness	129	14	71.5	.020	6.824
swear	78	0	39	.000	12.253
empathy	14	5	9.5	1.22	.028

According to Table 5, The amount of Sig in using strategies such as "apology, forgiveness, and swear" is less than 0.05. So, there is a significance difference in using strategies between Iranian EFL learners and Native speakers of English.

The third question was whether status and gender significance factors in relation to indirectness in making refusals? The following tables (Table 6 and Table 7) show the chi-square test of gender and status in relation to indirectness in making refusals:

Table 6: The Chi-Square Tests – gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.545 ^a	1	.000		
Continuity Correction ^b	30.557	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	35.708	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	33.210	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases ^b	100				

According to Table 6, A chi-square test for independence was used to locate the possible difference between the frequencies indicates significance difference between the indirect refusals given by male and female respondents. X^2 (1, n = 24) = 33.545 $p < .0005$

Table 7: The chi-square test - social status

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.730 ^a	8	.021
Likelihood Ratio	13.035	8	.011
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.308	1	.038
N of Valid Cases	100		

According to Table 7, A chi-square test for independence was used to locate the possible difference between the frequencies indicates significance difference between the status and indirect refusals given by male and female respondents. X^2 (1, n = 24) = 22.730 $p < .0005$.

This study intended to investigate the perception of native speakers of Persian, Iranian EFL learners and native speakers of English of how they believed they would make refusals in different situations. This study was conducted

to answer three major questions: Do native speakers of Persian and English use similar strategies in making refusals? The statistical analysis of the data (Table 4) showed that regarding the refusal strategies used by the native speakers of English and native speakers of Persian, some significance differences were observed. It means that while the subjects all followed mostly the same strategies, in some cases they were differ. Because, for example native speakers of Persian used "swear" as indirect refusal strategy which non-existent in English. Or, for example the Persian native speakers used "apology, regret, and forgiveness" as indirect ways of refusing other people requests, invitations, suggestions, or offers much more than native speakers of English.

The second question was looking for an answer to this important question that: Do Iranian EFL learners and native speakers of English differ in their use of indirectness strategies in making refusals? The statistical analysis of the data (Table 5) showed that regarding the refusal strategies used by the native speakers of English and Iranian EFL learners, some significance differences were observed. It means that while the subjects all followed mostly the same strategies, in some cases they were differ. Because, for example like Persian native speakers, Iranian EFL learners used "swear" as indirect refusal strategy which non-existent in English. And again Iranian EFL learners in using some indirectness refusals strategies like "apology and forgiveness" differ from native speakers of English.

And the last but not the least important question of this study was: Are status and gender significant factors in relation to indirectness in making refusals? The statistical analysis of the data (Table 6) showed that among the subjects of this study the frequency of the use of direct refusals by females is less than that of male subjects. The information of the Table 7 showed that there is significant difference between the frequency of refusals of males and females. It showed that gender has a very important role in using different refusal strategies as well as using direct or indirect language to refuse request, invitation, suggestion, and offer.

According to the statistical analysis of the data based on Table 7, there is a significance difference between the social status of the participants and the kind of refusal and the kind of language they used in refusing the request, invitation, suggestion, and offer of the people with a higher social status, with similar social status, or a lower social status. It means that the higher the social status of the people, the lower the frequency of indirect refusal will be or the lower the social status of the people, the higher the frequency of direct refusal will be.

CONCLUSION

This study tried to contribute to the existing literature on cross-linguistic speech act research by examining into sociolinguistic differences in the performance of refusals between Persian and American speakers with regard to types of eliciting acts and status of interlocutor. The result showed that refusals of American native speakers are different from Persian native speakers and EFL learners, though they do share some similarities. Persian native speakers and EFL learners are at to express refusals with caution and care, represented by using more "statement of regret", "statement of apology", "statement of forgiveness", and "statement of swear" in their refusals than American native speakers. Of course, it is necessary to mention that EFL learners like American native speakers did not use "regret" in their refusals. The statistical analysis of the data of the study indicated that social status and gender have a very important role in using different refusals strategies as well as using direct or indirect language to refuse requests, suggestions, invitations, and offers. Because, the statistical analysis of the data showed that among the subjects of this study the frequency of the use of direct refusals by female is less than that of male subjects. On the other hand, the higher the social status of the people, the lower the frequency of indirect refusals will be or Vic versa. It means that, it can be concluded that according to statistical analysis of the data of this study, there are some significant differences among the participants (ENS, PNS, and EFL) of the study in using refusals strategies in making refusals and there is a significance difference between social status and gender of people and their directness and indirectness in making refusals.

There are some limitations that should be mentioned and considered in further research: The first one of these limitations is that the sample size of this study was relatively small ($n = 50$) and further research with a larger sample may provide different results for the same research questions. The second limitation that can be considered is that the results of the study were generalized to all Iranian EFL learners, though the participants were selected from Islamic university of Abadeh. The third one that can be taken into account is that in such studies most researchers do not access to native speakers of English who can directly participated in such study; therefore, they have to rely on the data of other studies that have conducted in this area or elicit the native speaker participants' responses by email.

Therefore, in most cases the researchers may accost some problems and it may have some effects on the result of the study.

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**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL LEARNERS' MULTIPLE
INTELLIGENCES AND THEIR PERFORMANCE ON
REASONING-GAP WRITING TASK**

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ABSTRACT

Multiple Intelligence Theory (MIT) proposed by Gardner (1983), claims that there are at least eight different human intelligences. The theory stressed that if individual differences are taken into account and classroom activities are diversified, language learners can improve their language skills. The present study was conducted to investigate the existence of any possible relationship between Iranian intermediate English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' Multiple Intelligences (MI) and their performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task. The Preliminary English Test (PET) was employed to homogenize 60 participants regarding their proficiency in English. The final test-takers were 40 (17 males and 23 females). One of the other instruments used was Multiple Intelligence Developmental Assessment Scales (MIDAS) (Shearer, 1994). Another instrument used was reasoning-gap writing task. Based on Pearson Product-Moment Correlation analysis, the results of the study indicate that there is a statistically significant and positive relationship between the participants' performance on reasoning-gap writing task and logical-mathematical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. The findings suggest English teachers to consider the role of MI and provide more effective activities in line with individual differences in the class.

KEYWORDS: Multiple Intelligence Theory (MIT), Reasoning-gap writing task, Multiple Intelligence Developmental Scales (MIDAS)

INTRODUCTION

Individualism grew out in the second half of the 20th century, welcoming values and differences typical of individuals with an ever-lasting interest (Akbari & Hosseini, 2008). Since the introduction of the Multiple Intelligences Theory (MIT) in Gardner's *Frames of Mind: the Theory of Multiple Intelligences* book (1983), interest has been growing internationally in examining the role of Multiple Intelligences (MI) in learning, achievement, and knowledge acquisition. He believes that it is important to identify each individual as a "collection of aptitudes" (1993, p. 27) rather than being identified by a single Intelligence Quotient (IQ) measure.

Gardner (1983) suggests the existence of eight relatively autonomous, but interdependent, intelligences rather than just a single construct of intelligence. He redefines the concept of intelligence as "the ability to solve problems or fashion products that are of consequence in a particular cultural setting or community" (Gardner 1993, p. 15). In Gardner's (1983) point of view, intelligence is a combination of different abilities; he divides human intelligence into linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic intelligences. The following lines provide definitions for these intelligence types:

- *Musical intelligence:* The capacity to perceive (e.g., as a music aficionado), discriminate (e.g., as a music critic), transform (e.g., as a composer), and express (e.g., as a performer) musical forms.

- *Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence:* Expertise in using one's whole body to express ideas and feelings (e.g., as an actor, a mime, an athlete, or dancer) and facility in using one's hands to produce or transform things (e.g., as a craftsman, sculptor, mechanic, or surgeon).

- *Logical/mathematical intelligence* is the capacity to use numbers effectively (e.g., as a mathematician, tax accountant, or statistician) and to reason well (e.g., as a scientist, computer programmer, or logician).

- *Spatial intelligence* is the ability to perceive the visual-spatial world accurately (e.g., as a hunter, a scout, or guide) and to perform transformations upon those perceptions (e.g., as an interior decorator, architect, artist, or inventor). This intelligence involves sensitivity to color, line, shape, form, space, and the relationships that exist between these elements.

- *Linguistic intelligence* is the capacity to use words effectively, whether orally (e.g. as a storyteller, orator, or politician) or in writing (e.g. as a poet, playwright, editor, or journalist). This intelligence includes the ability to manipulate the syntax or structure of language, the phonology or sounds of language, the semantics or meanings of language, and the pragmatic dimensions or practical uses of language.
- *Interpersonal intelligence*: The ability to perceive and make distinctions in the moods, intentions, motivations, and feelings of other people.
- *Intrapersonal intelligence*: Self-knowledge and the ability to act adaptively on the basis of that knowledge.
- *Naturalist intelligence*: Expertise in the recognition and classification of the numerous species — the flora and the fauna — of an individual's environment (Armstrong, 2009, pp. 6-7)

MI Theory

MIT proposed by Gardner (1983) is a psychological theory about the mind. He criticized the traditional IQ tests as incompatible with his MIT. He proposed several intelligences to be at work simultaneously, and, thus, changed the perception that intelligence is a single construct. Gardner also believed that all of the intelligences could be enhanced through training and practice. It's a critique of the notion that there's a single intelligence that we're born with, that can't be changed, and that psychologists can measure. Gardner's theory is an excellent tool to enable teachers to plan attractive ways to provide learners with language learning practice. Within this cognitive model, "language is not seen as limited to 'linguistics' perspective but encompasses all aspects of communication" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 117).

Gardner (1993) makes a distinction between the isolation of each one of the intelligences within the structure of the human brain and the isolation of the intelligences when called upon to complete real-world setting. Intelligences do not work independently of one another in real world operations. According to the theory, most tasks require the simultaneous use of several intelligences in order to be completed successfully. He also made two claims regarding his theory of Multiple Intelligences (1999). His first claim was that everybody has all intelligence types, irrespective of age, sex, place of birth, etc. As concerns the second claim, he noted that no two people have identical intelligence profiles.

MI in Education and Curriculum Achievements

Educational programs are expected to meet numerous goals. In line with these expectations, it was put forth that students as individuals do not only respond to the stimuli in the world; they possess minds and these minds in turn hold pictures, languages, ideas, and so on (Armstrong, 2009). According to Gardner (1993), intelligences can be improved, modified, trained and even changed. In fact, human ability and intelligences are flexible and can be guided. Armstrong (2002, 2003) explains the application of MI to the classroom. He accepts the mentioned theory as the theory of education and learning trend that can support curriculum designers and educators with opportunity to apply it to educational settings. He also states that the theory can help both learners and teachers.

Gardner (1993) demonstrates that schools can try to prepare the situation in a way that students can discover their intelligence spectra and use their maximum potential to make a brilliant future. Based on Armstrong (2002), it is better to create an enjoyable classroom atmosphere in which students like what they learn and enjoy it. Using the MI Theory in the classroom can thus help teachers create such an encouraging atmosphere as well. The MI Theory is greatly required so as to deal with different students who have different minds. It will involve all the students with their different personalities to have more chance for learning and achieving success in spite of these differences that cannot be considered.

Many teachers and educational curriculum designers have used Gardner's theory in the teaching and learning processes and used its benefits. For example, McClaskey (1995) continued to use Howard Gardner's ideas on MI as model for developing lessons. So, he concludes that it is not enough that teachers learn to recognize the types of intelligences in their students; rather, we must find ways to share that knowledge with the students themselves so that they would be able to use their skills in situations outside our classroom.

EFL Writing

Writing can be regarded as a fundamental skill in EFL, since it needs thinking, forces students to organize their ideas, and requires a good command of the knowledge to be written on. Writing has been viewed as a discovery

process, provides opportunities for ongoing learning. It is clear that the act of writing is a way of structuring, formulating, and reacting to the inner and outside worlds (Marefat, 2007).

Lev Vygotsky in his "Thought and Language" (1962, cited in Eming, 1977) points out that writing and thinking are interwoven. Writing is a complex process that allows writers to explore thoughts and ideas, and make them visible and concrete. Chastin (1998) defined writing as an essential communication skill and a unique advantage in the process of learning a second language (L2). Richards and Rodgers (2001) contend that accounting for MI is in line with learner-based theories in education and language teaching and learning. Gardner's theory can have implications for language teaching and assessment in general, and teaching writing in particular.

A lot of writings in the area of L2 learning and teaching focus on individual differences of learners, and the need to develop more student-centered learning programs (Smith 2001, p.48). This emphasis has been repeatedly confirmed by researchers who have focused on learner-based approaches and have made a significant contribution to language teaching by increasing our awareness of the need to take individual learner variations into consideration and to diversify classroom activities.

Based on Furneaux (1999), writing is essentially a social act; "you usually write to communicate with an audience, which has expectations about the text type (or genre) you produce" (p. 56). Harklau (2002) declares that "writing should play a more prominent role in classroom-based studies of L2 acquisition" (p. 329). He also argues that not only should students learn to write but also they should write to learn. According to his idea, nowadays "reading and writing pass from being the object of instruction to a medium of instruction" (p. 336).

Writing and MI Theory

Gardner's MIT can have implications as far as teaching and assessment in general, and writing in particular, are concerned. Writing is one of the most challenging skills for L2 learners to master and the important roles that one can play begin to evolve when we look at how the brain sets out to experience the nature of reading and writing (Qualter, Gardner, Pope, Hutchinson, & Whiteley, 2012). Gardner's (1983) theory has not yet made an impact on the teaching of writing, though it has influenced some innovative research like that of Grow (1990), which offered some activities in the classroom that tap into the different intelligences.

In spite of the growing number of studies (Arikan & Saricaoglu, 2009; Razmjou, 2008) investigating the relationship between MI and aspects of language learning, particularly learning language skills, there are mixed results considering the studies which investigated the MI and writing skill (Ahmadian & Hosseini, 2012; Akbari & Hosseini, 2008; Marefat, 2007; Sadeghi & Farzizadeh, 2012).

As Rahimpour (2007) claims, the L2 learner's performance differs from task to task. So, L2 learners' production will be different when they perform different task types. There are different ways of classifying task types. Alternatively, they can be classified according to the kind of cognitive activity involved; that is, the Prabhu's cognitive classification (Information-gap, opinion-gap, and reasoning-gap types of task). According to Ellis (2003), reasoning-gap type of task are tasks requiring learners to derive new information from given information through cognitive processes such as inferencing, deducing, and practical reasoning are called reasoning-gap type of task. One example is deciding what course of action is best (for example cheapest or quickest) for a given purpose and within given constraints. "The activity necessarily involves comprehending and conveying information, as an information-gap activity, but the information to be conveyed is not identical with that initially comprehended. There is a piece of reasoning which connects the two" (Nunan, 2006, p. 54).

MI has been the subject of investigation in several studies. Ahmadian and Hosseini (2012) conducted a study to investigate the possible relationship between EFL learners' writing performance and their performance on multiple intelligences. The instruments used were the Multiple Intelligence Developmental Scales (MIDAS), an instrument designed by Shearer (1994), and the participants' average scores on two writing tasks, as an index of writing products.

The correlation analysis of the results revealed a statistically significant relationship between participants' MI and their performance on writing. In contrast, Sadeghi and Farzizadeh (2012) carried out a study aimed at finding the relationship between MI and the writing ability of EFL learners. The participants were given Armstrong's MI questionnaire which used a Likert Scale. The participants' writing samples were also obtained using an IELTS

writing task. Results obtained through Multiple Regression indicated that the components of MI did not have a significant relationship with the writing ability of the participants.

In spite of the growing number of studies investigating the relationship between MI and aspects of language learning, particularly learning language skills, less research has been reported in the literature to explore this relation between MI and L2 writing abilities. Thus, this paper aims to investigate the relationship between students' MI and their performance on a specific type of writing task, reasoning-gap writing task, due to its certain characteristics in terms of cognitive activity involved. The results may highlight the necessity of taking individual differences into consideration in language classrooms and show how such differences may lead to variation in learners' writing performance. If it turns out that MI have positive relationship with students' writing ability, there can be a new trend in language teaching, especially teaching writing, to improve students' writing skill through taking individual differences into account. The study may thus increase interest in the applications of MI to EFL writing courses with a goal toward self-directing, autonomous learners.

To the best of the researchers' knowledge, no work like the present study was done before, especially in Iran EFL context. The significance of this study lies in the fact that it brings the fields of psychology and pedagogy together by considering the differences between different individuals regarding their intelligences.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

To meet the objective of the study, the following research question was addressed:

Is there any relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' Multiple Intelligences and their performance on reasoning-gap writing task?

H: There is no relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' Multiple Intelligences and their performance on reasoning-gap writing task.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The initial participants of this study were sixty EFL Iranian university students, in three classes, including 30 males and 30 females, majoring in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at Islamic Azad University, Dezfoul branch, Khuzestan province, Iran. They were selected randomly from those Bachelor of Arts (BA) students who had recently passed the course of basic writing and it was supposed that they had the ability to perform the different writing tasks of IELTS practices. Moreover, to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in terms of their language proficiency, the researcher administered a Preliminary English Test (PET, 2005) as a pretest. From among the learners who took part in the testing session, 40 learners whose scores fell one Standard Deviation (SD) above and one SD below the mean were selected as homogeneous participants. Thus, the final test-takers were 40 participants, 17 males and 23 females. They were between the ages of 19-29 years old; all were Persian First Language (L1) speakers.

One ethical issue to deal with in the research was the use of students' personal information. Before collecting data, the participants had been informed that the results of questionnaires or performance on the tests would be used later for research purposes. However, they had been guaranteed confidentiality of data and anonymity of each participant in any future published report. Thus, no one had participated in this research against his or her will.

Instrumentation

The following instruments were utilized in this study:

Preliminary English Test (PET)

The first instrument which was used in this study was Preliminary English Test (PET, 2005), a second level Cambridge ESOL exam for the intermediate level learners. PET is an exam for people who can use every day written and spoken English at an intermediate level. It has been accounted as an internationally valid proficiency test that was used as a pretest for two purposes: First, to measure the overall language ability of participants and second,

in order to homogenize and select the main participants of this study. PET is planned, prepared and validated by Cambridge English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) examinations center and enjoys high degrees of reliability, validity, and practicality.

Multiple Intelligence Developmental Assessment Scales (MIDAS)

A questionnaire based on multiple intelligences, Multiple Intelligence Developmental Assessment Scales (MIDAS), was administered in order to identify the participants' multiple intelligences profiles. It is a self-report instrument of intellectual disposition designed by Shearer (1994) to provide an objective or reasonable measure of the multiple intelligences as reported by the person or by a knowledgeable informant. Gardner (1999) himself also recommends using it in Multiple Intelligences (MI) studies since it is reliable and valid. The Persian translated version of MIDAS questionnaire after piloting by the researchers was used in this study. The instrument includes 119 Likert-type (from a to f, with e being the highest and f being "I do not know") questions, taking 35 minutes to complete. Every question contains a "Does not apply" or "I don't know" option so that the respondent is not forced to choose an option that does not match his/her intended response. The questions cover eight areas of abilities, interest, skills and activities

There is no right or wrong response, and respondents are asked to read each item and select what they perceive as the best answer at that point in time in their life. The result of MIDAS had been intended to provide a reliable estimate to every participant's intellectual disposition in the eight intelligence domains. One hundred and nineteen items in the MIDAS inquires about everyday abilities wherein the examinees demonstrate their cognitive involvements and intellectual judgments. It should be mentioned that MIDAS scores are not absolute and it may change during the individuals' life as he/she grows up, and all the intelligences could be enhanced through training and practice (Gardner, 1983).

A number of studies on the reliability and validity of MIDAS (Shearer, 1996, 2006) have indicated that the MIDAS scales can provide a reasonable estimate of one's MI strengths and limitations that correspond with external rating and criteria. According to Shearer (1994) MIDAS is a valid questionnaire to explore a person's multiple intelligences. In the present study, as Table 1 indicates, Alpha reliability of the profile scores turned out to be as follows:

Table 1: Reliability Statistics: Chronbach's Alpha for MIDAS

	Chronbach Alpha	N of Item
Musical	.75	14
Kinesthetic	.68	13
Mathematic	.70	17
Spatial	.65	15
Linguistic	.82	20
Interpersonal	.85	18
Intrapersonal	.75	9
Natural	.80	13

Reasoning-gap Writing Task

The current study used a writing task chosen from IELTS Practice Tests Plus2 (Terry & Wilson, 2007, pp. 86). There was one reasoning-gap type of writing task, whose inter-rater reliability using Pearson correlation was calculated to be .81 (see Table 2). Thus, based on the significant inter-rater reliability of two raters' scoring, no need was felt for more raters, and the average of their scores was used in the data analysis.

Table 2: Inter-rater Reliability Coefficients of two Raters

Writing Task Type	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Reasoning-gap	.81**	.000

Reasoning-gap type of task required learners to derive new information from given information through reasoning. The difference between opinion-gap and this type of task is that instead of writing their own opinion, they were asked to write about more than one aspect of the topic and give reasons for their answers including any relevant examples from their own knowledge or experience. This type of task required learners to write around 250 words and time limit for this task was 40 minutes.

Writing Scale

In the present study, the assessment is based on Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Harfield, & Hughey's (1981) criteria. Jacobs et al. (1981) developed a scale which is widely used in the research literature. The guidelines provided by these authors clearly encourage the evaluation and assessment based on communicative writing. The guidelines provided by Jacobs et al. (1981, pp. 28-53) contains five criteria: Content has the highest score (30), and the lowest score goes with mechanics (5), organization and vocabulary have the same score (20), and language use (25), which totally make 100.

Procedure

The procedure applied in this study was, firstly, the selection of participants from undergraduate English language students of Islamic Azad University, Dezfoul Branch. To this end, a cohort of 60 students including 30 males and 30 females were selected randomly. The PET (2005), test was employed to homogenize learners regarding their proficiency in English. Having administered a standard PET test, the researcher reduced the participants to 40 (17 males and 23 females) out of 60. Accordingly, participants whose scores fell one Standard Deviation above and below the mean were grouped together as a more homogeneous group. After one week interval, the MIDAS questionnaire was administered and answer sheets were entered into SPSS 20 and sent to the designer of MIDAS, Dr Branton Shearer in the US, for scoring (see Table 5 for descriptive statistics related to this questionnaire). Then, the participants' scores on MI were obtained in the form of numeric values ranging from 0 to 100 (as defined by Dr. Shearer himself) for each type of intelligence.

One week later, participants were asked to write the composition (reasoning-gap type of writing task) around 250 words. They were paired randomly and each was given a reasoning- writing task. This task required learners to derive new information from given information through cognitive processes, such as inferencing, deducing, and practical reasoning. They were asked to write about more than one aspect of the topic and give reasons for their answers including any relevant examples from their own knowledge or experience. All the pairs did this task. The time limit for this task was 40 minutes. It is worth noting that information exchange is optional in opinion-gap and reasoning-gap types of task (Ellis, 2003).

In order to minimize the effect of scoring procedures, the participants' writing tasks were scored based on Jacobs et al.'s (1981) writing scale. Besides, these writing tasks were scored by two raters for determining the inter-rater reliability. The participants' writing scores were determined by adding up the individual scores of participants from different parts of the scale.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Regarding the analysis of the data, this study made use of descriptive and inferential statistics based on the research questions. This section initially presents the descriptive statistics for MIDAS and writing task and then provides the results of the data analysis for research hypothesis, then, it discusses the findings of the analysis. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of participants' scores on Multiple Intelligences questionnaire. The mean scores, minimums, maximums, and standard deviations of the participants' Multiple Intelligences are shown in the following Table.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Participants' Scores on MIDAS

Intelligences	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
interpersonal					
intrapersonal	40	22	82	51.95	13.55
linguistic	40	25	79	51.06	13.41
mathematical	40	17	70	46.75	11.06
spatial	40	21	84	46.33	11.81
naturalist	40	19	77	41.85	13.25
kinesthetic	40	2	75	41.17	14.06
musical	40	13	81	40.93	14.89
Valid N (listwise)	40	7	69	36.97	14.30
	40				

The mean score of the participants' performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task was

85.06. Standard Deviation of this task was estimated to be 11.93, while its Variance was 142.34.

Table 4 shows descriptive statistics regarding participants' scores on reasoning-gap type of writing task.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of Participants' Scores on Three Writing Tasks

Reasoning-gap	
Valid	40
N	0
Missing	
Mean	85.06
Std. Deviation	11.93
Variance	142.34
Minimum	60.00
Maximum	100.00
Sum	3402.50

Results of the Data Analysis for Testing Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' Multiple Intelligences and their performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task.

In order to investigate the relationship between the participants' Multiple Intelligences and their performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task, the researcher conducted the Pearson Product Moment Correlation test (Table 5).

Table 5: Pearson Correlation Matrix between the Students' MI and Reasoning-gap Type of Writing Task's Scores

	Musi	Kine	Math	Spat	Ling	Inte	Intr	Natu	Reas
Musi	1								
Kine	.349*	1							
Math	.362*	.425**	1						
Spat	.421**	.592**	.693**	1					
Ling	.488**	.421**	.645**	.515**	1				
Inte	.317*	.383*	.482**	.321*	.610**	1			
Intr	.114	.427**	.618**	.451**	.455**	.634**	1		
Natu	.375*	.378*	.646**	.592**	.609**	.340*	.352*	1	
Reas	.225	.273	.333*	.243	.209	.365*	.338*	.226	1

Musi= musical, Kine= Kinesthetic, Math= Mathematical, Spat= Spatial, Ling= Linguistic, Inte= Interpersonal, Intr= Intrapersonal, Natu= Natural, Reas= Reasoning-gap.

The results showed that all intelligences positively correlate with reasoning-gap type of writing task's scores; however, only logical-mathematical intelligence ($r=.333$, $p<0.05$), interpersonal intelligence ($r=.365$, $p<0.05$) and intrapersonal intelligence ($r=.338$, $p<0.05$) make statistically significant correlation with participants' performance on this type of writing task (Table 5). Therefore, the null hypothesis, there is no relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' Multiple Intelligences and their performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task, was rejected.

Discussion

In order to investigate the relationship between participants' multiple intelligences and their performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task, the results of the study, based on the Pearson Product Moment Correlation, indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between the participants' performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task and Logical-mathematical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Thus, the null hypothesis, there is no significant relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' Multiple Intelligences and their performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task, was rejected.

Christison (1999) believes that logical-mathematical intelligence is the intelligence which includes the ability to use numbers effectively and to use the power of reasoning. It gives the ability to understand the underlying principle of causal system. Thus, finding the significant relationship between participants' mathematical intelligence and their performance on reasoning-gap type of writing task, in which, learners are supposed to derive new information from given information through cognitive processes, such as practical reasoning (Nunan, 2006, p. 215), was not surprising.

Hedge (2005), states that writing is about guiding students to produce whole pieces of communication, to link and develop information, idea or arguments for a particular reader or a group of readers. Therefore, effective writing requires several things: a high degree of organization regarding the development and structuring of ideas, information and arguments. Gardner (1993) also believes that most tasks require the simultaneous use of several intelligences in order to be completed successfully. Interaction logical-mathematical, interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence in reasoning-gap types of writing tasks according to the findings of the present study shows the fact that was proposed by Gardner about simultaneous effect of several intelligences in different types of task.

Gardner (1999) mentioned that interpersonal intelligence includes the sensitivity to observe and understand other people's inner thoughts and outward performance. Moreover, it is the ability to get along with others well and effectively communicate with people, verbally and nonverbally. Intrapersonal intelligence refers to the ability to clearly understand the inner working of oneself, such as moods, ideas, desires, intensions, nature and motivations and then to use such knowledge for directing or planning one's life or future. Interpersonal intelligence is connected to the ability to harmonize with others, to understand their perspectives and opinions, but also convince others in order to achieve personal objectives. Dornyei and Murphy (2003) explain, "from Vygotskian constructivist point of view, that learning happens inter-mentally first, between minds in interaction, and only later becomes one's own learning, intra-mentally" (p. 86).

The findings of this study are in line with Ahmadian and Hosseini's (2012) findings, which used MIDAS scale to assess the learners' Multiple Intelligences, and Jacobs et al.'s (1981) scale to assess their writing. However, their writing tasks were different from those of this study. Results of the study are also in line with Marefat (2007), who tried to see whether there is any significant relationship between students' MI profiles and their writing products. The instrument she used was McKenzie's (1996) MI inventory. Results revealed that there is a significant relationship between several MI scales and writing performance of the students. Conversely, the findings of this study do not confirm the results of Sadeghi and Farzizadeh (2012). They used Armstrong's MI questionnaire and the

writing scores were obtained from an essay of IELTS writing task. Multiple regression analysis of the results of their study indicated that the components of MI did not have a significant relationship with the writing ability of the participants. This difference would be because of using different MI questionnaire, writing task, participants writing proficiency, etc.

One of the possible explanations for the discrepancies among the results of different studies concerning the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' MI and their writing skill can be the type of MI scale and written proficiency scale which is used. Many researchers at different times, in different conditions used different instruments to conduct MI based studies in the field of language learning. Some results were in line and some were at odd with other researchers' works. In short, instruments being used, participants and their study background and probably their ages can affect the results of a study.

CONCLUSIONS

The present study intended to investigate whether there is any relationship between EFL learners' MI and their performance on reasoning-gap writing task. The findings indicate that such a relationship does exist, and MI and writing performance are related, but from among the eight intelligences only logical-mathematical, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences have more statistically significant relationships with the writing performance. Identifying learners' level of MI can provide educators with the opportunity for predicting activities appropriate for both learners with higher level of some intelligences and those who are weaker. For this to happen, teachers need to realize that different learners with different levels and combinations of the eight intelligences are different in learning. Also, students' awareness of the MI profile may help both themselves and teachers.

Differences between individuals can be describes in innumerable ways which can accordingly categorize each person on the basis of his/her particularly prominent intelligence types. What this means in educational contexts is that different learning styles are accompanied with different intelligences in individuals (Yenice & Aktamis, 2010). What language learning concentrates on does not merely concern receiving instruction or using different information types effectively; it also engages teaching critical and analytical thinking skills when it comes to the practical use of the information (Albitz, 2007). The researchers hopes this study is to be continued with a larger number of samples and other learners from different First Language (L1) backgrounds to find out if similar results can be obtained. In this study, participants were intermediate level of English language learners and therefore the results might not be generalizable to the learners who belong to other levels of language proficiency. Thus, similar studies can be carried out with students of different levels of language proficiency like, beginners or advanced. With further research, the correlation between MI and performance on other different types of tasks can be verified. The findings of this study would be of great interest for most language instructors, who are interested in improving the writing performance of the students by giving them various kinds of classroom activities.

Certain limitations and delimitations are imposed on this study. The first limitation was related to the sample size; the participants were limited to 40 students, including 17 males and 32 females from Islamic Azad University, Dezfoul Branch, to be accessible more easily in a given time as soon as possible. Second, due to not having access to standard writing skill test, the reading and writing sections of PET language proficiency test was used for homogeneity purposes. One of the delimitations of this study was that it was narrowed down to one of the skills among the other language skills (i.e., writing). Furthermore, the participants of this study were all university students; thus, generalization to other levels and communities would not be appropriate without further research.

I would like to conclude by Gardner's comment warning us that the most important task in the new millennium is not just hone our various intelligences and use them properly, but figure out how intelligence and morality can work together to create a world in which a great variety of people will want to live (1999, as cited in Alten, 2001).

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EXTERNAL LEXICAL INNOVATION
IN LAMPUNG AT SALATUHUR

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ABSTRACT

The research aims at describing the language innovation in Lampung-Cikoneng in Salatuhur as one of the area in Cikoneng. Language innovation that studies is focused on language innovation externally because the influence language of Sundanese-Banten on lexical form. The research uses qualitative approach with descriptive method. Metode Simak and metode cakap uses to collect the data by referring to question list of 100 vocabularies that arranges by writer based on Wahya's research (2005) that studies geolinguistics of Sundanese in the border of Bogor and Malay in the border of Bekasi. Data analysis uses metode padan. The research found the language of Lampung that has innovation on lexical form as the borrowing word from Javanese-Banten is 14% (14 innovative variant) from 100 vocabularies in question list. The vocabularies of innovative variant as monomorfemic form is 12% (12 innovative variant) and polymorfemic is 2% (2 innovative variant). Then, the innovation causes by the changing sound is 5% (5 innovative variant).

KEYWORDS: external innovation, the language of Lampung-Cikoneng, Javanese-Banten

INTRODUCTION

The language of Lampung is one of the local languages in Indonesia. The language not only speaks by society who lives in Lampung area but also speaks by society in north Banten where most of people in this area speak of Javanese-Banten. Such speech community is the society of Salatuhur in Cikoneng area. Most of the societies earn a living as a trader and fisherman. The society more often have an economic transaction in complying their needs in the market which is located in the subdistrict of Anyar that most of the society in this area speak in Javanese-Banten. Therefore Salatuhur society will speak a local language of Javanese-Banten besides Lampung in their social interaction. Sometimes they speak Indonesian or Javanese-Banten to make easy in transaction activities. So that there is an assumption, it has had a language contact between Lampung and Javanese-Banten. It is possibly that Lampung has an influence or a borrowing from Javanese-Banten. The borrowing from Javanese-Banten into Lampung that is located in Salatuhur in Cikoneng area can be in lexical form.

The language of Lampung that still speaks by Salatuhur society in Cikoneng recently is one of proves that in the past had ever lived the people of Lampung in Banten area especially in North Banten. Hadikusuma (1987:13) mentions the society of Cikoneng is the history heritage from the glory time of Banten. The people of Lampung who live in north Banten recently assume by the writer as the generation from Lampung predecessor who lives in Banten after they give a service to Sultan Banten to trade and to study Islam in Banten.

Lampung is still a language family to Malay. Referring to research in the paper of "Language Family of Malay and Lampung that writes by Ramlan etl (2005:52), the percentage of similarity in Malay and Lampung is 48% in the range of 36-81%, so that the language is a family. One of the research conclusions explain that Lampung is not an

old Malay language and is not a part of Malay dialect. In other word, Lampung as a language has a unique system. The relation between the language of Lampung in Lampung and the language of Lampung in Salatuhur can assume as language of a family to Malay but is not old Malay and is not a part of Malay dialect. The language of Lampung in Salatuhur still assumes as a subdialect from the language of Lampung in Lampung.

The development language of Lampung that is located in Salatuhur also develops suit with situation and the language toward to its speaker. The development of language can develop because the influence geografic condition. The language is different from the language in Lampung province as a spoken native language. Besides the speaker's social influence, the language can influence by language contact with majority language of Javanese-Banten. The language situation is the research problem in this paper because language contact can assume to influence to borrowing a language by a certain language.

Theoretical background

Dialectology is the field of linguistics to study the variations of language in all its aspects. Dialectology can divide into two: dialect geografic and sociolinguistics (Kerap, 1984:143). According to Kerap (1984) dialect is every group that have the similarity features in sound system, vocabulary, morfology, and syntaxis. While Wahya (2005:42) states dialect is the form of language variation either in social environmental or in a certain geografic environmental.

According to Saussure (in Wahya, 2005:53) inovation form cann't be predictable. Lexicon variant takes place in certain area geografically can only observe its result. It can have two things relate to new thing that connects to the area that has lexicon variant, there consists one area and does not create the different dialect at all or the change only takes place in a part of the area as often has so that every dialect fact has a unique form. But there is possibility the element that change takes place in the same language with the different limitations.

Language inovation form can view from the aspect of meaning and language form. Wahya (2005) explains that language system; inovation can be inovation form and inovation meaning. Inovation form can be in lexical inovation, fonetic inovation, morfological inovation, and syntaxis inovation. Referring to the inovation in geografic variation, inovation in geolinguistics, as this concept to know in dialectology and historic linguistics can be group into: internal inovation and external inovation. Inovation in lexicon whether in form or meaning, is inovation in lexical form and lexical meaning. The first is lexical inovation in full form and lexical inovation in incomplete or lexical inovation in fonetic. Inovation relates to change in meaning is inovation in meaning. The form of lexical inovation in incomplete or lexical inovation in fonetic can be asimilation, dismilation, sound adding (prothesis, epentesis, paragog), sound deleting (aferesis, sinkop, apokop) metathesis, unstressed sound.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The previous research that relates to inovation have been conducted by Wahya (2005) who studies "Inovation and lexical geografic-difusion in Malay and the language in Bogor-Bekasi border: geolinguistics study". The research recommends some suggestions and still need continuation research especially in border area because the border areas as a multidialect and multilingual is assume to have higher tendency in showing inovation for every area. Therefore the writer conducts a research in the area of multilingual such as in Anyar subdistrict especially in Cikoneng.

Besides lexical inovation, there is reseacrth of language family and language mapping who conducts by Cucu Suminar,etl that supports by Bandung Language Center (Balai Bahasa Jawa Barat) in 2009 as a renewal research of language family and language mapping in West Java area and Banten in 2006, 2007, and 2008 that covers Salatuhur in Cikoneng area. The language mapping in Banten is to describe a language family and map a language in three areas as a sample observation. One of the mapping areas is Cikoneng in Anyar subdistrict. The aim of the research is to realize the result of language family and language map in West Java area and Banten in 2006-2008 into a map of language. One of the conclusions found four languages: Sundanese, Betawi Malay, Javanese, and Lampung-Cikoneng in the area of West Java and Banten.

Language inovation particulary in lexical inovation has also ever studied by Winci Firdaus (2012) who studies language inovation in Sundanese in Banjarsari subdistrict Ciamis regency. The study conducts to Sundanese that speaks by society who lives in the border of Ciamis and central Java.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of the study is to find out external innovation in Lampung. So the objective study will formulate in the research question:

1. How external lexical innovation in Lampung at Salatuhur that assume to borrowing language of Javanese-Banten causes from the process of sosial interaction?

METHODOLOGY

The research uses qualitative approach. The method uses comparative-descriptive method. The reason use of descriptive is to see only the fact or phenomenon that exists empirically in speakers so that the result is language description like what is it. Comparative is to suggest in method in comparing one data to another data (Sudaryanto, 1992).

The obtained data from informan is by using the method of *simak* and method of *cakap*. The method of *simak* conducts by listen to the language use. The technique uses is the technique *sadap* then *catat*, and *rekam*. While the method of *cakap* conducts by having conversation between researcher and informan. Data analysis uses the method of *padan*.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

External innovation is the innovation that is the borrowing lexicon from other language, in this case the language out of Lampung historically, geografic, and social by having language contact with the language of Lampung. In this research, the language contact with Lampung at Salatuhur in Cikoneng area is Javanese-Banten. The language has the large influence to the Lampung lexicon because the area of language use is close.

After clasifying the question list of 100 word that arranges refering to 200 Swadesh basic vocabulary and question list that arranges by Wahya (2005), here is the table describe lexical innovation types of external innovation that has to language of Lampung-Cikoneng at Salatuhur Cikoneng area.

Borrowing Word

The language of Lampung at Salatuhur in Cikoneng area influence by Javanese-Banten causes the language contact between two languages. Salatuhur society is bilingual so the informan in this research is the speaker who can speak bilingual, that is: the language of Lampung and Javanese Banten.

Based on the result and observation to the language of Lampung at Salatuhur Cikoneng area as a comparative language, here is the description of words in Lampung and entity then geografic distribution of borrowing word from Javanese-Banten in Lampung.

No.	Word and Glos	Inovative Variant		Borrowing
		Word in Lampung		Word in Javanese-Banten
		Salatuhur	Cikoneng	Anyar
1	Hitam Black	areng	areng/halom	ireng
2	bangku kecil (di dapur) small desk (in the kitchen)	dedingklik	didingklik	dengklik
3	Ceremai Small red fruit often candied	ceremi	ceremi	cereme
4	Ulat Caterpillar	ulek	ughol/lattung/ulek	ulak
5	Berapa How much	piro	piRa	pira
6	Kelapa Coconut	kelapo	kelapa	kelapo
7	udang shrimp	urang	uRang	urang
8	Padi Paddy	pari	paRi	pari
9	goreng pisang Fried banana	gegodoh pisang	pisang goreng	gegodoh pisang
10	Petir Thunderbolt	gl3d3k	gel3d3k	gl3d3k
11	Kelingking Little finger	jentik	jentik/kecik	jentik
12	Tenggelam Sink	kelelep	kelelep/teghallom	kelelep
13	tiga perempat third fourth	telu perempat	telu perempat	telu perempat
14	Bayam Spinach	bayem	ayum/bayem	bayem

Based on above table, it can be concluded that the total of word percentage in Lampung that borrow from Javanese-Banten is 14% from 14 glos (14 inovative variant) that has classfied to have borrowing from the language out of Lampung.

Monomorfemics

After classfying word in Lampung that has borrowing from Javanese-Banten, here the description of entity and geografic distribution of word borrowing that has pure monomorfemics from Javanese-Banten in Lampung. In deciding the borrowing is based on the finding of variant in the observation focus area that has monomorfemics word from Javanese-Banten and is borrowed without forming change or meaning by Lampung. For the completely type of borrowing Javanese-Banten will present in the table as follow.

No.	Word and Glos	Monomorfemics Word	Geografic Distribution	
		Salatuhur	Observation focus	Frequency
1	Hitam Black	areng	1	
2	bangku kecil (di dapur) small desk (in the kitchen)	dedingklik	1	
3	Ceremai Small red fruit often candied	ceremi	1	
4	Ulat Caterpillar	ulek	1	
5	Berapa How much	piro	1	
6	Kelapa Coconut	kelapo	1	
7	Udang Shrimp	urang	1	
8	Padi Paddy	pari	1	
9	Petir thunderbolt	gl3d3k	1	
10	Kelingking Little finger	jentik	1	
11	Tenggela Sink	kelelep	1	
12	Bayam Spinach	bayem	1	

From the table can conclude that the total of word percentage in Lampung that borrow from Javanese-Banten and includes monomorfemics word form is 12% from 12 glos (12 inovative variant). Those words find in the observation focus area that is located near to the area of language use of Javanese-Banten. The observation focus area of Lampung is absolutely having language contact with the area of language use of Javanese-Banten.

Polymorfemis

Besides the borrowing monomorfemics word from Javanese-Banten, there is also the borrowing polymorfemics word from Javanese-Banten in Lampung at Salatuhur eventhough the word is limited.

The following clasification is the borrowing word from Javanese-Banten type of polymorfemics. The entity and geografic distribution of borrowing word of word type pure polymorfemics from Javanese-Banten in Lampung-Cikoneng describe in the table as follow:

No.	Word and Glos	Polymorfemics word	Geografic Distribution	
		Salatuhur	Observation focus	Frequency
1	goreng pisang Fried banana	gegodo pisang	1	
2	tiga perempat third fourth	telu perempat	1	

From the table can be concluded that the total of percentage of polimorfemics word is 12% from 2 glos (2 inovative variant).

Changing sound

Lexical innovation can identify based on lexem that has changing in sound in Lampung-Cikoneng that borrow from Javanese-Banten. Here is explain the entity and geografic distribution of borrowing word from Javanese-Banten that has changing in sound in Lampung-Cikoneng.

No	Word and glos	Inovative variant		The Borrowing	Changing in sound
		Word in Lampung-Cikoneng		Word in Javanese-Banten	
		Salatuhur	Cikoneng	Anyar	
1	Hitam Black	Areng	areng/halom	ireng	Weak sound
2	bangku kecil (di dapur) small desk (in the kitchen)	Dedinklik	didingklik	dengklik	Add sound
3	Ceremai Small red fruit often candied	Ceremi	ceRamen	cereme	Strong sound
4	Ulat Caterpillar	ule?	ughol/lattung/ule?	ula?	Strong sound
5	Berapa How much	Piro	piRa	pira	Strong sound

Based on above table can be concluded the total percentage of word in Lampung that have changing in sound because the influence of Javanese-Banten is 5% from 5 glos (5 inovative variant).

From the data above, it can explain that lexical innovation in Lampung at Salatuhur that causes by the changing sound because the weak sound in vocal fonem /a/ is weaken than vocal fonem /i/ in the word of 'areng'. Then, there is to strengten sound in the vocal fonem /i/ stronger than vocal fonem /e/ in the word of 'ceremi', vocal /ə/ stronger than vocal /a/ in the word of 'ule?', and vocal /o/ stronger than vocal /a/ in the word of 'piro'. The changing sound causes by sound adding of infix syllable, that is: infixation consonant /d/ and vocal /i/ in the word of 'dedinklik'.

CONCLUSION

The research is an effort to find out external innovation in Lampung at Salatuhur to have borrowing from Javanese-Banten causes from the process of social interaction. The finding research based on results and discussions can conclude that:

- 1) The word of Lampung that the result from Javanese-Banten at Salatuhur in Cikoneng is 14 inovative variant (145) from 14 glos and from 100 list question (vocabulary).
- 2) The word of Lampung that has borrowing from Javanese-Banten that has in monomorfemics form is 12 inovative variant (12% from 12 glos).
- 3) The word of Lampung that has borrowing from Javanese-Banten that has polimorfemics form is 2 inovative variant (2%) from 2 glos.
- 4) The word of Lampung that has changing in sound because the influence word from Javanese-Banten is 5% from 5 glos (5 inovative variant).

Limitations of study

The research studies lexical innovation in Lampung at Salatuhur that assume to have a borrowing language of Javanese-Banten causes from the process of social interaction. There are some limitations regarding to this study, as follow:

1. The research only focuses to borrowing of Javanese-Banten causes from the process of social interaction. Thus, for future study can focus in phonological study especially in dialect which have different

- phonological element study between the native language in Lampung province and the language of Lampung in Banten area in the influence of external and internal factors of Salatuhur speech community recently.
2. The changing in meaning will be interested to study in the following research so the study not only focus to borrowing word, monomorfemics, polimorfemics, and the changing sound process in Lampung in Salatuhur but also word meaning that change between the native language in Lampung province and the language of Lampung in Banten area.

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INTRODUCTION

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The obtained data from informan is by using the method of *simak* and method of *cakap*. The method of *simak* conducts by listen to the language use. The technique uses is the technique *sadap* then *catat*, and *rekam*. While the method of *cakap* conducts by having conversation between researcher and informan. Data analysis uses the method of *padan*.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

External innovation is the innovation that is the borrowing lexicon from other language, in this case the language out of Lampung historically, geografic, and social by having language contact with the language of Lampung. In this research, the language contact with Lampung at Salatuhur in Cikoneng area is Javanese-Banten. The language has the large influence to the Lampung lexicon because the area of language use is close.

After clasifying the question list of 100 word that arranges refering to 200 Swadesh basic vocabulary and question list that arranges by Wahya (2005), here is the table describe lexical innovation types of external innovation that has to language of Lampung-Cikoneng at Salatuhur Cikoneng area.

Borrowing Word

The language of Lampung at Salatuhur in Cikoneng area influence by Javanese-Banten causes the language contact between two languages. Salatuhur society is bilingual so the informan in this research is the speaker who can speak bilingual, that is: the language of Lampung and Javanese Banten.

Based on the result and observation to the language of Lampung at Salatuhur Cikoneng area as a comparative language, here is the description of words in Lampung and entity then geografic distribution of borrowing word from Javanese-Banten in Lampung.

No.	Word and Glos	Inovative Variant		Borrowing
		Word in Lampung		Word in Javanese-Banten
		Salatuhur	Cikoneng	Anyar
1	Hitam Black	areng	areng/halom	ireng
2	bangku kecil (di dapur) small desk (in the kitchen)	dedingklik	didingklik	dengklik
3	Ceremai Small red fruit often candied	ceremi	ceremi	cereme
4	Ulat Caterpillar	ulek	ughol/lattung/ulek	ulak
5	Berapa How much	piro	piRa	pira
6	Kelapa coconut	kelapo	kelapa	kelapo
7	udang shrimp	urang	uRang	urang
8	Padi Paddy	pari	paRi	pari
9	goreng pisang Fried banana	gegodoh pisang	pisang goreng	gegodoh pisang
10	Petir thunderbolt	gl3d3k	gel3d3k	gl3d3k
11	Kelingking Little finger	jentik	jentik/kecik	jentik
12	Tenggelam Sink	kelelep	kelelep/teghallom	kelelep
13	tiga perempat third fourth	telu perempat	telu perempat	telu perempat
14	Bayam Spinach	bayem	ayum/bayem	bayem

Based on above table, it can be concluded that the total of word percentage in Lampung that borrow from Javanese-Banten is 14% from 14 glos (14 inovative variant) that has classfied to have borrowing from the language out of Lampung.

Monomorfemics

After classfying word in Lampung that has borrowing from Javanese-Banten, here the description of entity and geografic distribution of word borrowing that has pure monomorfemics from Javanese-Banten in Lampung. In deciding the borrowing is based on the finding of variant in the observation focus area that has monomorfemics word from Javanese-Banten and is borrowed without forming change or meaning by Lampung. For the competely type of borrowing Javanese-Banten will present in the table as follow.

No.	Word and Glos	Monomorfemics Word	Geografic Distribution	
		Salatuhur	Observation focus	Frequency
1	Hitam Black	areng	1	
2	bangku kecil (di dapur) small desk (in the kitchen)	dedingklik	1	
3	Ceremai Small red fruit often candied	ceremi	1	
4	Ulat Caterpillar	ulek	1	
5	Berapa How much	piro	1	
6	Kelapa Coconut	kelapo	1	
7	Udang Shrimp	urang	1	
8	Padi Paddy	pari	1	
9	Petir thunderbolt	gl3d3k	1	
10	Kelingking Little finger	jentik	1	
11	Tenggela Sink	kelelep	1	
12	Bayam Spinach	bayem	1	

From the table can conclude that the total of word percentage in Lampung that borrow from Javanese-Banten and includes monomorfemics word form is 12% from 12 glos (12 inovative variant). Those words find in the observation focus area that is located near to the area of language use of Javanese-Banten. The observation focus area of Lampung is absolutely having language contact with the area of language use of Javanese-Banten.

Polymorfemis

Besides the borrowing monomorfemics word from Javanese-Banten, there is also the borrowing polymorfemics word from Javanese-Banten in Lampung at Salatuhur eventhough the word is limited.

The following clasification is the borrowing word from Javanese-Banten type of polymorfemics. The entity and geografic distribution of borrowing word of word type pure polymorfemics from Javanese-Banten in Lampung-Cikoneng describe in the table as follow:

No.	Word and Glos	Polymorfemics word	Geografic Distribution	
		Salatuhur	Observation focus	Frequency
1	goreng pisang Fried banana	gegodo pisang	1	
2	tiga perempat third fourth	telu perempat	1	

From the table can be concluded that the total of percentage of polimorfemics word is 12% from 2 glos (2 inovative variant).

Changing sound

Lexical inovation can identify based on lexem that has changing in sound in Lampung-Cikoneng that borrow from Javanese-Banten. Here is explain the entity and geografic distribution of borrowing word from Javanese-Banten that has changing in sound in Lampung-Cikoneng.

No	Word and glos	Inovative variant		The Borrowing	Changing in sound
		Word in Lampung-Cikoneng		Word in Javanese-Banten	
		Salatuhur	Cikoneng	Anyar	
1	Hitam Black	areng	areng/halom	ireng	Weak sound
2	bangku kecil (di dapur) small desk (in the kitchen)	dedingklik	didingklik	dengklik	Add sound
3	Ceremai Small red fruit often candied	ceremi	ceRamen	cereme	Strong sound
4	Ulat Caterpillar	ule?	ughol/lattung/ule?	ula?	Strong sound
5	Berapa How much	piro	piRa	pira	Strong sound

Based on above table can be concluded the total percentage of word in Lampung that have changing in sound because the influence of Javanese-Banten is 5% from 5 glos (5 inovative variant).

From the data above, it can explain that lexical inovation in Lampung at Salatuhur that causes by the changing sound because the weak sound in vocal fonem /a/ is weaken than vocal fonem /i/ in the word of 'areng'. Then, there is to strengten sound in the vocal fonem /i/ stronger than vocal fonem /e/ in the word of 'ceremi', vocal /ə/ stronger than vocal /a/ in the word of 'ule?', and vocal /o/ stronger than vocal /a/ in the word of 'piro'. The changing sound causes by sound adding of infix syllable, that is: infixation consonant /d/ and vocal /i/ in the word of 'dedingklik'.

CONCLUSION

The research is an effort to find out external inovation in Lampung at Salatuhur to have borrowing from Javanese-Banten causes from the process of social interaction. The finding research based on results and discussions can conclue that:

- 5) The word of Lampung that the result from Javanese-Banten at Salatuhur in Cikoneng is 14 inovative variant (145) from 14 glos and from 100 list question (vocabulary).
- 6) The word of Lampung that has borrowing from Javanese-Banten that has in monomorfemics from is 12 inovative variant (12% from 12 glos).
- 7) The word of Lampung that has borrowing from Javanese-Banten that has polimorfemics form is 2 inovative variant (2%) from 2 glos.
- 8) The word of Lampung that has changing in sound because the influence word from Javanese-Banten is 5% from 5 glos (5 inovative variant).

Limitations of study

The research studies lexical inovation in Lampung at Salatuhur that assume to have a borrowing language of Javanese-Banten causes from the process of social interaction. There are some limitations regarding to this study, as follow:

3. The research only focuses to borrowing of Javanese-Banten causes from the process of social interaction. Thus, for future study can focus in phonological study especially in dialect which have different phonological element study between the native language in Lampung province and the language of Lampung in Banten area in the influence of external and internal factors of Salatuhur speech community recently.
4. The changing in meaning will be interested to study in the following research so the study not only focus to borrowing word, monomorfemics, polimorfemics, and the changing sound process in Lampung in Salatuhur but also word meaning that change between the native language in Lampung province and the language of Lampung in Banten area.

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THE EFFECT OF SONGS ON EFL LEARNERS' GRAMMAR RECALL AND RETENTION

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ABSTRACT

Plethora of studies have been carried out to find the affectivity of song as instrument in English language classrooms. The present study attempts to investigate the effects of song on recall and retention of conditional sentences throughout upper-intermediate language learners. To achieve such a purpose, a language proficiency test was administered to 72 students of upper-level who were attending English language institute in Hamadan, Iran. It was in form of multiple-choice items on structure and vocabulary. Finally, 40 learners whose scores were within one standard deviation below and above mean were selected and divided into two homogenous groups of control and experimental. The result of two t-tests supports the idea that the musical-group made a better performance on recall and retention of conditional sentences. The findings suggest the effectiveness of song not only as an entertaining but also as pedagogical material when it comes to teach grammar.

KEYWORDS: EFL learner, grammar, recall, retention, song

INTRODUCTION

Grammar and the way to teach it have formed an essential part of language instruction. It is one of the most controversial issues in language teaching. Rutherford in Larsen- Freeman (1991) asserted that the necessary component of any language teaching program which plays an important role is grammar. According to Richards and Renandya (2002) grammar is not the thing to be ignored in language teaching, and as a result without a comprehensive knowledge of grammar, learners' knowledge development will be limited. Moreover, the long – standing debate about how to teach grammar has always been controversial. (Nelson, 1954; Doff 1988; Celce-Murcia, 1991; Leech & Svartvik, 1975; Widdoson, 1989; Richard, 2002; AbuJeld, 2004; Ur, 2008).

Furthermore, by focusing on rigged and extensive grammatical explanation, the English learners will be exposed to a great number of rules to learn. As a result, such teaching condition will not only deprive students from real and authentic condition, but it will also create stressful atmosphere for the learners to learn and to recall the language materials.

Several studies have been conducted on the use of songs as an instrument for teaching language which can affect retention of the learners in long term memory. (Finacchiaro & Bonomo, 1973; Krashen's, 1983; Griffée, 1992; Oxford, 1990; Yalch, 1991; McElhinney & Annet, 1996; Widdoson, 1998; Wallace, 1994; Chazin & Neuschatz, 1990). Moreover, using song in language teaching classrooms has often met ridiculous and cautious statement despite the fact that the language learner may enjoy learning throughout hearing it. Using music in the foreign language classroom has long been valued, but "all too often, music in the classroom has been relegated to recreation and entertainment status" (Falioni, 1993, p. 98).

Regarding English language teaching in Iran, language learners suffer from limited opportunities for authentic language resources. Listening to English song and more significantly teaching grammar through song has been neglected in Iranian English teaching classrooms for quite many reasons. Aside from strong bias from some English teachers towards cultural contradictions, the attitude and concepts of some learners and even their families will play

as a negative factor. However, no practical research has focused on the effect of music as well as its lyrics as a tool to improve the learners' retention and recall of English conditional sentences at least in Iran.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Regarding the foregoing discussion, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. Is there any difference between musical- mode class and none-musical mode class in recall and retention of practiced English grammatical song?
2. Is there any significant difference in the performance of EFL learners' different conditional sentences that were taught through singing techniques?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 72 males aged from 17 to 22, who were selected from Sepehr English language teaching institute located in Hamadan ,Iran, through a sample Richards proficiency test (2008). These participants had no exposure to an English speaking community and had no contact with native speakers of English. In order to specify different proficiency levels, the participants were ranked from the highest to the lowest scores. The researcher selected only the first 40 learners whose scores were within one standard deviation below and above mean scores. They were randomly assigned into two groups; each included 20 participants for the musical-mode group and the rest were in the nonmusical- mode group.

Instruments

Through this study, the collection of the data and the instructions were generally conducted through a number of instruments and materials which are as follows:

Tests

A sample Richards's proficiency test (2008) was administered to select two homogeneous groups in terms of the participants' language proficiency. The reliability of the test was 0.79 based on the KR-21 formula. The test comprised 50 multiple-choice items on English grammar and vocabulary. There were 25 items related to English grammar and 25 items related to English vocabulary. The time allocated to this test was 45 minutes. The total score was 0-100, each item worth two points. Moreover, to begin the research a pre -test of conditional sentences type one, two and three were administered including 30 items ten questions for each conditionals. During one month of teaching the musical group was taught by practicing 15 songs based on each genre of conditionals .Each five sessions, one music genre was applied and practiced, and for non-musical the exercises were based on English grammar in- use book.

Furthermore, to obtain the results of the comparison between the experimental and control group in terms of learners' grammar retention a post grammar tests of conditional sentences based on the practiced music genres were developed. The multiple-choice post test was administered in the end of research which was after one month to test the learners' grammar retention. There were 30 items in the test that learners were asked to answer in 20 minutes.

The tests were designed by the researchers by using the British National Corpus to write the stems. The total score for each test was 30, each item worth one point. The reliability of each test was met through the KR-21 formula. To test the recall of the learners 'grammar of the conditional another independent t-test was designed from the lyrics practiced during the research based on the first t-test procedure. Then the pre test and post tests were compared to find the affectivity of the songs performed.

Songs

The song were chosen and downloaded according to their content of grammar based on conditional sentences by searching through the Internet. The songs for the first conditional including: If I die young-Should I stay or Should I go – If you don not know me by now- If you tolerate this – If I lose myself- and for the second conditionals- If I could turn the back the time – Would you dance – If I were a boy – If she knew- and the third conditionals songs by – Chicago- Taylor Swift – Trisha Yearwood- Brian McKnight and Jan Stainfield. Considering 20 sessions for classes at the institute, the teacher was able to select five singers or groups of each genre. The time of each class was

one hour and a half; the time of each song was typically about three to five minutes. Therefore, the teacher could apply three songs of each singer or group during one session. The selected songs had to meet a number of criteria. The first criterion was grammar of conditional sentences. That is to say, we chose those grammar items which were less frequently encountered by the learners, and thus, appeared to be less familiar to them so that they could have been exposed to more new items to learn from the songs.

Secondly, we attempted to take heed of the participants' social and religious norms and values as far as the contents of the songs were concerned. That is, to exclude those songs which were not appropriate to be listened to in a class environment. In addition, many rap songs included a lot of taboo words, such as the "f" words that were inappropriate for English classes and the researchers had to dispense with such songs. Therefore, those songs which had less inappropriate vocabulary items were selected.

Moreover, the lyrics had to be more or less compatible with the learners' English knowledge; hence, the ones which could shed light on new cultural issues for classroom discussion were chosen. . Last but not least, the songs selection was carried out with regard to the popularity of each singer or group. Based on the preferred music genres by the participants, the albums of five singers or groups of each genre were selected and three songs of each singer or group were downloaded. All the songs and their lyrics were compiled in a multimedia DVD which was distributed among the participants in order to give them a chance to practice the songs after each session on their own.

Procedure

The participants (forty (N=40) bilingual males aged 17-22 were selected by using a sample Richards proficiency test (2008). During each session, for each song, there was a listening activity at the beginning. The song was played for them to listen to while a copy of the lyric with some deleted new words was handed to the learners in order to fill in the gaps. The song was played for the second time and the words were checked by asking the students to give the words that they had filled in. Finally, the words were written on the board for those learners who might have missed.

Some writing activities in which the learners had to use the new words were added to activate the language, activities such as giving synonyms and definitions for words, making sentences and writing a summary of the story of the song using new learned grammar. After practicing and revising the new grammar and vocabulary items, a discussion was held with the learners about the topic of the song. The whole activities for each song lasted for 15 minutes, and then the teacher moved to the second and the third songs. The same activities were conducted for other genres as well. Each session, three songs of one singer or group were practiced. The time of each song was about three to five minutes and the time of the class was about one and a half hours. There were 20 sessions in one term which made the instruction last for nearly two months.

For the non-musical class, the lyric of a song was handed to the learners. The teacher read the first part of the lyric while the learners were trying to give the meaning of the part which the teacher was reading.

Learners tried to guess the meaning of some words and their relation to the story of the song. Consequently, after practicing the new grammar of conditionals and vocabulary items and revising them through giving definitions and synonyms, a discussion was held with the learners about the topic of the song, but no song was played. At the end of each five sessions, a multiple-choice item test was administered to evaluate the learners' grammar of conditional sentences and vocabulary recall. In order to investigate the learners' grammar and vocabulary retention, the same test was administered again after each ninth session.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After collecting the data through the two independent tests, the t-test was applied by the researchers to measure whether there is any difference between the musical group and the non-musical group. The researchers applied all the formulas with the level of significant set at 0.05 through all the applications. The overall results of the research indicated that the immediate recall of conditional sentences showed higher scores for music class in all songs. The findings of the study confirms the idea that songs are confidential tools which have a prolong effect on fluency as well as accuracy of the learners. Table 1 illustrates the results of the two tests.

Table 1: The results of the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance on the pretest

group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
musical	19.90	20	3.194
non-musical	18.00	20	3.194
Total	18.95	40	3.153

As can be seen from the table and the graph, the mean scores of the participants that were supposed to get exposed to musical and non-musical techniques were almost the same ($m = 18.95$) and the two groups were homogeneous.

Investigation of the first research question: Is there any difference between musical-mode class and non-musical-mode class in recall and retention of English grammatical structure?

To compare the participants' achievement according to the specific instructions they had received (musical-mode in class one and non-musical-mode in class two), an independent sample t -test was run. Table 2 and graph 1 show the results of the descriptive statistics.

Table 2: The results of the descriptive statistics of the participants' achievement based on the posttest

group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
musical	27.00	20	3.449
non-musical	22.30	20	3.294
Total	24.65	40	4.092

As the table and the graph reveal, the participants' achievement in the group in which the participants were instructed using musical techniques is higher by a mean of 27, than the participants who were instructed by non-musical techniques. To see if this superiority was statistically significant an independent t -test was run.

The table demonstrates that at a critical level for rejection of .05 there is a significant effect for the instruction technique based on the results of the posttest ($t(38) = 4.407, p < 0.05$).

Table 3: The results of the independent t -test for the instruction technique and participants achievement based on the posttest

	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 variance	.159	.692	4.407	38	.000	4.700	1.066	2.541	6.859
Equal variances not assumed			4.407	37.920	.000	4.700	1.066	2.541	6.859

Investigation of the second research question

Is there any significant difference in the performance of EFL learners' first, second, and third conditional sentences that were taught through singing techniques?

This time the performance of the participants who have been instructed grammatical structures using music performed on first, second and third conditional sentences was compared. Table 4.5 shows the participants' mean scores on each type of the conditional sentences. As the table shows, students performed better on first conditional sentences with a mean score of 9.35. The second type was second conditional sentences with a mean score of 8.75. Lastly, the participants' mean score on the third conditional sentences was lowest (8.4)

Table 4: Participants' mean scores on each type of the conditional sentences

	First conditional	Second conditional	Third conditional
Mean	9.35	8.75	8.40
N	20	20	20
Std. Deviation	.875	.786	.883

Table 5: The results of the repeated measure ANOVA for the effect of singing technique on the achievement of conditional sentences in three conditions

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.547	10.851 ^b	2.000	18.000	.001	.547
Wilks' Lambda	.453	10.851 ^b	2.000	18.000	.001	.547
Hotelling's Trace	1.206	10.851 ^b	2.000	18.000	.001	.547
Roy's Largest Root	1.206	10.851 ^b	2.000	18.000	.001	.547

- a. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: condition
- b. Exact statistic

To compare the effect of singing on the learning of conditional sentences in first type, second type, and third type conditions a repeated measure analysis of variance was performed. The results reveal that there was a significant effect of singing method.

Further pair wise comparisons were done. Table 6 shows the results. As the table shows the difference is significant among all three conditionals: For first and second conditional sentences the p is equal to .014, whereas for first and third conditional sentences it is .000. As for second and third conditional sentences p is .005.

Table 6: Pairwise comparison for the effect of singing technique on the achievement of three conditional sentences

(I)condition	(J)condition	Mean Difference(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.600*	.222	.014	.134	1.066
		.950*	.223	.000	.483	1.417
2	3	-.600*	.222	.014	-1.066	-.134
		.350*	.109	.005	.121	.579
3	2	-.950*	.223	.000	-1.417	-.483
		-.350*	.109	.005	-.579	-.121

Based on estimated marginal means The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

In order to obtain the results of recall between the musical group, another post test was held.

Table7: Paired sample statics

	Mean	N	S.D	Std Error Mean
Pair 1 retention	28.5000	20	76089	17014
1 recall	29.1500	20	81273	18173

Table 8: Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig
Pair 1 retention & recall	20	128	592

Table 9: Paired Sample Tests

	Paired Differences							
	mean	Std Deviation	StdError Mean	95%confidence Interval of the Difference		1	df	Sig(2-tailed)
				Lower	upper			
Pair 1 retention – recall	-65000	1.03999	23265	-1 13673	-16327	-2 795	19	012

As represented in table 8 the computed significance in the second t-test is equal to (.012) which is smaller than the significant level set for the study (0.05). This represents the fact that based on the 95% confidence interval of the difference there is statistically significant difference between retention and recall t-tests confirming the effect of musical instruction on improving the learners' conditional recall.

CONCLUSION

The overall results of the research indicated that the immediate retention of conditional sentences showed higher scores for music class in all songs. This study also showed that students who heard songs scored significantly higher than students who heard spoken text. It appears that the melody facilitates recall while taking a test, since the learner will be able to rehearse the structures in their mind easily. This is in tune with Murphy's song -stuck-in -my - head phenomenon (1990) which claims songs run through one's mind, songs provide an effective mean to acquire grammatical structure.

Scores indicated that students in the classes that learnt the conditional through paper and explanation spent much time answering the post test questions. They answered the items based on analysis of learned materials. Moreover, the learners of experimental group were more content with the time they spent learning conditional sentences through song practicing.

The findings confirmed that the majority of EFL learners show positive attitudes towards the use of song in their English classroom and find learning with the aid of song effective. In fact, it showed those learners who were highly motivated with the songs were more willing to participate in their classrooms activities attentively and accurately. This is in line with Schmidt (1990) and Richard and Platt (1992) and Ellis (1994) who found that learners, who were proficient with meaningful grammatical structure, had a better ability in recalling the conditionals.

By applying songs as teaching aid, this finding also confirmed Falioni (1993) and Chastain (1998) and Carter (1998) Finacchiaro & Bonomo (1973) who concluded that learning will be facilitated when authentic language devices are used in language classes.

Looking through the perspective of learning through using song, the study divided the advantages of applying song to foreign language teaching into three categories: promoting awareness of learners and conscious raising which is in tune with studies of Ur (1999) and Larsen-Freeman (1991). This study also is in line with Krashen's affective filter theory (1983), because the learner felt quite relaxed accompanied by enjoyment while listening to song and consequently they had a positive reaction towards learning.

This study did not experience the affectivity of song on pronunciation improvement and as a result is not in line with Leather & James (1997) and Loup and Wenberger (1987) who believed in using authentic native or near-native like to enhance the learner's pronunciation. As the learners had an immediate recall during their class performance, this study also confirms Morley (1971) and Oxford (1990) who stressed both listening and mnemonic devices as tools to relate current items with already known materials and consequently increasing conscious memory work. By considering these assumptions recalling of materials was increased during this study.

Using song appropriately into language classrooms provided access to authentic materials thus greater opportunities for communication and interaction and promotes learner motivation which is also in accordance with

Moreover the finding of this study indicated that the control group performed better than the experimental group in answering the questions given which was partly consistent with Ur (1999) who believed in getting the students to master accurate usage within a formal course of study by combining explicit grammar teaching with meaning oriented and communication task. Test results of songs reached significance when the smooth singing style of the singer and the accompanying lyrics provided a wonderful piece for enjoyment or relaxation and later better performance. Hence it had some similarities to studies of Lozanov (1978) and Krashen (1985) who emphasized the influence of music along with enjoyment and relaxation to suggest restraint of society or remove affective filter to enhance learning.

Limitation of the study

The results of this study showed the importance of teaching grammar by means of songs including the meant grammar to be taught into teaching practice. However, it should be borne in mind that the data were collected by means of a limited number of songs and restricted number of learners due to limitation of place and time. Thus the findings cannot be generalized to the entire population of all EFL teachers in Iran. All the learners who participated in the study were from private language institutes. If this population was more diverse including public school learners from all over the country the results could have been more inferable.

In addition, the fact that all the songs were chosen from more common songs and an exclusion of some song due to F-words adds to the limitations. If further observation methods including an interview with teachers and learners were used, the results would have brought about richer and more accurate findings.

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USING TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION IN TEACHING COLORS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS
OF ANDIMESHK

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ABSTRACT

This article presents the advantages of using Task -based learning to help learners from Shahid Avini Junior High School at the Educational Department of Andimeshk, Iran infer the rule of the Colors form of adjectives in English. This group of learners was taking English as a Foreign Language (EFL) course that was team taught by two instructors. The course lasted two months, and the instructors covered four different units. It is important to mention that according to scientific studies the methodology based on tasks help learners pay more attention or concentrate more on meaning than Task -based language learning is an approach in which learners concentrate more on meaning than on form. By doing this, students perform different communicative tasks, which happen to be more meaningful because they are close to the learners' reality, instead of doing form -based discrete exercises, which are usually decontextualized and meaningless because they do not see a reason to do them. In the lesson presented in this article, the Shahid Avini Junior High School students were asked to express their own ideas, either orally or in a written mode, about the topic of the lesson, the superlative form of the adjectives in English.

KEYWORDS: EFL Course, Lesson, Task-Based learning, Learners, Methodology, Outcome, Teaching

INTRODUCTION

This article presents the principles and advantages of using Task-based Learning (TBL) in an EFL environment. It also presents the contents of a sample lesson in which Task-based Learning (TBL) was favored to teach the superlative form of adjectives instead of traditional Form-based methodologies. This lesson was designed for a group of twenty EFL learners taking an EFL (English as Foreign Language) course in Shahid Avini Junior High School at Educational Department of Andimeshk, Iran. The main objectives of this article are (a) to summarize the most important insights behind task-based language instruction, (b) to explain the different components of the task-based framework with the content of a sample lesson, and (c) to give some useful recommendations to English teachers who want to incorporate this approach in their EFL course programs.

This article is focused on colors and the students' difficulties to distinguish different colors in using them in different situations and contexts. Because of different methods in teaching colors, it seems to be essential to apply a new method in our classrooms to refresh our methods and apply new ones to enhance students' abilities to cooperate and having group work learning in the foreign language classes.

Task-based is a method that relies on communicative language learning approach to teach different items. **Task-based language learning** (TBLL), also known as **task-based language** teaching (TBLT) or **task-based instruction** (TBI), focuses on the use of authentic language and on asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. Such tasks can include visiting a doctor, conducting an interview, or calling customer service for help. Assessment is primarily based on task outcome (in other words the appropriate completion of real world tasks) rather than on accuracy of prescribed language forms. This makes TBLL especially popular for developing target

language fluency and student confidence (Rod Ellis, 2006). As such TBLL can be considered a branch of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).acquisition, and weren't concerned with real-life communication According to Rod Ellis(2006); a task has four main characteristics:

1. A task involves a primary focus on (pragmatic) meaning.
2. A task has some kind of 'gap' (Prabhu identified the three main types as information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap).
3. The participants choose the linguistic resources needed to complete the task.
4. A task has a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome.

One of the most interesting features of Task-based method is grouping students into pair, trained and small groups. Thus, the researcher starts the research by grouping students and using a color task to conduct the research. In everyday language, there are different parts of speech that the speakers use in different situations. English parts of speech include verbs, nouns, unfortunately teaching colors as a part of vocabulary seems to be neglected for applying new techniques and methods to teach. The researcher in this study tries to investigate the different method to enlarge students' comprehension and using amusing procedures to increase t adjectives, adverbs, etc. Colors are one of the most important parts of adjectives and we use them in a context to realize the same things in a color feature. Teaching vocabulary via traditional methods like, GTM,DM,ALM, involves students in an unreal situation to only memorize or repeat the words but having task-based activities involves them in real cooperative group work activity and this is why important teaching vocabulary especially adjectives including colors in a new way (Jane Willis,1996).In vocabulary researches a lot of researchers focused on teaching them in traditional methods and work on students' difficulties in vocabulary learning .So, it seems to be more necessary to change our methods and use the new post methods in our teaching. Motivation and attitudes towards the colors learning.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Task-based language learning is an approach in which learners concentrate on meaning rather than form. That is, students carry out a group of communicative tasks instead of doing form-based discrete exercises. Students are expected to express their own ideas, either orally or in a written mode, about the topic of the lesson. These ideas should be based on the analysis of meaning derived from a communicative activity.

Willis (1996, p. 101) explains that "*within the TBL framework, tasks and texts combine to give students a rich exposure to language and also opportunities to use it themselves.*" Due to this, learners work on a certain grammar feature inductively with a series of tasks. Before analyzing the framework behind Task-based learning, instructors must pay close attention to the notion of communicative task. Willis (1996, p. 28) has defined the term **task** as those "*activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome.*" Furthermore, for language learners to attain the objectives of a TBL task, it must fulfill certain characteristics, especially if it is part of an ESP course.

First, the task should have an appropriate level of complexity and difficulty. Secondly, in an ESP context the primary goal of a task should reflect what learners need to do in real-life situations at the workplace (i.e. exchanging information, giving instructions or presenting an oral report). Besides, tasks must be based on authentic materials obtained from written or oral texts which have not been adapted to simplify their level of difficulty.

In addition, Willis (1996, p.23) has pointed out that instructors should prepare communicative activities with "a suitable degree of intellectual and linguistic challenge and promote learners' language development as efficiently as possible." Also, tasks should include a given feature of language form for students to convey meaning. Some language features, for instance, may be how to use the passive voice, the comparative and superlative forms of adjectives, or the conditional sentences, among others.

Communicative TBL tasks should also have a clear outcome that is an observable behavior, which can be evaluated throughout the different phases of the TBL framework. This means that activities must have an effective exchange of oral or written data which can be done in pairs or small groups. However, the instructor may also lead a whole-class discussion of the students' findings obtained after the task cycle has been completed. Although several types of communicative tasks can be implemented by course designers, teachers

should look for an integration of different language skills. In terms of Task based instruction, Skehan (1998) states that a task is an activity that satisfies the following criteria: *meaning* is primary, there is a goal that needs to be worked forward, the activity is *outcome-evaluated* and there is a *real-world relationship*. The syllabus designer, the teacher, or the student can choose tasks for the language classroom. Whoever it is, the decision maker needs to have information about the nature of the task, the requirements made by the task, and the potential outcomes of the task (in Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 1998, p.189)

With the Task-based framework, there is a wide variety of open tasks with a clear objective. Learners do not necessarily focus on a particular grammar item; instead, they convey or exchange meaning before dealing with an outcome. At an advanced stage of the task cycle, learners will have the possibility to do language focus tasks that include consciousness-raising activities to think about language form and its use. Willis (1996, p. 26- 28) has listed some types of TBL tasks which can be implemented in an ESP context. Some of these tasks will be exemplified with activities students from the UCR Computer Center may perform. They are:

- a. Listing:** in this case, the instructor takes advantage of learners' prior knowledge on the topic to be developed. The outcome of this activity may be a list of concepts that the instructor collects from students.
- b. Ranking items:** students rank their most important work duties where the target language is used.
- c. Comparing or contrasting items:** in a computer lab, for instance, learners may make comparisons of the advantages and disadvantages of computer hardware or software. A whole-class discussion about these advantages and disadvantages may be carried out as the outcome of this activity.
- d. Problem-solving activities:** in this task, students may give advice on how to solve common problems at the workplace. For instance, if students talk about how to install some computer equipment, the evaluated outcome could consist of an efficient way to do this task correctly.
- e. Sharing personal experiences:** these open tasks consist of an exchange of anecdotes among students. Telling anecdotes is a fluency-building activity in which learners talk about their experiences at the workplace. Since this speaking task is not goal-oriented because through it learners increase their fluency, teachers should include in their classrooms other types of tasks such as the ones already mentioned.
- f. Creative tasks:** these challenging activities, which usually consist of small-group project presentations, that in turn become the outcome of the task, require a higher level of preparation and integration of skills.

As pointed out before, task-based instruction is an approach that focuses on the notion of task as a primary component of language use. D. Willis and J. Willis (in Carter and Nunan, 2001, p. 174) have stated that "*one feature of TBL, therefore, is that learners carrying out a task are free to use any language they can to achieve the outcome: language forms are not prescribed in advance.*" These authors have explained that individuals are enabled to react to new language input and use it to produce meaning in real-life interaction (p.174).

Some criticism, on the other hand, has emerged in regard to the internalization of grammar structures with TBL methodologies. D. Willis and J. Willis (in Carter and Nunan, 2001, p. 174) stated that the study of grammar should be given more importance in communicative approaches in order to achieve acquisition of the target language. Even though TBL instruction does not focus on the direct study of language form at the early stages of the framework, learners must reflect on specific grammar features with the aid of consciousness-raising activities. This type of activities helps learners become aware of, identify and process specific language features from the task text. It is recommended to provide students with authentic contexts, so that they have the opportunity to ask about other similar features, to analyze its usage, and to do additional practice. Furthermore, teachers should recycle content in subsequent sessions because if students fail at increasing awareness of such particular language item being taught, fluency, not accuracy, may be favored. Most of Second Language Researchers claim that communicative instruction should involve systematic treatments to draw L2 learners' attention to vocabulary to develop well-balanced communicative competence (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Spada, 1997; Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 2003; Swain, 1985). Most importantly, we need to know more about precisely how and why vocabulary instruction incorporated into communicative language teaching promotes inter language development.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Regarding different and effective processes of teaching colors through task-based group activities, a very crucial question will emerge and research question is as follow:

Is there a relationship between task-based group activities and students learning colors?

Thus, after having a good and important question it seems necessary to modify this question into two basic hypotheses. Regarding the objectives of this investigation, the research hypotheses addressed in this study are as follow:

H (0): There is no relationship between using task-based group activities and teaching colors.

H (1): There is a positive relationship between using task-based group activities and learning colors.

METHODOLOGY

Course description

Teaching Colors as Adjectives was an EFL course team taught by the authors and designed to meet the needs of a group of learners from Shahid Avini Junior High School at the Educational Department of Andimeshk, Iran. This EFL course was aimed at helping these students with their language skills to perform better in their workplace. In other words, it would help the learners improve their listening, and reading comprehension skills to carry out different tasks at their workplace. This learner centered EFL course emphasized the integration of the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing along the teaching-learning process. It also promoted the students' awareness and application of their learning strategies to perform better in the learning of the target language. Students were provided with the appropriate materials and tasks to meet their wants, expectations, and needs at their workplace. Adjectives are that kind of word category that describe the thing, quality, state, or action which a noun refers to. For example, "black" in "a black hat" is an adjective. Adjectives usually have properties like: they can be used before a noun or they can be used after *be*, *become*, *seem*, etc. as complements or can be used after a noun as a complement. They can also be modified by an adverb or can be used in comparative or superlative forms. Here we are dealt with those kinds of categories that are used before a noun. For example, *black horse*, which consist of an adjective "black" and a noun "horse". Incidental learning from exposure to texts will be greatly facilitated if learners used vocabulary learning strategies. These strategies will undoubtedly be required initially, in any case, as students are encouraged to make the transition to independent learning by determining meanings of the less frequent adjectives they read or hear. Strategies should aid both in discovering the meaning of a new adjective and in consolidating an adjective once it has been encountered. Thus, learners should approach independent learning of adjectives by using a combination of extensive reading and self-study strategies.

Participants

One of the current concerns of applied linguistics focuses on incorporating vocabulary instruction within communicative classroom. Some studies have investigated focus on vocabulary, defined as focused attention that teachers and learners pay in the contexts of language learning. This study was conducted in a Junior Secondary school (Avini Junior high school, Andimeshk city, Iran) with participation of 60 students of Elementary level. This school is one of four selected schools of city for conducting a research based on task-based group activity teaching. They study English two sessions a week and their textbook contains 8 lessons. It is essential to mention that the textbook was revised at the beginning of educational year and is taught for first time in Iran educational system. All four skills in this textbook are focused and teacher attempts to teach new revised textbook materials based on communicative language teaching. All of students are male (boys), between 13 to 14 years old Their attitudes toward the colors are positive (based on psychology test of entrance exam of this school and a questionnaire which filled with students before the research included two questions yes/no option toward whether they like or do not like colors and what is their favorite color).

Procedure

The idea in using dictation in an EFL/ESL class is to get students used to hearing English spoken and to be able to transcribe what they really hear, and not what they 'think' they hear, down onto paper and have it make sense. So, first of all, we need to choose a passage from a book that has English grammar and vocabulary at the same level as our students (it is then their text book Prospect Grade 1) Write any related vocabulary from the chosen task the students won't know onto the board. There's no point giving them a passage to transcribe using vocabulary they've

never heard of. It usually spend ten minutes writing the unknown vocabulary on the board, asking students if any of them know what it means, and writing a definition next to the word. Then leave this vocabulary up during the dictation, and point to it as get to it in the task (10 minutes). If students have never realized colors before, it should be spend five minutes reading two sentences from a different task in the book, having students write it down, and then asking two or three of them to come up to the board and write down what they wrote. This gives every student an idea of what's expected of them in the actual larger color realization (10 minutes). Now, begin the main task. It must be read each task completely through. Then showing colors in the context of the tasks and group activity based on task based method, keep going through the whole task one adjective at a time. Read the whole sentence. Read individual blocks several times then, at the end of the sentence, re-read the sentence again. This ensures the students hear each task four or five times and have plenty of time to write down what they hear. We also should be sure to point to the words they didn't know on the blackboard as they come to them. At the end of the task, tell the students re-read the whole passage slowly and they should follow along with the teacher, checking the spelling they used, the vocabulary they used and see if it makes sense. Once they've finished reading the whole passage through, give them a couple of minutes to finish checking everything. (20 minutes) Now, ask them to exchange their papers with their neighbor and give each student a part of the specific task. Tell them they should check every color, every spelling and every sentence to make sure their neighbor got them correctly. Make sure they deduct points for misspelled words, incorrect words, missing capital letters.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After the collection of the data from 50 students, ten colors to each group(ten colors to the control group and ten colors to the experimental group) were instructed. Then, a pretest was administered in order to find out the extent to which participants are able to recognize and differentiate colors. The average score were calculated for both control and experimental groups through SPSS software. The results were the average score of 14.44 for control group and the score of 14.48 for experimental group on the pretest. After having instruction based on task based teaching colors a posttest was run to measure the significance of the effect of task based teaching colors on students Results of the study from this research are the problems in teaching colors through picture, the strength of teaching colors through pictures and tasks, the weakness of teaching colors through pictures, teaching group activities in teaching students in elementary schools through tasked-base teaching. One of the first things that teachers teach to a beginner EFL class is English vocabulary for 'colors' and 'shapes'. As a little kid, we all remember learning "The triangle is blue, the circle is black" but for beginner level EFL students, it can sometimes be boring to learn and difficult. That's why teachers should create a lesson plans that not only helps EFL students learn how to talk about colors and shapes easily, its fun too. 80% of a person's impression of a product is based on its color. And that using color enhances learning and improve retention by more than 75%. It should mention that how different colors evoke specific responses and how we can use colors intentionally and appropriately. After measuring average of group activities are as follow:

	Mean
Control group	14.48
Experimental group	17.66

And this difference shows that applying a useful research like tasked based teaching method in teaching students and has more effective impression on their learning colors a descriptive statistical analysis was carried out in an attempt to determine how tasked-based teaching colors and group work activity influenced learning colors. An initial process of calculating data indicated considerable differences between tasked-based teaching colors and traditional teaching colors.

	Mean	Variance	SD
Control Group	14.48	12.76	3.58
Experimental Group	17.66	4.66	2.16

Based on above table we can conclude that, according to differences in mean teaching colors based on task-based group activity resulted in higher performance in teaching vocabulary specially adjectives like colors. Thus based on the this findings, it is possible to enhance use of task-based group activity into teaching other materials like adverbs, nouns and also teaching some parts of speaking and listening activities within the class activity. This study was based on a descriptive analysis of the quantitative data from a small group of participants and attempted to discover what cooperating behaviors were exhibited by learners in a regular timetabled classroom session rather than in more artificial experimental setting.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Before including task-based instruction in an ESP context, course designers should **take** into account these recommendations:

1. Integrate different language skills within the TBL framework.
2. Use authentic materials (oral or written) to design the lesson.
3. Expose learners to comprehensible and meaningful input.
4. Avoid adapting or modifying authentic materials to decrease their level of difficulty.
5. Help learners solve the tasks at their own pace.
6. Consider learners' background knowledge on the topic to be studied.
7. Try to keep learners' motivation high.
8. Identify and select target tasks during the needs analysis stage of creating the general and specific objectives of the ESP course.
9. Identify and select pedagogical tasks that correlate with those activities ESP students must carry out at their workplace.
10. Correct students' production.
11. Provide feedback on students' mistakes.

Language teachers should pay attention to this list of suggestions since TBL does not share the same characteristics of traditional grammar-based methodologies even though they are included in communicative methods or approaches. For instance, instructors must consider that this approach seems to work more effectively with small groups of students while teachers are constantly monitoring their work; however, they must not interfere at all times. By doing so, learners can have the possibility to interact more among themselves. If the level of difficulty of the reading texts is high, students may use a dictionary to facilitate comprehension. Furthermore, in an ESP context, teachers should always take advantage of the knowledge and experience that students bring to class so that they generate their own ideas. It is important to keep a record of the students' performance while doing the different stages of the framework to make possible changes to the lesson in order to improve course materials. This can be achieved by videotaping the lesson or keeping a journal to reflect on the effectiveness of the lesson and its materials. If all these recommendations are followed, teachers can be able to create more appealing, motivating and challenging ESP materials, but they need to evaluate students' outcome and performance once the activities have been carried out.

To conclude, it is important to point out that implementing the TBL methodology in an ESP context is a challenging task for language teachers. In fact, finding appropriate materials (i.e. newspaper or magazine ads) is time consuming due to the fact that instructors have to obtain samples of authentic discourse for the learners; thus, they can use them during the different stages of the lesson. In task-based instruction, as Brown (1994, p. 229) points out, the priority is not the bits and pieces of language but rather the functional purpose for which language must be used. Consequently, when deciding to use TBL, instructors have to be seen as motivators and facilitators of the learning process since the idea is to make learners responsible for their own learning, and as a result, autonomy must be favored when using this approach. Obviously, teachers should take advantage of different approaches and

techniques and combine them to help learners improve their skills. As a result, by implementing task-based instruction, learners as well as teachers will certainly benefit from a different approach to language pedagogy because it is more motivating, more challenging, more innovative, more appealing and more meaningful to students than other traditional grammar-based approaches.

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EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL LEARNERS' LANGUAGE LEARNING STYLES AND STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at finding the degree of relationship between Iranian EFL learners' learning styles and their preferences in using specific language learning strategies. To meet the above purpose, a total number of 148 male and female students, between 20-25 years old, studying English Language Teaching and English Language Literature at Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran, Iran were randomly selected and given Language Learning Strategies (LLSs) and Learning Style questionnaires. Pearson Product Correlation results revealed a statistically significant relationship between EFL learners' affective strategy with visual style ($r = .85$, $P < .05$) and auditory style ($r = .81$, $P < .05$), metacognitive strategy and visual style ($r = .80$, $P < .05$). Implications of the study are presented and discussed.

KEYWORDS: language learning, learning styles, learning strategies, good learners, individual differences

INTRODUCTION

In the last three decades, an important shift has been taken place in the field of second/foreign language teaching and learning, and researchers have focused mainly on learners' individual factors. O' Malley and Chamot (1990) point out that, "Differences between more effective learners and less effective learners were found in the number and range of strategies used". In addition, there is a relationship between the frequent use of learning strategies and achievement in the language (Green & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). According to Oxford (1990) learning strategies are "...specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8). She emphasized, "...learning strategies are important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement" (p. 1). Furthermore, studies have found that successful language learners are more likely to engage in active language learning and use more learning strategies than less successful learners (Bialystok, 1981; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Park, 1997; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Phillips, 1991; Politzer, 1983). Among influential factors in learning success, lots of researches have focused on learning styles (e.g., Oxford, 1993; Oxford, Holloway, & Murillo, 1992; Oxford & Anderson, 1995; Reid, 1987, 1995, 1998; Wintergerst, DeCapua, Itzen, 2001, 2003), and possible relationships between learning styles and strategies (e.g., Carson & Longhini, 2002; Ehrman, Leaver, Oxford, 2003; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Ely & Pease-Alvarez, 1996; Oxford, 1990b, 2001, 2003; Rossi-Le, 1995).

Since contextual factors may affect the use of language learning styles and strategies of EFL learners, this study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' language learning strategies and styles.

Language Learning Style

'Styles' as a general term, can be defined as "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (Kinsella, 1995, p. 171). Learning styles are generally stable constructs that are developed by students regardless of the subject being studied or the skill being mastered. There

are different ways of categorizing styles. Christison (2003) distinguishes between cognitive style (field dependent versus field independent, analytic versus global, reflective versus impulsive); sensory style (visual versus auditory versus tactile versus kinesthetic) and personality styles (tolerance of ambiguity, right brain versus left brain dominance).

Willing (1994) identified four major styles: communicative, analytical, authority-oriented and concrete. These styles were derived from learner strategy preferences, which Willing (1994) clustered them in the following ways:

- Communicative: These learners were defined by the following learning strategies: they like to learn by watching, listening to native speakers, talking to friends in English, watching television in English, using English out of class, learning new words by hearing them, and learning by conversation.
- Analytical: These learners like studying grammar, studying English books and newspapers, studying alone, finding their own mistakes, and working on problems set by the teacher.
- Authority-oriented: The learners prefer the teacher to explain everything, having their own textbook, writing everything in a notebook, studying grammar, learning by reading, and learning new words by seeing them.
- Concrete: These learners tend to like games, pictures, film, video, using cassettes, talking in pairs, and practicing English outside class.

Language Learning Strategies

Learning strategies, according to Chamot (2005), are the specific mental and communicative procedures that learners employ in order to learn and use language. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) state that the goal of learning strategies is to “affect the learner’s motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge” (p. 315).

Learning strategies enable students to take more responsibilities of their own language learning and develop autonomy in their studies. In other words, “Learners’ proactive contribution to enhancing the effectiveness of their own learning” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 166) is essential in developing skills in learning-how-to-learn. In classifying language strategies, Oxford (1990) makes a distinction between direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are those specific procedures that learners can use to improve their language skills, and include memorizing, analyzing, reasoning and guessing intelligently. On the other hand, indirect strategies include factors such as evaluating one’s learning and cooperating with others.

Language Learning Styles and Strategies

Broadly speaking, learning styles can be defined as general approaches to language learning, while learning strategies are specific ways learners choose to cope with language tasks in particular contexts (Cohen, 2003; Oxford, 2003).

Highlighting learner factor, a learning-how-to-learn dimension, into language pedagogy has been argued for in a range of pedagogical contexts and situations. Nunan (1999) for example, argues that knowledge of strategies is important, because the greater awareness you have of what you are doing, if you are conscious of the processes underlying the learning that you are involved in, the learning will be more effective. Research shows that learners who are taught the strategies underlying their learning are more highly motivated than those who are not. Review of language learning strategies from 80s can be traced back to a study conducted by Carroll (1981) investigating inductive learning. In this study, the ability to derive rules from samples of language was positively correlated with language aptitude. In another study, O’Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985) investigated the effect of different types of strategy training (metacognitive, cognitive, and socioaffective) on different language skills. Based on the results of this study training had a significant effect on speaking but not on listening.

A decade later, in an investigation into the effect of providing opportunities for reflection, self-reporting and self-monitoring among university students, Nunan (1995) found that opportunities to reflect on learning led to greater sensitivity to the learning process over time. Students were also able to make greater connections between their English classes and content courses conducted in English. Finally, opportunities to keep guided journals helped

learners to develop skills for articulating what they wanted to learn and how they wanted to learn it.

Li and Qin (2006) looked at the relationship between learning styles and strategies in tertiary-level English learners in China. Utilizing both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, including questionnaires and interview, the researchers were able to demonstrate that learning styles have a significant influence on learners' learning strategy choices. Styles may thus have an impact on learning outcomes. Based on the obtained results, the investigators conclude that learner training and helping learners identify their strengths and weaknesses can have a positive impact on learning outcomes.

Magogwe and Oliver (2007) examined the different pattern of strategy use by three groups of students: primary, secondary, and tertiary students in Botswana, South Africa. They reported that the more proficient learners used language learning strategies more often than did the less proficient learners. The primary students preferred using social strategies, whereas both secondary and tertiary students preferred using metacognitive strategies.

However, among those factors, national origin or ethnicity has a strong influence on the strategy types that language learners used (Oxford, 1989), and the types of strategies used by language learners depend on the kinds of learners and settings in which the learning occurred (Wharton, 2000). For example, Takeuchi (2003) conducted a study on the use of strategy types in Japanese contexts through analyzing the strategy use reported in 67 books on "How I have learned a foreign language". He reported that metacognitive strategies were most preferred strategies among Japanese.

Xuan (2005) found that the Chinese graduate students of science at Qingdao Technical University were medium strategy users. They used metacognitive strategies most often and social strategies least often. Furthermore, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) found that 55 ESL students preferred using metacognitive strategies most, followed by social, compensation, and cognitive strategies. The least preferred strategies were affective and memory strategies. Unlike those findings, Peacock and Ho (2003) examined the strategy use of 1006 Hong Kong university students. They reported that students were medium strategy users with compensation category as the most frequently used strategies followed by cognitive, metacognitive, social, memory and affective strategies respectively.

Studies of language learning strategies have shown that their application is related to both individual differences (Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Skehan, 1991) and the contexts in which learners acquire the language (Garcia, 2005; Parks & Raymond, 2005). Oxford (1989) offers a synthesis of the studies carried out regarding the LLS and the variables that affect strategy choice. She presents the results of studies carried out with respects to LLS choice and language being learned, duration, degree of awareness, age, and sex, affective variables such as attitudes, motivational level, personality characteristics, and general personality type. Learning styles is another variable but Oxford asserts, "little research has been dedicated to the relationship between learning strategy use and learning style" (p. 241). Thus, the present study aimed at investigating the relationship among Iranian EFL learners' language learning strategies and style preferences.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' language learning styles and strategies?

MEHODOLOGY

Participants

One hundred forty eight male and female EFL learners, ranging between 19 and 32 years old, majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran, Iran were randomly selected. The participants were almost evenly split between men (48.0%) and women (52.0%).

Instruments

In order to carry through the purpose of the study, the following two instruments were utilized:

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

SILL questionnaire developed by Oxford (1990) covers six categories of strategies for language learning: Items 1-9 are concerned with the effectiveness of memory (memory strategies); items 10-23 are concerned with the use of mental processes (cognitive strategies); items 24-29 relate to the compensation for missing knowledge (compensation strategies); items 30-38 deal with the organization and evaluation of learning (meta-cognitive strategies); items 39-44 are concerned with emotion management (affective strategies); and items 45-50 deal with learning with others (social strategies). According to Ehrman and Oxford (1990), SILL has consistently scored above .90 using Cronbach alpha, which indicates high internal reliability. Also the content validity of the instrument is very high (As cited in Salehi, 2011).

Perceptual Learning Style Preference

Perceptual Learning Style Preference (PLSP) Questionnaire developed by Reid (1987) was used to assess students' learning styles. It is a self-reporting questionnaire developed on the basis of existing learning style instruments with some changes suggested by non-native speaker informants and US consultants in the field of linguistics. The participants responded on the basis of a five point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Procedure

A brief session with students studying at Islamic Azad University, central Tehran, Iran was arranged. Students were informed that their performance on the questionnaires will not affect their final test results and their scores will be used for the purpose of research. The students were also assured for the confidentiality of the data gathering procedure. After giving an oral instruction of how to perform on the questionnaires, participants received a package of research instruments containing the learning styles and SILL questionnaires along with the written instructions for each form. Students answered questionnaires in 45 minutes. In exchange for their participation, individuals were provided the opportunity to receive confidential feedback on their results on each of the questionnaires. In order to preserve confidentiality of the results, participants could code their papers with alphabet instead of their names; each questionnaire package was labeled with a 4-digit code to prevent misunderstanding of possible similar alphabet coding. Questionnaires were gathered and data was extracted and inserted into an excel file. The SPSS (V. 17) was also used for statistical analyses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Before discussing the results, a review of the descriptive statistics is displayed in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics: Language Learning Strategies and Learning Styles

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Memory	148	11	32	21.08	4.323	18.687
Cognitive	148	19	52	35.68	5.817	33.837
Compensation	148	8	23	14.84	3.057	9.343
Metacognitive	148	13	36	26.36	5.006	25.063
Affective	148	6	20	12.44	2.795	7.813
Social	148	6	23	14.61	3.487	12.158
Learning Style	148	56	143	112.77	17.861	319.022

Reliability of the Instruments

Considering the fact that reliability of the instruments is a vital prerequisite to the validity of a study of this nature and its findings, the internal consistency of the three instruments was estimated at the outset of statistical analyses. The following three tables report the internal consistency of the utilized instruments.

Table 2: Reliability Index of PLSP

	Reliability Statistics	
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
PLSP	.92	30
Group	.75	5
Individual	.71	5
Visual	.32	5
Auditory	.36	5
Tactile	.52	5
kinesthetic	.56	5

Table 3: Reliability Index of SILL

	Reliability Statistics	
	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
SILL	.96	50
Memory	.86	9
Cognitive	.71	14
Compensation	.62	6
Metacognitive	.76	9
Affective	.42	6
Social	.71	6

The Pearson correlation was run to probe any significant relationships between EFL learners' use of language learning strategies and learning style preferences. Based on the results displayed in Table 4, it can be concluded that there were significant relationships between the components of the two questionnaires.

Affective strategy showed a significant correlation with visual style ($r = .85$, $P < .05$) and auditory style ($r = .81$, $P < .05$). Also, there was a significant correlation between metacognitive strategy and visual style ($r = .80$, $P < .05$) of EFL learners.

Table 4: Pearson Correlations; Components of Language Learning Strategies and Learning Styles

		Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Group	Pearson Correlation	.744**	.649**	.668**	.676**	.691**	.740**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148
Individual	Pearson Correlation	.717**	.713**	.543**	.683**	.664**	.687**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148
Visual	Pearson Correlation	.684**	.752**	.576**	.807**	.850**	.745**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148
Auditory	Pearson Correlation	.584**	.616**	.560**	.798**	.815**	.755**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148
Tactile	Pearson Correlation	.538**	.571**	.513**	.775**	.748**	.782**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148
Kinesthetic	Pearson Correlation	.562**	.627**	.542**	.778**	.753**	.882**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148

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

However, compensation strategy showed a low correlation with tactile style ($r = .51$, $P < .05$) and kinesthetic style ($r = .54$, $P < .05$). Furthermore, memory strategy showed low correlation with tactile style ($r = .53$, $P < .05$).

Discussion

Some literature seems to hold the view that students' learning styles are predetermined by their culture (Wong, 2003). Also, as stated, national origin or ethnicity has a strong influence on the strategy types that language learners used (Oxford, 1989), and the types of strategies used by language learners depend on the kinds of learners and settings in which the learning occurred (Wharton, 2000). Therefore, it is important to consider the role that learning context and cultural factors might have on students' learning style and use of language learning strategies. This study investigated the relationship among language learning strategies and styles of Iranian EFL learners. Based on the obtained results, there were significant relationships between the components of the two questionnaires.

Affective strategy showed a significant correlation with visual style ($r = .85$, $P < .05$) and auditory style ($r = .81$, $P < .05$). Also, there was a significant correlation between metacognitive strategy and visual style ($r = .80$, $P < .05$) of EFL learners. However, compensation strategy showed a low correlation with tactile style ($r = .51$, $P < .05$) and kinesthetic style ($r = .54$, $P < .05$). Furthermore, memory strategy showed low correlation with tactile style ($r = .53$, $P < .05$).

Affective strategies also had a significant correlation with Iranian EFL students' auditory and visual learning style. Here it is important to look at the specific choices they made of affective strategies. This might be due to the fact that in Iran's learning context teachers' provide appropriate context for students to engage in self-talk about the importance of trying to speak English in the face of embarrassment or mistakes and more likely to reward themselves when they did well. Their overall comfort level with mistakes, combined with the hindsight of knowing that mistakes are a natural part of language learning, may allow learners to have less anxiety and more control. Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990) found more confident students were more likely to use more learning strategies which makes a great deal of sense, especially when the use of the strategy involves displaying their knowledge (or lack of knowledge) to others in a public context.

Metacognitive strategies' positive correlation with visual learning style might reveal the tendency of Iranian students in higher-order executive skills that involve planning, organizing, monitoring, and evaluating (O'Malley & Chamot,

1990). These strategies are characteristics of strategic learners and are often the most important difference between novice and expert learners (Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1994). Visual learners' have the tendency to make use of metacognitive strategies such as concept map and mind map when planning and organizing new information. Denckla (1996) describes this metacognitive self-assessment and self-management as part of an expert learners "executive functioning." of the two elements of executive functioning. Rivers (1990) regards self-assessment as the more crucial skill in language learning, especially in terms of a language learner's ability to learn autonomously.

The result of the current study are in line with Li and Qin (2006) study that demonstrated learning styles have a significant influence on learners' learning strategy choices. In another study, Shmais (2003) investigated the strategy use of Arab EFL English majors in Palestine. His study showed that the participants were moderate strategy users. The most frequent used strategies were metacognitive strategies, but the least frequent used strategies were compensation strategies. Moreover, Riazi and Rahimi (2005) investigated the pattern of language learning strategy use by Iranian learners. Their findings were similar to Shmais (2003) in that Iranian learners were moderate strategy users, and they used metacognitive strategies at the highest level.

CONCLUSION

Current study has demonstrated the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' use of language learning strategies and their learning style preferences.

Pedagogically, the findings of the current study suggest that teachers should be aware of learners' learning style to assist students to be good language learners. Language teachers in Iranian community tend to play the role of transmitters of knowledge of the target language in the classroom (a teacher-centered teaching approach) instead of being facilitators in language teaching and learning. Iranian teachers should focus on classroom activities based on the concepts of communicative teaching and learning (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Savignon, 1991), and encourage students to use strategies, which aid the development of communicative competence.

Learners should also be encouraged to develop a greater range of strategies and to activate their language outside of the classroom. They should, in short, be encouraged to think about the processes underlying their own learning, and to see that, ultimately, they are responsible for their own learning (Nunan, 1995). Oxford (1993) notes that once learners are aware of their own learning styles, it enables them to adapt their learning strategies to suit different learning tasks in particular contexts. Learners can take advantages of their learning styles by matching learning strategies with their styles; similarly, learners can compensate for the disadvantages of their learning styles to balance their learning by adjusting learning strategies.

At the end, following Christison (2003), it is suggested that teachers audit their own classroom practices to identify the strategies that they themselves favor. Teaching style and learning style are closely related. In fact, as Christison suggests, they can be seen as two sides of one coin. Learners are more likely to 'stretch' their own learning style and develop greater flexibility as learners if teachers 'stretch' their own teaching style and develop greater flexibility as teachers. Stretching their style and increasing the range of teaching strategies they employ will help teachers cater to the different learner types that will almost certainly exist in their classrooms.

Since this study was conducted at university level, further research is needed to be carried out in private language schools or different age ranges in order to compare the results. Furthermore, in this study age and gender were not considered, therefore, future studies can be carried out considering age and gender of the participants

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DESIGNING A “LIFE SKILLS QUESTIONNAIRE” FOR ANALYZING THE SOCIO-CULTURAL CONSTRUCTS OF EFL TEXTBOOKS

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ABSTRACT

Education is not an end, but a means to an end. The ultimate goal of education is to prepare students for their future life. Regarding this fact, English language classes and textbooks can be used as tools for improving learners' life skills. Meanwhile, informative textbooks with rich socio-cultural constructs which foster learners' life skills are needed. To assess the range of the textbooks richness in these aspects, a standard and acceptable questionnaire should be designed to measure and analyze the aforementioned constructs and skills. To this end, 29 clear-sighted professors and scientists of related professions such as sociology, educational sciences, materials development, psychology, etc. were interviewed about life skills. They belonged to 48 percent of Iran provinces and the most important universities. Their suggested life skills were studied and arranged. Finally, the life skills questionnaire presented in the appendix was originated after all these steps and processes. It can be used by educational policy makers, materials developers, researchers, teachers, etc. to examine and analyze the socio-cultural constructs of Iranian textbooks and their amount of agreement with determined life skills in this questionnaire.

KEYWORDS: Life skills questionnaire, Socio-cultural constructs, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) textbooks

INTRODUCTION

Applied English Language Teaching (ELT) introduces the concepts and theories like English for Life Purposes (ELP) and Life Syllabus. It shows that we are to use English language as a means to improve the life skills of learners. One of the ways to reach to this end is enriching textbooks with necessary life skills which are suitable for each society and culture.

As researchers in this study wanted to prepare and present a standard and acceptable questionnaire for socio-cultural constructs of EFL textbooks, the culture and life skills were on their core of concentration.

In the following part, there are related articles that are in two groups. First, there are articles that make the foundation of our main concepts. Second, there are ones that are directly related to our topic. Both of them will be mentioned below.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Applied ELT

Pishghadam (2011) claimed that we can generalize ELT to other fields of study. For example, we can use English Language Teaching (ELT) in Geometry, Philosophy, History, Mathematics, etc. with this in mind, it can be said that ELT can be examined deeply through interdisciplinary studies.

First and for most, life studies and needs can be negotiated. English Language Teaching can be a good means for improving and developing life skills. The main purpose of this study is an endeavor to measure the amount of improving life skills caused by EFL textbooks.

English for Life Purposes (ELP)

Pishghadam and Zabihi (2013) introduce the idea of “English for Life Purposes (ELP)” that includes different sorts of “life skills” such as: “motivation to learn, emotional intelligence, critical thinking ability or creativity, learners’ anxiety, neuroticism, and depression or burnout” (p. 6).

The idea of ELP attracted the TEFL and TESL scholars’ and researchers’ attention. This concept says that the ultimate goal of education and more specifically English Language Teaching shouldn’t be forgotten. The ultimate goal is to prepare children for their future life.

Life Syllabus

Pishghadam and Zabihi (2012) says that “it is high time to shift the focus of ELT from the linguistic theories to a life-changing status, and one possibility is that life syllabi should be incorporated into the ELT curriculum.” (p. 97)

Presentation of Culture in ELT Textbooks

According to Modiano (2001), “one way to come to terms with the cultural imposition of English language learning is to employ ELT practices which define English as an international language.” (p. 86) McKay (2003) believes that “in the light of English as an international language, the cultural content of materials should not be limited to native English-speaking countries and should include local cultural content.” (p.86)

Life Skills

Maass et al. (2006) mentioned that specific life skills include communication, critical thinking, goal setting, conflict resolution, cooperation, problem solving, decision-making, and community service. Boleman et al. (2004) examined specific life skills in their study as follows: ability to relate to others, decision-making, develop and maintain records, accept responsibility, self-motivation, develop organizational skills, build positive self-esteem, ability to solve problems, set goals, develop self-discipline, develop oral communication skills, and work in teams. Fox et al. (2003) divided 32 life skills into four main categories: communication skills, technical skills, Leadership skills, and personal/social skills.

Loeser et al (2004) introduced an instrument that was consisted of 31 indicators to measure the following eight life skills: decision making, wise use of resources, communication, accepting differences, healthy lifestyle choices, and self-responsibility. Sawi & Smith (1997) specified that “life skills, such as leadership, teamwork, decision making, problem solving, reasoning, communication and personal qualities such as responsibility, self-esteem, and integrity can be found in almost any description of a content and an extension youth program” (p.34).

PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

According to what was said in the second part of this paper, especially the concepts and ideas of Applied English Language teaching (ELT), English for Life Purposes (ELP), Life syllabus, and socio-cultural constructs of EFL textbooks, there is a need to prepare EFL textbooks which improve the learners’ life skills. English language teaching and its textbooks should be at the service of the ultimate goal of education that is preparing students for a successful life in future. Therefore, a valid and reliable life skills questionnaire is needed. Researchers tried to design and introduce such a questionnaire through the following processes.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main questions of this research are:

1. What are the necessary life skills that EFL learners need?
2. How to design a valid and reliable life skills questionnaire?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

29 Iranian clear-sighted university lecturers and scientists of related professions with following specifications were selected randomly to participate in this study. They were asked to name the life skills that Iranian EFL learners need.

Table 1: Professors' specifications

		Numbers	Percent
Scientific position	Full Professor	5	17%
	Associate Professor	17	59%
	Assistant Professor	7	24%
Profession	Theology and Islamic/Quranic Studies	2	7%
	ELT (English Language Teaching)	7	24%
	Sociology	4	14%
	Educational Sciences	5	17%
	(Educational) Psychology	6	21%
	Curriculum Development & Syllabus Design	5	17%
Provinces	Fars, Tehran, Isfahan, Khouzestan, Hamedan, East Azarbayejan, Zanzan, Semnan, Chahar mahal Bakhtiyari, Qom, Guilan, West Azarbayejan, Sistan & Baloochestan, Razavi Khorasan, South Khorasan	15 (out of 31)	48%
Gender	Male	18	62%
	Female	11	38%
Average age		48	

This table shows that 76 percent of the university lecturers who participated in this study were full professors and associate ones. In other words, they were most famous university lecturers in their profession in Iran. Also, it worth mentioning that it took about two months finding such university lecturers.

Also, as it can be seen in the above table, professors with various related professions participated in this research. University lecturers of Theology and Quranic studies were asked to participate in this interview to consider the Islamic values. As the emphasis of the researcher was EFL textbooks, a large number of university lecturers were ELT professors. Sociologists helped us because we wanted to investigate the socio-cultural constructs of EFL textbooks. University professors of educational sciences and educational psychology were asked because this research is originally an educational study. Also, curriculum developers and syllabus designers gave their time to this part of the study. Besides, this table shows that the university lecturers belonged to about half of the provinces of Iran.

Instrumentations

A valid and reliable interview with policy makers, sociologists, psychologists, linguists, etc. was used as the main instrument of this study. In this interview, the university lecturers were asked to mention their specifications and name at least five life skills that EFL learners/EFL textbooks need. It is worth mentioning that two university lecturers were asked to check the validity of the interview. Also, piloting process was done to check its reliability.

Procedure

Clear-sighted professors and scientists of related professions such as sociology, educational sciences, materials development, psychology, etc. were interviewed about life skills. They were from 48 percent of Iran provinces and among the most important universities. The interviews were done both face to face and electronically. In other words, the questions and answers of the interviews were sent and received by email. All the answers and suggested life skills were studied and arranged carefully. Finally, the questionnaire (appeared in the appendix) was originated after these steps and processes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The suggested life skills mentioned by the participants of this study (29 professors), included about 150 life skills. For example, the suggested life skills like critical thinking, learning for learning, problem solving, cooperative learning, doing research, respecting social laws, decision making, interpersonal relationships, Active listening,

Respecting older generations, Discipline in life activities, Working cooperatively with others, Managing emotions (anger, stress, etc.), Team and group work, Time management, etc.

After gathering all these items and suggested life skills, they were divided into five main categories namely communicative/linguistic life skills, personal/social life skills, leadership life skills, critical thinking life skills, and decision making/problem solving life skills. The final version of the life skills questionnaire after various steps of checking validity and reliability is presented as appendix A at the end of this paper. Its validity was approved by gathering the experts' opinions and their comments on this questionnaire, and a pilot study for checking its reliability was done by researchers with participation of 23 EFL teachers. The result of Cronbach's Alpha for the piloting process was 0.77.

CONCLUSION

The life skills questionnaire in the appendix is the ultimate result of this research project which lasted about 3 months. It can be used by educational policy makers, materials developers, researchers, teachers, etc. to examine and analyze the socio-cultural constructs of universal EFL textbooks and their amount of agreement with determined life skills in this questionnaire.

Although the researchers and students who want to use this life skills questionnaire will check its validity and reliability, it is worth mentioning that its validity was approved by gathering the experts' opinions and their comments on this questionnaire, and a pilot study for checking its reliability was done by researchers with participation of 23 EFL teachers. The result of Cronbach's Alpha for the piloting process was 0.77.

(De)Limitations of the study

The designed life skills questionnaire just analyzes the socio-cultural constructs of EFL textbooks, and other constructs of those textbooks are intentionally neglected. In addition, the participants' sex is not considered in this study. Besides, the socio-cultural constructs of the EFL textbooks are not separated sexually and are considered as overall life skills.

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Appendix A – Designed Life Skills Questionnaire

<p>In the Name of Almighty</p> <p>The questionnaire for assessing life skills in EFL textbooks</p> <p>Dear teacher/student:</p> <p>This is a questionnaire for assessing the amount of life skills expression in socio-cultural constructs of Iranian EFL public textbooks.</p> <p>Many thanks for your cooperation.</p>					
<p>Participants' specifications:</p> <p>Name: (optional) _____ Gender: male <input type="checkbox"/> female <input type="checkbox"/> Age: 0-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 30-40 <input type="checkbox"/> 40-50 <input type="checkbox"/> Over 50 <input type="checkbox"/></p> <p>Degree: AD <input type="checkbox"/> BA <input type="checkbox"/> MA <input type="checkbox"/> PhD <input type="checkbox"/> Province: _____</p> <p>Considered textbook: Junior high school: 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> Senior high school: 1 <input type="checkbox"/> 2 <input type="checkbox"/> 3 <input type="checkbox"/> 4 <input type="checkbox"/></p>					
<p>To what extent the considered textbook improve the following life skills in learners?</p>					<p style="text-align: center;">Very high</p>
					<p style="text-align: center;">High</p>
					<p style="text-align: center;">Middle</p>
					<p style="text-align: center;">Low</p>
					<p style="text-align: center;">Nothing</p>
Communication/ Linguistic Life Skills					
1	Effective verbal and non-verbal communication with others that help the students to establish relationships				
2	Expressing of feelings, ideas and opinions clearly				
3	Giving and receiving feedback				
4	Understanding other people's viewpoints				
5	Organizing thoughts to reflect logical thinking and speaking				
6	Influencing & persuading others				
7	Expressing respect for others' contributions				
8	Learning how to criticize and reply/react criticisms				
9	Respecting and tolerating opposite and various comments (Being patient in relation with others)				
10	Active listening (real situations like in classes, airports, shops, watching films, listening to music, etc.)				
11	Fluency and accuracy in speaking (real situations like in airports, shops, etc.)				
12	Correct reading and study skills (even newspapers, stories, novels, etc.)				
13	Using body language and gestures for conveying meaning and understanding				
14	Observance of lexical and grammatical/structural rules in written utterances				
Personal/ social life Skills					
1	Developing of personal identity				
2	Respecting the social and cultural laws and values of the society				
3	Respecting others' values				
4	Acquiring of social responsibilities				
5	Truthfulness in action and speech				
6	Respecting older generations (including parents, adults, and teachers)				
7	Respecting other religions				
8	Discipline in life activities				
9	Respecting and observance of people's right (e.g. in public places, traffic rules, sin against mankind, etc.)				
10	Team and group work				
11	Practical belief to religious values and instructions (e.g. praying, fasting, veil, honesty, depositary, avoiding backbiting, finding good friends, etc.)				
Leadership Life Skills					
1	Organizing a group to reach its goal				
2	Using different leadership styles				
3	Getting others to share in leadership				
4	Developing short-term and long-term goals				

5	Working cooperatively with others					
6	Demonstrating responsibility for personal actions and contributions to group activities					
7	Building of self-confidence and self-esteem (Having firm determination)					
8	Giving and receiving feedback					
9	Self-evaluation/assessment					
10	Managing emotions (anger, stress, etc.)					
11	Courage and bravery in making decisions and doing different works					
Critical Thinking Life Skills						
1	Analyzing attitudes, values, social norms and beliefs					
2	Identifying relevant information and information sources					
3	Applying of technology					
4	Recognizing bias					
5	Organizing thoughts to reflecting logical thinking					
6	Having a deep understanding of more than one issue					
7	Relating solutions to a wide variety of issues					
8	Finding answers to challenging questions					
9	Confident in reaching a reasonable conclusion					
10	Searching for the truth even when it makes uncomfortable					
11	Thinking of different ways to answer a question					
Decision Making / Problem Solving Life Skills						
1	Setting goals					
2	Determining alternative solutions to problems					
3	Listing options before making a decision					
4	Thinking about what might happen because of my decision					
5	Evaluating decisions					
6	Systemic planning using resources to accomplish a purpose					
7	Time management					
8	Conflict resolution					
9	Working out problems that are presented to me					
10	Listing all points of views when making decisions					
11	Consultation					

Appendix B - Interview

In the name of Almighty

Dear professor:

This is an interview for designing a questionnaire. Many thanks for your help.

Professor Specifications:

Name: (optional)	Field:	University:
Email:	Scientific level: Assistant prof. <input type="checkbox"/> Associate prof. <input type="checkbox"/> Full <input type="checkbox"/> of.	<input type="checkbox"/>

Question:

Please tell/ write life skills you believe should be included in EFL textbooks. (at least 5)

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ACADEMIC ENGLISH NEEDS OF IRANIAN PARAMEDICAL STUDENTS AND PRACTITIONERS: AN ESP CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates English for Specific Purposes (ESP) needs of Iranian paramedical students who study ESP in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environment. The students' perceived needs are compared with their English job requirements in health care centers in future. This study was designed on a qualitative- quantitative survey basis. The participants of this study consisted of 260 undergraduate paramedical students. The data were collected through a researcher-made questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The results of the study indicate that majority of the participants were dissatisfied with the number of current ESP courses for BA students. Extensive qualitative and statistical analysis of the data revealed that most of the students perceived they needed to develop their language proficiency before they attended their specialized courses. The participants complained about their limited knowledge of semitechnical and technical vocabulary related to their field of study. And they proposed to have both general and specialized medical terminology courses to develop vocabulary knowledge to a large extent. The results of the needs analysis revealed that ESP courses proposed at universities can make the grounds for the subjects' future job purposes but they are not sufficient to account for the specific job requirements of nurses, midwives and surgical technologists. All of the participants put emphasis on ESP classes to develop their translation skills as the widely required skill both in carrying out their studies and in their future job practice. However, it can be implied from the results of the study that students need English more than practitioners.

KEYWORDS: needs analysis, paramedical students, practitioners, ESP context

INTRODUCTION

What is an undisputed fact is that any ESP course should be needs driven and has an emphasis on practical outcomes (Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998:1). Therefore, needs analysis is and always will be an important and fundamental part of ESP (Gatehouse, 2001; Graves, 2000). It is 'the corner stone of ESP and leads to a very focused course' (Dudley-Evan & St. John, 1998, 122). Needs analysis evolved in the 1970s (Munby, 1978) to include 'deficiency analysis', or assessment of the 'learning gap' (West, 1997:71) between target language use and current learner proficiencies (Brunton, 2009).

Practically speaking, ESP deals with preparing the learners to become able to use English in academic, professional or workplace settings. As it is about specific students, therefore, it must be tailored to the needs of these students. This coordination is accomplished through what is called Needs Analysis (NA). Looking through the literature, one can find different definitions of NA by some scholars with varying degrees of overlap and/or deviation. For instance, Brown (1995:36) defines NA as "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation". In this definition, the idea of defensible curriculum deals with the accountability of the course meeting the requirements of a particular group of students and their instructor(s) or other stakeholders (Mohammadi and Mousavi, 2013). Analyzing the specific needs of a particular learner group serves as the prelude to an ESP course design, because it determines the 'what' and 'how' of an ESP course. Chen (2006) also reached the conclusion that ESP course designers should explore and identify the learners' potential needs in the first place (Jiajing, 2007).

With the globalization of trade and economy and the continuing increase of international communication in various fields, the demand for English for Specific Purposes is expanding, especially in countries where English is taught as a foreign language. Even though ESP courses have become popular in Iran and many institutions and universities offer ESP courses for senior students, for years the instruction has been limited to specialized lexicon and sentence structures, an approach which fundamentally ignores the learners' professional needs. This often leads to low motivation in their English studies and, in turn, poor performance later when they use English in their future profession.

In response to these problems, it is important to help students adapt to today's competitive society, meaning that university English faculties need to design ESP courses that can best prepare learners for future professional communication (Jiajing, 2007).

In Iran, the demand of English language teaching has been increasing both in private sectors and in formal institutions such as those in state and private universities. This demand has been generated by advances in commerce and industry which require people to have adequate command of the language both spoken and written. In spite of the increasing demand for English language teaching, this situation has not invoked sufficient research in ESP, especially the needs of various groups of learners or people who need to have sufficient command in English. That is, despite the significant weight of discipline-based EAP courses at Iranian universities, no serious research has so far addressed the systematic needs analysis of the Iranian English for Specific Academic/ Occupational Purposes (ESA/ OP) students.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the English educational needs of undergraduate paramedical students during their education in university?
 - a) Determining the mean of English educational needs from the viewpoints of undergraduate paramedical students
 - b) Determining the mean of English educational needs in the domain of knowledge from the viewpoints of undergraduate paramedical students
 - c) Determining the mean of English educational needs in the domain of skill from the viewpoints of undergraduate paramedical students
 - d) Determining the mean of English educational needs in the domain of situational requirements from the viewpoints of undergraduate paramedical students
 - e) Determining the mean of English educational needs in the domain of language use and training courses from the viewpoints of undergraduate paramedical students
 - f) Determining the relationship between English educational needs and students' sex
 - g) Determining the relationship between English educational needs and students' semester
 - h) Determining the relationship between English educational needs and students' major
2. What are the language skills and components that the paramedical practitioners mention as their needs?
3. Are the learners' perceived needs in line with target needs of prospective paramedical practitioners?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

A total of 260 undergraduate paramedical students majoring in midwifery (20), nursing (170) and surgical technology (70) in Isfahan University of Medical Sciences were selected through purposive sampling. These three groups were chosen among paramedical students studying in other fields of study since they had several training courses in different hospital departments each semester except the first semester. In this way, they could experience the role of English both in their academic studies and in their profession. They all passed one general English course, one ESP course and only the surgical technology students passed one medical terminology course in addition to the first two courses. Of 260 students, 71 were male and 189 were female. The range of age was from 19 to 25. These students were chosen from different semesters from fourth to eight. As far as the qualitative aspect of study is concerned, ten midwives, ten nurses and ten surgical technologists were selected randomly from the personnel working in Al-Zahra Hospital.

Instrumentation

The methodology underlying the research was both quantitative (through the implementation of a researcher-made questionnaire) and qualitative (through a semi-structured interview). The questionnaire was derived from the results of a pilot study in which a random sample of 30 students in the three fields (10 in each field) and 30 corresponding practitioners (10 in each field) took part in an open-ended interview. The validity of the questionnaire was approved by needs analysis professionals and ESP teachers and language teachers. And its reliability was determined in a pilot study to be $\alpha=0.94$. The students' questionnaire included two sections and 64

items. The first section, addressed some demographic information. The items in the second section were divided into five categories: 12 questions about the need for language proficiency; 21 questions about the need for language skills; 10 questions about the situational requirements; 12 questions about the need for language facilities; and 8 questions about the need for language use. Since there was large number of questions, the questionnaire was divided into two and each section was distributed at a time. In order to save time and eliminate misinterpretation, the items were read by the researcher and students ranked the items on a three-point Likert scale from highly required, somewhat required, to a little required.

Procedure

Two hundred sixty undergraduate paramedical students majoring in midwifery, nursing and surgical technology in Isfahan University of Medical University were selected among students who had passed all of their English courses and after they had enough training courses in different hospital wards to experience the role of English both in their academic studies and in their future workplace. In fact, training courses were part of the academic courses in their educational curriculum. Therefore, they were chosen among students studying in semesters four to eight. A researcher-made questionnaire was distributed among each group separately twice to elicit their English educational needs during their academic studies in the university. Thirty practitioners from the three mentioned fields were also selected randomly among those working in the related wards of Al-Zahra hospital, an educational hospital affiliated with Isfahan University of Medical Sciences. These practitioners graduated from the same university and a semi-structured interview was used to elicit English job requirements of these participants and it took thirty minutes for each of them. Then, the participants' English educational needs and English professional needs were compared.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research question 1: What are the English educational needs of undergraduate paramedical students?

This study was an attempt to find out the undergraduate paramedical students' perception of their English educational needs. According to table one, the English educational needs were above the mean in all five categories and in different fields of study.

Table 1: English educational needs of undergraduate paramedical students

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
know	mamaei	20	2.9375	.40273	2.17	3.67
	parastari	170	3.0961	.45364	1.50	4.00
	otagh amal	70	3.1738	.43930	1.83	4.00
	Total	260	3.1048	.44843	1.50	4.00
skil	mamaei	20	3.1071	.24226	2.67	3.57
	parastari	170	3.0961	.44107	1.57	4.00
	otagh amal	70	3.1068	.42332	2.10	4.00
	Total	260	3.0998	.42310	1.57	4.00
Unit	mamaei	20	3.0500	.26852	2.60	3.60
	parastari	170	3.0729	.42521	1.70	4.00
	otagh amal	70	3.0843	.44742	2.10	3.90
	Total	260	3.0742	.42032	1.70	4.00
Need	mamaei	20	3.1083	.36784	2.17	3.75
	parastari	170	3.3250	.44759	1.33	4.00
	otagh amal	70	3.3167	.45679	2.08	4.00
	Total	260	3.3061	.44667	1.33	4.00
Facility	mamaei	20	2.3700	.54008	1.40	3.60
	parastari	170	2.7059	.72689	1.00	4.00
	otagh amal	70	2.8000	.64964	1.40	4.00
	Total	260	2.7054	.69979	1.00	4.00

Table 2: English educational needs of males and females

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
know	Between Groups	.906	2	.453	2.275	.105
	Within Groups	51.175	257	.199		
	Total	52.081	259			
skil	Between Groups	.007	2	.003	.019	.981
	Within Groups	46.357	257	.180		
	Total	46.364	259			
Unit	Between Groups	.019	2	.010	.054	.948
	Within Groups	45.738	257	.178		
	Total	45.757	259			
Need	Between Groups	.851	2	.425	2.151	.118
	Within Groups	50.824	257	.198		
	Total	51.675	259			
Facility	Between Groups	2.876	2	1.438	2.982	.052
	Within Groups	123.956	257	.482		
	Total	126.832	259			

According to table two, the males and the females had the same English educational needs.

Table 3: English educational needs in different semesters

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
know	Between Groups	.574	1	.574	2.874	.091
	Within Groups	51.508	258	.200		
	Total	52.081	259			
skil	Between Groups	.179	1	.179	1.000	.318
	Within Groups	46.185	258	.179		
	Total	46.364	259			
Unit	Between Groups	.015	1	.015	.083	.774
	Within Groups	45.743	258	.177		
	Total	45.757	259			
Need	Between Groups	1.085	1	1.085	5.532	.019
	Within Groups	50.590	258	.196		
	Total	51.675	259			
Facility	Between Groups	.045	1	.045	.091	.763
	Within Groups	126.788	258	.491		
	Total	126.832	259			

According to table three, students in different semesters had the same educational needs.

Table 4: English educational needs in different fields of study

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
know	Between Groups	.956	6	.159	.788	.580
	Within Groups	51.126	253	.202		
	Total	52.081	259			
skil	Between Groups	1.915	6	.319	1.816	.096
	Within Groups	44.450	253	.176		
	Total	46.364	259			
Unit	Between Groups	.469	6	.078	.437	.854
	Within Groups	45.288	253	.179		
	Total	45.757	259			
Need	Between Groups	1.547	6	.258	1.302	.257
	Within Groups	50.128	253	.198		
	Total	51.675	259			
Facility	Between Groups	2.687	6	.448	.913	.486
	Within Groups	124.145	253	.491		
	Total	126.832	259			

According to table four, there were no statistically meaningful differences between the students' English educational needs in different fields of study as far as five categories are concerned (knowledge of language, language skills, educational facilities, situational requirements use of language).

Table 5: relationship between English educational needs in different categories

Course		Test Value = 3		
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
mamaei	know	-.694	19	.496
	skil	1.978	19	.063
	Unit	.833	19	.415
	Need	1.317	19	.203
	Facility	-5.217	19	.000
parastari	know	2.761	169	.006
	skil	2.840	169	.005
	Unit	2.237	169	.027
	Need	9.467	169	.000
	Facility	-5.276	169	.000
otagh amal	know	3.310	69	.001
	skil	2.111	69	.038
	Unit	1.576	69	.120
	Need	5.800	69	.000
	Facility	-2.576	69	.012

According to table five, there was a direct relationship between English educational needs in different categories. That is, those who said to have more educational needs in language knowledge category had more English educational needs in other categories.

The descriptive statistics revealed the following findings in the five categories designed in the questionnaire:

-In the domain of knowledge: they expected to expand their knowledge of specialized vocabulary and to develop their language proficiency.

-In the domain of language skills: they expected to develop reading, writing and translation skills.

-In the domain of situational requirements: they expected to have more English courses, at least one unit in each semester from the first to the eighth semester.

-In the domain of language facilities: they expected to have homogenous classes as far as the learners' language proficiency in each field of study is concerned, to have classes with small number of students, to have audiovisual aids for learning English especially the pronunciation of new words, to have access to online dictionaries, to have fewer courses in each semester in order to spend more time on learning English, and to have extracurricular English classes in the faculty.

-In the domain of language use: they expected to spend more time in each department in the hospital during training courses to master its required medical terminology, to communicate effectively with the healthcare providers, to read and understand the medical records and to write the required terminology in the report forms.

Skills required during academic studies (from the most frequent to the least)

- Using dictionary: they mainly use general and bilingual dictionaries in their mobiles since they have not learned how to use monolingual dictionaries.
- Translating into Persian: English articles in academic journals or English sites are required to be translated into Persian as assignments in other courses except English courses.
- Understanding the instructor's speech: It is in Persian while infested with technical terms and abbreviations.
- Using computer: Reading computer (English) messages while using it for different academic purposes, installing different software.
- Searching the Internet for different academic purposes.
- Presenting Persian lectures in classrooms according to what they understand from a given English article.
- Communicating effectively with the instructors and classmates.
- Writing a Persian academic article
- Taking part in Persian conferences

Skills required in training courses (simulated workplace) (from the most frequent to the least)

- Reading patients' medical records containing a list of medical terminology and/or their abbreviations about the name of drugs, diseases, medical instruments, diagnoses and physicians' orders).
- Reading brochures of drugs and/or medical instruments
- Reading sonography, radiology, laboratory, CT scan, MRI, spirometry,...results
- Understanding the doctors' speech during physicians' rounds
- Communicating effectively with other caregivers in health care facilities
- Presenting Persian academic lectures in training courses according to what they understand from a given English article
- Filling out the patient's medical record in Persian: first of all, they do not have any written assignments in English during their academic studies so they do not know the English spelling of most of the technical terms in their field of study. Second, their exams including the English exam are in multiple-choice format. Third, in emergency cases, they should save time and writing in English with low language proficiency is time consuming.
- English references are introduced to the students by their content teachers at the beginning of each academic course. Since the students' language proficiency is low, they prefer not to use the English references and/articles and they mainly use their notes taken in the classroom. If their notes are not complete, they refer to the corresponding Persian references. Even when the instructors use English slides, either the instructor explains the slides in Persian or one of the students whose English is better than others translate the slides into Persian and give the translations to other students.

Research question 2: What are the language skills and components that the paramedical practitioners mention as their needs?

- Reading patients' medical records containing a list of medical terminology and/or their abbreviations about the name of drugs, diseases, medical instruments, diagnoses and physicians' orders)
- Reading brochures of drugs and/or medical instruments
- Reading sonography, radiology, laboratory, CT scan, MRI, spirometry, ... results
- Reading the notices on the bulletin boards in health care centers including the boards in nursing stations
- Communicating with health care professionals in healthcare facilities
- Filing out the patient's medical record

Research question 3. *Are the learners' perceived needs in line with target needs of prospective paramedical practitioners?*

Four English skills are required both during academic studies and in the future workplace. In the university, students need to read English materials related to their field of study, even the Persian academic reading materials contain a large number of medical terms; understand their instructor's speech in the classroom; take notes in the classroom; write training reports; search topics related to the field of study in the Internet; and discuss a given topic with the classmates and/or the instructor. Another skill that is required primarily in the university is to translate English texts and articles into Persian in each field of study.

In the workplace, the paramedical practitioners need the four skills but for slightly different purposes: to read the notes on the bulletin boards; to read the clients' medical records, lab, sonography, radiology, CT scan, MRI, spirometry ...results; write reports; and to communicate with other healthcare providers. Translation skills are also required in the workplace to read the patients' medical reports as well as understand and interpret the results of ancillary services.

In order to arrive at high quality translations, students as well as practitioners first need to develop their general reading skills and increase their repertoire of vocabulary including technical and semitechnical terms.

In addition, in line with the findings of Alinezhad and Gholami (2012), this study revealed that participants need English to conduct activities which require more general English knowledge than ESP. Furthermore, this study also clearly showed that nursing students need English more than nursing practitioners. Based upon the findings of the research, English should have further use in nursing field in order to empower them in their career.

Content teachers usually have "Pnglish" or "Persianalized" pronunciation as they use English technical terms in their class presentations. They explain each term once in Persian, rarely writing the original English term on the board, and then use it orally. Most of the students understand what the word is really in English when they pass they encounter it in English courses and especially when the English instructor raises their attention. Since students spend more time with them, such pronunciation is highly established in them. If more authentic English tasks are required of the learners in different fields during their education and in the workplace rather than just resorting to "Persianalized" technical terms, of which learners have limited knowledge as far as their depth and breadth are concerned, they would become self-directed learners in future as learning continues during their lifetime and also would become productive, effective practitioners equipped with updated knowledge and skills as needed.

The goal is achieved by close, constant collaboration of content instructor and English instructor both when students have English courses and after they finish their English courses. They synchronize their activities in a way that English teacher trains learners to be equipped with the essential language skills and content teacher tries to help them practice and reinforce what they have learned in English classes in real contexts. Here, curriculum and material designer can come into the scene. It is a well-designed curriculum which can help the two instructors to proceed their activities in parallel without any conflict and/or neutralization and it is a competent material designer who can design English materials and English tasks mostly needed by the learners in their future workplace.

CONCLUSION

The review of literature indicates that learner needs (Mazdayasna & Tahririan, 2008; Bensoussan, Collado, Viton & Delarque, 2009; Varnosfardani, 2009) will have to be addressed if they are to be successful in their educational and professional settings. The literature suggests important principles for investigating learner needs, specifying that attempts should be made to meet those needs in actual teaching, learning and workplace situations, which further involve attention to curriculum development.

The findings of the study indicate that learners' needs should be taken into account in the EAP curriculum in Iran. This preliminary study implies that EAP program in Iran should be revised in order to be consistent with the perceptions of students. Furthermore, the time allocated to English language classes must be extended in order to provide more opportunities for students to learn and practice English language in their studies.

Although it is claimed that the overall goal of the ESP curriculum in Iran is to provide autonomous readers who can use various sources in their specific field of study at the end of the programs (Atai, 2002) and although it is

believed that the materials are presented through grammar-translation method in English classes, the learners, in fact, neither master the translation skills as well as the required grammatical points nor do they master the required reading skills and strategies to become self-directed learners.

To achieve this goal, a careful balance needs to be brought about between English for occupational purpose and English for academic purpose in ESP curriculum design (Kucherenko, 2013). That is, English for occupational purpose should be integrated into English for academic purpose. In English for academic purpose, students need to develop topic specific vocabulary to communicate with the instructors and to translate English texts and in the English for occupational purpose, the graduated students are expected to work with key vocabulary in different subject areas related to their field of study. Therefore, it is necessary to introduce medical terminology courses related to each field of study that focus on vocabulary skills such as word-building to develop advanced skills necessary for proficient reading and understanding of subject specific texts.

Students need to be equipped with the essential comprehension skills, have more comprehension assistance, and discourage translation. In this way, the troublesome, time-consuming translation task with its increased cognitive load gives its place to normal reading comprehension with optimal speed.

Task-based teaching of reading skills and vocabulary learning skills are suggested to consolidate vocabulary learning and further avoid the demotivating task of word-for-word translation. This correlates with what Harmer (2003) recommends: availability of various reading experiences dependent on micro-skills may cause ideal reading practice for the classroom. Moreover, as Basturkmen (2006, p.125) states, task-based instruction will provide room for the teacher to predict the learners' potentiality of their future performance in their professional, academic or work place where better performance is considered respected.

In cases in which they have to translate the English materials, they need to learn the essential translation skills in a number of courses. They need to view translation both an art and science in order to avoid the vicious circle of translating the words in the order they occur in context and misunderstanding of what is translated. They also need to master using monolingual dictionaries and exploit their high potential for learning English; thus removing the additional stage of resorting to the first language.

Most of the students even do not have the essential study skills such as making good notes; outlining the reading materials; using the dictionary mainly monolingual one; learning the vocabulary of English involving developing knowledge of the general prefixes and suffixes as well as the specialized ones, using the part of speech, guessing meaning from context, recording the meaning of words, fixing the meaning of words, and preparing to pass (objective or subjective) examinations.

Thus, as Naseri Karimvand (2010) states: setting high standards and goals for ESP curriculum without having clear picture of the students' capacities, characteristics and needs on entrance to these programs has led to an incoherent educational experience.

It has been hoped that if students improve their general language skills early in the course, and learn the relevant technical vocabulary of their discipline in their first year, they will be adequately equipped to handle subject-specific materials in their later specialized courses. However, in line with the results of Boniadi et al.'s study (2013), ESP instruction was just limited to teaching certain amount of technical and semitechnical vocabulary, doing certain decontextualized grammar exercises and reading and translating texts.

The results of this study, similar to Eslami-Rasekh & Valizadeh (2004) and Eslami (2010) study of general English students in Iran, demonstrate that although students show more interest in communicative activities, the use of the grammar translation method with a heavy emphasis on grammar and translation is still prominent in Iranian universities. This is an indication that EAP learners in Iran are experiencing a fairly traditional, form-focused L2 education with little opportunity to use English for communicative purposes (Farhady & Hedayati, 2009, p. 140).

The following limitations might somehow influence the results of the study and the generalizability extent of the results of the research to other situations and participants:

1. In the quantitative part of the study, a failure to use a probability sampling technique significantly limits our ability to make broader generalisations from our results.
2. If we could choose our participants in the three fields equally from the students studying in different semesters from one to eight, we might have a clearer picture of the English educational needs in each field.
3. Students in the seventh and eight semester studying in different fields of study could give us a more comprehensive list of their English educational needs, however, it was very difficult to have access to them as they spent their training courses in different wards of different hospitals throughout the last two semesters.
4. Some intervening factors are involved which might affect the students' perception of their English educational needs in different fields of study: interest in the field of study, future job, continuing one's education at postgraduate levels, and learning English; attitude toward learning English, and one's job status in the society; the kind of university they were studying in; the kind of hospital they were passing their training courses and/or working; their content teacher English assignments; their English teacher English assignments; the number of English courses they pass; and a lot of other factors.

A fascinating future research project is to control these factors and to discover how they affect the results of the study.

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TEACHER EMPOWERMENT AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO JOB SATISFACTION: A CASE STUDY IN MAZANDARAN UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between teachers' empowerment and job satisfaction. The surveys used in this study contain School Participant Empowerment Scale (SPES) measured teacher perceived empowerment, the Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ) measured teacher job satisfaction, and the demographic survey included age, educational background and gender. SPES measured six different dimensions of empowerment: Decision-making, professional growth, status, self-efficacy, autonomy, and impact, along with an overall total and TJSQ includes nine factors of satisfaction: Supervision, colleagues, working conditions, pay, and responsibility. The result indicated that significant correlations were found between total teacher empowerment and total teacher job satisfaction. However, there was no correlation between factor of security in job satisfaction scale and the three teacher empowerment scales of professional growth, status, and autonomy. There was also no correlation found between the teacher job satisfaction factor of recognition and the three teacher empowerment dimensions of decision-making, self-efficacy and impact. In the other hand, there are significant differences in the demographic variables of educational background and gender with regards to teacher empowerment and job satisfaction.

KEYWORDS: Teacher Empowerment, Job Satisfaction,

INTRODUCTION

Teacher Empowerment

Due to previous researches, teacher empowerment is a field that teachers should have enough jurisdictions in the professional development process to have self-efficacy. Short (1992) stated that teacher empowerment is as a professional development process including professional knowledge base, higher teaching efficacy, and promote decision-making to meet the requirement of education. The three key issues accentuated in the study included: (a) empowerment is a learning process which grows the ability of teachers to achieve authority and let them to create a more effective learning environment, (b) teachers should obtain a higher self awareness to enhance the learning environment, and (c) empowering motivation is a factor which improve teacher's sense of power and consequently increase self-efficacy.

Whitaker and Moses (1990) expressed that five factors which enhance empowerment can be included to: (a) make a sense of self-confidence in teachers, (b) liberate teachers, foster their collaboration, and decreases alienation, (c) change bureaucracy, (d) arouse growth and renewal, and (e) improve cooperation.

Blase and Blase (1994) investigated some points about the concept of teacher empowerment concentrating on professional structure, improving the teaching profession, and increase independence. On the other hand, Mahrenhoztion (1996) focused on changing old concepts, motivating teachers to become involved, making new ideas and innovations in order to grow their professional knowledge base.

Blanchard and Carlos (1996) accentuated some key pinpoints. First, employees must be responsible and managers need to trust employees. Second, rewards create more motivation and enhance self-efficacy of the organization and encourage an innovation. Third, training and development is vital in the process. Fourth, the more trust, the more motivation can be predicted.

According to Short's (1992) study teacher empowerment as a professional development process containing professional knowledge base, higher teaching efficacy, self-efficacy, and increasing participation in decision-making to meet the goals of education. The three key points in the study include: (a) empowerment is a learning process increasing the ability of teachers to achieve authority and allowing them to make a more efficient learning

environment, (b) teachers should have a higher self awareness and improve the learning environment, and (c) empowering teachers can enhance their motivation and improve their sense of responsibility in order to increase overall efficacy.

Riley (1995) indicated that teachers are the most important resource in the school restructuring processes. When teachers have empowerment, their authority structure changes and if this can change, then empowerment can be more easily performed as well as school restructuring can be accomplished. Empowered teachers can make greater contributions, and seeing the changes that these contributions make, can further add to and sustain the momentum.

Job Satisfaction

According to Zembylas and Papanastasiou (2004), Job satisfaction is an effective feedback to the situation which a person involved at work. Thus it is a distinguished relationship between what one wants from teaching and what one discerns it is suggesting to a teacher.

Thompson (1997) stated that some aspects, associated with teacher satisfaction, include salary, support from supervisor, and accessibility of resources. These and other factors of teachers' working environment have been recognized as factors that increased teacher dissatisfaction and to teacher's attrition. Therefore, Travers and Coopers (1996) indicated that when teachers are not satisfied with their working conditions, they are intended to leave the profession (Travers & Cooper, 1996).

In a study of the job satisfaction of high school journalism teachers, Dvorak and Phillips (2001) used Herzberg's two-factor theory to identify predictors of job satisfaction. The results of the study indicated that the teachers felt generally satisfied. If given the opportunity to return to college to start over again, 70% of the teachers indicated they would again choose teaching. Dvorak and Phillips found a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic factors predicted the job satisfaction of these teachers. Intrinsic predictors included advancement, work itself, and responsibility. In contrast to Herzberg's theory, working conditions, salary, and job security were extrinsic factors which were significant predictors of job satisfaction for this sample.

Relationships between Teacher Empowerment and Job Satisfaction

The beginning studies about teacher empowerment and job satisfaction started in the 1990's in elementary and high schools and the finding displayed that there was a positive relationship between teacher empowerment and job satisfaction.

Short and Rinehart (1992) examined teachers in a Reading Recovery program and found a positive correlation between teacher empowerment and job satisfaction. The reason was standardized management policies, therefore, teacher empowerment, job satisfaction and responsibility enhanced.

Wu (1995) examined the relationship among teacher empowerment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in Pennsylvania and the findings displayed that when teachers distinguish empowerment, both job satisfaction and consequently organizational commitment enhances.

Hatchett (1995) investigated teacher empowerment, transformational leadership and job satisfaction in Florida and result that empowerment, transformational leadership, and job satisfaction had a positive correlation.

Fritsch (1995) proclaimed assertively that faculty senates and policy practices in Virginia schools had a positive perception of empowerment in teachers caused to increase job satisfaction. Likewise, Lanney (1998) studied high school teachers' empowerment and job satisfaction, finding a positive correlation between teacher perception of empowerment and job satisfaction.

Kleckler (1996a) studied 180 venture schools in Ohio also finding a positive correlation between empowerment and job satisfaction.

Empowerment and job satisfaction represent that these two factors could have a positive relationship. While there has been limited unification of the teacher empowerment into other areas like job satisfaction in Iran so this research used studies of job satisfaction and teacher empowerment which indicates a need for further study.

Statement of Problem

In Iran, the traditional educational system has many restrictions on the teachers. Teachers cannot change any of textbook. As a result, teachers do not have any control of the syllabus, and are cannot participate in decision-making at school. So teachers don't feel they are empowerment and are not satisfied in their jobs. Therefore, how to empower teachers and improve their job satisfaction is an important issue in Iran. In Iran, the educational system is the assessment of students and their performance which orders what academic opportunities are available to them in school. Consequently, evaluation of teachers is assessed by variables like how their students perform, and not by other variables in the classroom. Because of this reason, teachers have not been empowered to participate in policy-making activities outside of their classrooms. Short (1992) expressed that teacher empowerment contains teachers participating in policy and decision-making, acquiring new professional skills, having approach to professional development, and performing changes. As an instructor and decision maker in the classroom, a teacher needs to enhance skills to learn and solve problems sequentially, develop educational programs and perform changes.

Significance of the Study

If empowering teachers increases their job satisfaction, therefore this increased job satisfaction enhances the quality of teaching and the general efficiency of schools. The traditional educational system in Iran has many restrictions for the teachers. Teachers cannot choose what kind of textbook to use even though this action is neither more helpful for students, nor can they participate in school decision-making and planning. Traditional educational concepts contain focusing on teaching and not being involved in any decision-making activities have been an obstacle to change. In order to enhance the system, it is vital to determine how job empowerment can promote change and increase job satisfaction for teachers. The results of this study can encourage comprehending to recognize relationships, strengths and weaknesses, and appropriate interference, improve the quality of teaching and increase school efficiency.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Q1: Is there is a relationship between total teacher and total teacher job satisfaction?

Q2: Is there is a significant difference in total teacher empowerment based on different demographic characteristics of teachers (age, educational background and gender)?

Q3: Is there is a significant difference in total teacher job satisfaction based on different demographic characteristics of the teacher (age, educational background and gender)?

Research Hypotheses

H1: There is no relationship between total teacher and total teacher job satisfaction.

H2: There is no significant difference in total teacher empowerment based on different demographic characteristics of teachers (age, educational background and gender).

H3: There is no significant difference in total teacher job satisfaction based on different demographic characteristics of the teacher (age, educational background and gender).

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The correlational research method used in this study is related to evaluating the relationships between two or more variables. The study was used to assess randomly selected teachers of Mazandaran University, Babolsar Branch, employing quantitative data collection techniques.

Instrumentation

Demographic survey. This survey included gender, age, school size, and educational background.

School participant empowerment scale. Short and Rinehart (1992) designed the SPES instrument in 1992. It consists of 38 items addressing six dimensions: Decision-making, professional growth, status, self-efficacy, autonomy, and impact. Developed to measure school participant (teacher) empowerment, the design measures several items such as trust, communication, and structures for involvement, risk taking, and critical incidents. In addition, topics such as

opportunities for decision-making, control over daily schedule, opportunities for growth and development can also be empowering aspects of a teacher's job.

Teacher job satisfaction questionnaire. Lester (1987) designed the TJSQ to investigate teachers' job satisfaction. This instrument has 66 items divided into nine factors including supervision, colleagues, working conditions, pay, responsibility, work itself, advancement, security, and recognition.

Reliability of the Questionnaires

In order to test the reliability of the questionnaires, the K-R21 formula was carried out. Their reliabilities turned out to be .75 and .68, respectively.

Data Analysis

For the investigating the hypotheses, a t-test was used to test the mean difference between two variables, teacher empowerment and job satisfaction and total teacher empowerment and total teacher job satisfaction on teachers' educational based on background, gender, and age.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Testing Null Hypothesis 1. The primary null hypothesis was tested by using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. According to Gau (2001), if the correlation coefficient between two variables was below 0.500, there is a correlation between two variables. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient of Teacher Empowerment and Job Satisfaction

TE Dimension/ TJ Factors	Decision -making	Professional growth	Status	Self- efficacy	Autonomy	Impact	TE
Supervision	.484	.307	.213	.280	.195	.405	.418
Colleagues	.346	.157	.150	.205	.189	.267	.291
Working Condition	.280	.157	.195	.236	.235	.280	.293
Pay	.387	.381	.338	.386	.293	.267	.447
Responsibility	.341	.431	.526	.578	.453	.422	.544
Work itself	.396	.347	.317	.422	.323	.409	.460
Advancement	.386	.274	.185	.305	.123	.338	.352
Security	.190	.080	.016	.117	.054	.158	.142
Recognition	.092	-.117	-.212	-.040	-.098	.021	.499
TJ Total	.502	.355	.314	.429	.320	.465	.508

Note: TE= Teacher empowerment and TJ= Teacher job satisfaction

The results between the total teacher empowerment and total teacher job satisfaction displayed the correlation coefficient at $r = .508$, that is, there is a positive correlation between teacher empowerment and teacher job satisfaction. But the table 1 also represents that the teacher job satisfaction factor of security and the teacher empowerment dimensions of professional growth ($r = .080$), status ($r = .16$), and autonomy ($r = .054$) have no correlation with each other. Even, there are no correlation between teacher job satisfaction of recognition, the teacher empowerment dimensions of decision-making ($r = .092$), self-efficacy ($r = -0.40$) and impact ($r = .021$). Therefore, the primary hypothesis was rejected.

Testing of null hypothesis two. Hypothesis two displays that there is no significant difference in total teacher empowerment based on different teachers' demographic characteristics (age, educational background and gender). Table 2 indicates that the p value for total teacher empowerment is being .00 (-.769). It is below the significance level of .05, so total teacher empowerment is significantly different based on the demographic variable of educational background. Based on the higher mean, teachers who have Master degrees perceive higher empowerment than teachers who only have Bachelor degrees.

Table 2: *t*-test (Total Teacher Empowerment based on Teacher's Educational Background)

Teacher Empowerment	Background	N	M	SD	Sig	T
Bachelor		317	3.4156	.47		
Total					.00	-.769
Master		93	3.4624	.67		

As shown in Table 3, the p value for total teacher empowerment being .01 ($t = .408$). Since it is below the significance level of .05, the total teacher empowerment is significantly different based on gender.

Table 3: *t*-test (Total Teacher Empowerment based on Teacher's Gender)

Teacher Empowerment	Gender	N	M	SD	Sig	T
	Male	180	3.47	.56		
Total					.01	.408
	Female	230	3.38	.47		

As Table 4 indicates, the total teacher empowerment is .287 and greater than the significance level of .05 ($F = 1.261$) resulting in no significant difference between total teacher empowerment based on teacher's age.

Table 4: ANOVA (Total Teacher Empowerment based on Teacher's Age)

Teacher Empowerment	Age	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Between group		1.005	3			
Total						.335
Within group		107.791	406		1.261	.287
.265						
Total		108.795	409			

According to Table 5, there is no significant difference in total teacher job satisfaction based on different demographic characteristics of teachers.

Testing the null hypothesis three. Table 5 indicates all nine factors of teacher job satisfaction having p values greater than the significance level of .05, therefore, there is no significant difference of teacher job satisfaction based on the demographic variable of teacher's educational background.

Table 5: *T*-test (Total Teacher Job Satisfaction Based on Teachers Educational Background)

Factor	Background	N	M	SD	Sig.	T
	Bachelor	317	2.89	.36		
Job					.325	1.247
Satisfaction	Master	93	2.94	.30		

Table 6 displays all of the nine teacher job satisfaction factors having p values greater than the significance level of .05 which represent there is no significant difference based on the demographic variable of gender.

Table 6: *t*-test (Total teacher job satisfaction based on Gender)

Factors	Gender	N	M	SD	Sig.	T
Job Satisfaction	Male	180	2.97	.37		
					.385	3.553
	Female	230	2.85	.33		

Based on the significance level ($p < .05$), only two factors (Advancement and Recognition) are significant for job satisfaction based on age as shown in Table 7.

Table 7: ANOVA (Total Teacher's Job Satisfaction Based on Age)

Factor	Age	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig.
Job	Between group	.490	3	.163		
Satisfaction	Within group	51.091	406	.126	1.299	.247
	Total	51.581	406			

Discussion

Teacher empowerment. Due to the comparison to other researchers, Pan (2001) investigated teacher empowerment and job satisfaction of instructors in public elementary schools in Taiwan and result that the average score of all factors of teacher empowerment was 3.57. Pan took into account the ratings of self-efficiency, professional growth, status, autonomy, impact and decision-making. In job satisfaction section, the average overall score of all scales was 3.55 using dimensional ratings of coworker relations, mental reward, the work itself, salary, promotion, and administrative leadership.

Klecker and Loadman (1996a) investigated 10,544 teachers in 307 Venture Capital schools, again in the United States and this time in the state of Ohio, finding the total mean of teacher empowerment scoring as 3.82. The highest individual dimension was professional growth at 4.19, followed by self-efficacy, status, impact, and decision-making, and autonomy the lowest at 3.08.

Teacher job satisfaction. Total teacher job satisfaction was at an intermediate level of 3.01 with responsibility (3.42) as the leading factor, followed by work itself (3.16), colleagues (3.00) working condition (2.97), advancement (2.96), supervision (2.90), security (2.75), pay (2.65) and recognition (2.53) being the last. Only three factors (responsibility, work itself, colleagues) were in an intermediate level with the remaining factors were in a low level. Hsu (2002) displayed resource room program teachers at junior high schools which are accompanied with his work. Chen (2004) examined job satisfaction for junior high school teachers focusing on learning as an integrated activity in Taipei, and represented that teachers were satisfied with their work as well. Overall, the previous studies and this study displayed that teachers in Mazandaran University were satisfied at their job.

Correlation between teacher empowerment and job satisfaction. This study has showed a significant correlation between total teacher empowerment in all six dimensions, and between total teacher jobs satisfactions in all but two of the nine different factors are not correlated. Pan (2001) in Taiwan found significant correlation, the same as those found by Klecker and Loadman (1998c), Lanney (1998), Short and Rinehart (1992), and Wu (1995) pointed out the significant correlation between empowerment and job satisfaction along with organizational commitment in Pennsylvania teachers, in addition, Hatchett (1995) in south Florida added transformational leadership to these variables. This significant relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction of teachers is not limited to this study or to a specific region of the world.

Davis (1994) resulted that teacher's job satisfaction based on total teacher empowerment was not statistically significant.

Planner-Hardy (1983) found there were no statistically significant relationships between the degree of involvement in district-wide decisions and job satisfaction for elementary teachers.

Furthermore, Ludolph (1985) did not find any significant relationships between satisfaction and the degree of decision-making for teachers. Conversely, a number of studies found a positive relationship between teacher empowerment and teacher job satisfaction (Miskel, Fevurly & Stewart, 1979; Enderle, 1997; Rinehart and Short, 1993; Davis, 1994; Klecker, 1996).

CONCLUSION

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of this study:

1. A Pearson correlation was conducted to determine the relationship between the variables empowerment and job satisfaction. Empowerment and job satisfaction displayed a statistically significant positive relationship. The practical significance of this finding was large. This finding is consistent with other studies which also found positive correlations between the constructs of teacher empowerment and job satisfaction: $r = .70, p < .001$ (Klecker & Loadman, 1996b); and $r = .65, p < .01$ (Kim, 2002).

2. There was not a statistically significant difference between gender and teacher empowerment but there was a significant difference between gender and job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with prior research with career and technical educators on job satisfaction and the variables of gender and years of teaching experience. Although some of these characteristics yielded statistically significant differences, they were not large enough to be of practical significance (Collins, 1998; Johnson, 2004; Stiles, 1993; Warr, 1991). Conversely, job satisfaction has been found to be influenced by gender (Brush et al., 1987; Chapman & Lowther, 1982; Dinham, 1994; Reyes & Madsen) and increase with years of experience (Connley & Levinson, 1993, Dinham; Parasuraman, 1982). Although used extensively in prior research, demographic variables may not be as effective in predicting job satisfaction as teacher empowerment (Billingsley & Cross, 1992).

3. There was not a statistically significant difference between age and teacher empowerment. These findings were consistent with the research of Gonzales and Short (1996) which found no relationship between perceptions of empowerment and age.

Implications for further research

Additional research is required to determine the relationship between teacher empowerment and the job satisfaction of the teachers. The future researches contain:

- Replication of this study with samples including schools and English institutes
- Further research to investigate factors, other than teacher empowerment dimensions that may be influential teachers' job satisfaction.
- Additional research to determine the relationship between years experience and job satisfaction.

Theoretical implications

The findings from this research with English teachers were consistent with the findings from other studies with regular academic teachers which have also found positive correlations between these constructs (Klecker & Loadman, 1996b; Kim, 2002; Wu & Short, 1996). Therefore, we can conclude that the relationship between empowerment on job satisfaction is likely the same for all content area teachers. Conversely, the more empowerment decreases, the more job satisfaction also decreases. For this study, empowerment served as an internal index which the work environment satisfied the teacher's requirements and thus were indicators of satisfaction which is presented by the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis et al., 1968) and Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959). These theories assumed that individuals are motivated more by intrinsic factors of their work. The findings of this study display that empowerment may be an important factor that aids to overall job satisfaction. In addition, this study indicates better understanding of how these two issues are related.

According to Johnson (2004) and Warr (1991), the educational literature has represented a consistent relationship between teacher retention and job satisfaction. Dawis et al. (1968) expressed that the greater the balance between the individual and his/her work environment, the greater the chance of tenure. Therefore, teacher retention ultimately may be increased. The finding of a significant relationship between the constructs of job satisfaction and empowerment in this study provided support for the suggestion that administrators and school personnel create a work environment which emphasizes teacher empowerment.

Furthermore, Shen (1997) indicated work environment can be influential for teachers to control the school and teaching policies leads to greater levels of job satisfaction and empowerment and ultimately, increased teacher retention.

Quaglia, et al. (1991) also displayed that school administrators are sensitive to the importance of empowerment to teacher satisfaction levels and provide opportunities for teacher participation within the school. Training should be given to administrators on the types of leadership so that this professional process will continue to express high levels of empowerment and job satisfaction and ultimately have increased teacher retention. School administrators should concentrate on creating an empowering work environment for teachers by increasing participation in decision

making, providing opportunities for professional growth, fostering professional respect between colleagues, promoting self-efficacy, allowing for teacher autonomy, and welcoming teacher input on school-related issues.

Recommendations

According to these results in Mazandaran University in Iran, the following recommendations are made for instructors and future researchers.

For instructors. The recommendation for instructors is to differentiate between your responsibilities and what empowerment you have. One responsibility for instructors is to participate in the school's decision-making process. In so doing, they will empower themselves and their profession, teach more effectively, and reform their education more successfully. The combination of developing and enhancing both professional teacher knowledge and their competency, will either promote teacher skills or the school's performance, and can improve student learning, which leads to a better performance.

For future researchers. The recommendation for future researchers is to perform research in different levels of instruction (other than university) and in different areas.

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IMPROVING DESCRIPTIVE WRITING SKILLS
USING BLOG-BASED PEER FEEDBACK

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ABSTRACT

Aim of this study was to investigate the effects of blog based pair correction on students' descriptive writing. To this end, thirty intermediate English language students (including 10 boys and 20 girls) were selected and divided into two groups, experimental and control, based on the results of their pretest. Students in both groups were asked to write six descriptive essays and post it on their blog. The procedure used in the study ran parallel for both groups except that students in experimental group were required to have peer correction on blog based on a scoring rubric. Analysis of covariance revealed that peer correction on the blog had positive impact on the grammar and word choice of students' descriptive writing. It was also found that students had a positive attitude toward writing on blog and peer correction. Based on the results, teachers can implement the blog based peer correction technique to motivate students and enhance their descriptive writing skills and to provide an interactive environment to facilitate feedback.

KEYWORDS: Blog, Peer correction, Descriptive writing

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, language skills are categorized into the receptive skills of reading and listening and the productive skills of speaking and writing. Although writing is an important skill which must be mastered in order to effectively transmit new ideas and concepts, majority of foreign language students are not able to use this skill effectively. Fear of being corrected by the teacher always leads to students' tendency to use avoidance strategies and many other problems. To overcome students' problem in writing, peer correction can be used as a useful technique where students learn from their mistakes and provide collaborative learning and feedback to their classmates' work (Ellis, 2002). One way to carry out peer correction is a blog which can be used as a technological tool to improve descriptive writing skills.

A blog, short for weblog which was coined by Barger (1997) is a type of Web site in which items such as texts, images, media objects and data are posted on a regular basis and displayed in reverse chronological order (Taylor et al, 2007). The activity of authoring, keeping a blog or updating an existing blog is called "blogging". Someone who keeps and posts these entries is called a "blogger" (Camilleri, et al, 2007).

Blog and blogging and its impact on students' writing performance has been the subject of several studies and most of them confirmed that blogging improves students' writing skill (Campbell, 2003; Pinkman, 2005; Fellner & Apple, 2006; Hajiannejad, 2011; Cequena & Salle, 2013). In an attempt to write literature review of using blog in ESL/EFL writing, the first research was found in the work of Wu (2004). To discuss the advantages of blog in an EFL writing class, researcher gave a preliminary report about students' reactions to the use of blog in two English classes. Most of students found blog as a useful tool to improve and upgrade their writing ability.

In another study regarding the use of blog in language education, Murray et al (2007) emphasized that most students perceived blogging as a reflexive tool on language learning in their study. In addition, they realized that blog can be as a means of self-expression for the students who are engaged with academic writing.

Pedagogical Advantages of Blogs

The popularity of this practical asynchronous computer-mediated tool, blog, has soared as a form of online diary writing among computer users (Barrios, 2003). Blog as a collaboration tool can be used to upgrade students' writing skills and also it can be considered as powerful tool in education. According to Stanley (2005), there are numerous pedagogical advantages for using blogs in education.

One of the most significant pedagogical advantages of blog is that it can provide a real audience for student writing. In blog based writing classes, apart from the teacher, there are other audiences, students' peers, their parent or other classes' students and anyone who accesses to the internet. Second advantage of blog is that it can provide extra reading practice for learners.

Further Godwin-Jones (2006) believed that blog provides a fertile ground for collaborative learning which encourages feedback. In this environment which is more student-centered, they can have debate and articulation of the ideas as well as critical analysis of each other's writing which is generally called pair feedback.

Pair feedback can be defined as the reflective criticism of the work or performance of other students by the use of previously identified criteria to provide feedback to them. This action could be done either by the use of a 'one-off' activity or a series of meetings during which students supply feedback to peers on increasingly polished versions of a piece of written work. (Falchikov, 2002)

Statement of the Problem

Despite a great deal of efforts and researches that have been done to improve students' writing, there are still so many different problems in this area. Most of classes are held in the traditional ways. Technology has not gained its fundamental role in L2 writing. EFL learners find essay writing a difficult task because they need to cope with structural ambiguities and lexical complexities leading to avoidance strategies and writing blocks. In addition, they are not motivated enough to write.

In spite of great significance of the descriptive genre, to have a sort of domain that can appear in other sort of genres (McCarthy, 1998), learners have difficulty to write a descriptive text. They are only provided by some explanations about the generic structure and the method of writing descriptive text by their teachers. They are unable to describe things in lively detail and they are almost always unmotivated and bored with writing (Hami, 2011).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The study is guided by the following research questions and hypotheses.

1. To what extent does the use of blog based peer correction improve student' descriptive writing? How?
2. To what extent can the blog and blog based peer correction techniques improve students' motivation and attitude toward writing?

Also based on the nature of questions of the study, there are four different kinds of hypotheses. The first null hypothesis is that the test scores of the control group are equal to the scores of experimental group. The second null hypothesis is that the test scores of the females are equal to the scores of males. On the other hand, in compare to the null hypotheses existed in this part, there are two other hypotheses. The first one is that the mean scores of the experimental group are higher than the mean scores of control group. The last hypothesis is that the test scores of the females are not equal to the scores of male.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In this study, thirty Iranian English language students (including 10 boys and 20 girls) were selected among the students of Jihad-Daneshgahi Institute of higher education at Qom (a provincial city located nearly in the center of Iran). They all were relatively at the same age group, ranging from 18 to 28 years old, with the same cultural background. Moreover, the proficiency of the students was measured by the pretest revealing that all the students were at the intermediate level. It is also worth to mention that all students were informed that participation in the study is on voluntary basis. The class had an English composition class once a week lasting for 60 minutes.

Instruments and Materials

Two types of instruments and one material were used in the study. Firstly, to have students write about descriptive essay, six descriptive topics out of twenty topics were chosen based on the students' interest.

All students were given a prompt to analyze their peers' writing. By the use of that prompt, they could have peer feedback and peer correction. The prompt has one to five score to measure students' descriptive writing skills. The criteria involved in that prompt include introduction (organization), grammar and spelling (conventions), adding personality (voice), word choice and conclusion (organization). Additionally, a popular and easy-to-use free blog, Blogfa, was used in which student could post their entry.

Lastly, In order to elicit and measure the students' attitudes toward blog, the researcher adopted a Likert-scale questionnaire.

The questionnaire presented in this study consisted of three major parts. The first part of the questionnaire presented some information about its purpose and elicited background knowledge on the participants' gender and educational level as well as access to the blog. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of thirty four items to gauge the learners' attitudes toward blog. The last part of it involved six open ended questions to figure out students' opinions about the merits and demerits of blogs in learning English, and the difficulties and benefits students encountered in using a blog. Questions presented in the last part of the questionnaire are listed below. It is also worth to mention that quantification of the questions in the questionnaire was done by a Linker-scale of 1 to 5 (1 = Disagree, 2 = strongly disagree, 3=undecided, 4= agree, strongly agree). For the reliability of the questionnaire, a pilot study was carried out. Result of Cronbach Alpha ($\alpha=0.78$) revealed a reasonable reliability for the questionnaire.

Procedure

At the beginning phase of the study, in an attempt to have homogeneous class in term of English proficiency, students were given a pretest. Two independent evaluators evaluated students' descriptive writing task based on a standard descriptive writing rubric. As a result of pretest, students were randomly divided in two groups, A and B which can be defined as A: control group and B: experimental group. Both groups were required to put their entry, descriptive writing task, into their blog. The only subtle difference between these two groups was that students in group one, they all write their descriptive essay and put it in their blog with voluntary peer correction. On the other hand, students in another group did all procedures that were mentioned as well as required peer correction.

To begin both classes, the same English teacher was used for both classes. It is worth to mention that, both classes lasted for twelve sessions from October 16 to November 28. The class had an English composition session twice a week lasting approximately for 60 minutes. During these six weeks students were required to write six descriptive essays. To avoid technical problems related to making a new account, the first session of the class was held in IT branch of Jihad institute which is equipped by the computers and internet. In this session, students in the both group were informed about the whole procedure used in the study. Furthermore a brief introduction to the blog, concept of blog, how to send comment and how to make a new account in Blogfa was explained by the instructor (researcher). Then to be one of the members of his blog and to create group blog, he asked students to register their necessary information in his blog which was created in advance.

Issues related to writing and writing assignments were discussed in the second session in the both classes. In this session students were taught about different genres particularly generic structure of descriptive essay as well as significant lexicogrammatical features of descriptive text such as using vivid nouns and adjectives, use of figurative language and simple present tense. Having finished the explanation about descriptive text, teacher asked students to write a descriptive essay about one of the given topics and post it on the weblog before the following session. The procedure in this session ran approximately parallel for both groups. The only difference was that students in experimental group were asked to send their comments in the blog based on the given rubric. The cycle was repeated until students wrote six descriptive writing essays during six weeks. Afterward, a post test was conducted for both groups. In order to minimize the stress of the students for the test they were asked to write one more composition but they were not told it is their posttest and it was regarded as the post test of the study. Similar to students' pretest, two independent raters scored their last writing tasks. The scores of each student's assignment as well as total scores of each group were saved. Lastly, during last session of the class, students were given a set of

questionnaire to answer. The questionnaire was used to investigate how blogs activities might help students to develop their language skills and writing skills.

RESULTS AND DISCUSION

Results for Blog-Based Peer Correction on Students' Descriptive Writing

In an effort to answer the first question of the study, how the use of blog-based peer correction techniques can help students improve their descriptive essay writing, writing performances of two groups, control and experimental, were compared. To obtain the result, two independent raters marked the pre and posttest of both control and experimental group. Then mean scores of them were gathered and by the use of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) they were compared. The result of analysis showed that using blog based peer correction may have positive impact on the development of students' descriptive writing. Table 1 presents the measurement of the mean on the posttest and pretest for the different levels of descriptive writing (independent variable):

Table 1: Means for Group Variable (pretest-posttest)

	pretest		posttest	
	control	experimental	control	experimental
Introduction (Organization)	2.40	2.53	3.33	3.47
Grammar and Spelling (Conventions)	2.40	1.60	2.60	3.27
Adding personality (Voice)	3.00	3.13	3.07	3.20
Word Choice	3.00	2.67	3.20	3.33
Conclusion (Organization)	2.13	2.20	2.80	3.07
Total scores	12.93	12.53	14.93	16.27

As it is revealed in this table, measurement of the mean on the pretest for control group (total scores) was 12.93; measurement of the mean on the pretest for experimental group (total scores) was 12.53. Measurement of the mean on the posttest for control group (total scores) also was 14.93; measurement of the mean on the posttest for experimental group (total scores) was 12.27. Overall, the main mean difference between pretest and posttest for experimental group was observed on Grammar and Spelling (MD= 1.67). The second difference was observed on the mean of introduction (MD= 0.94). The third discrepancy was noticed on the mean of conclusion (MD= 0.87). The next to the last difference was observed on the mean of word choice (MD= 0.66). The insignificant difference was noticed on the mean of adding personality, voice, (MD= 0.13). Figure 1 (below) also shows the variations of the means on the pretest and posttest for different levels of descriptive writing (dependent variable) using a bar chart:

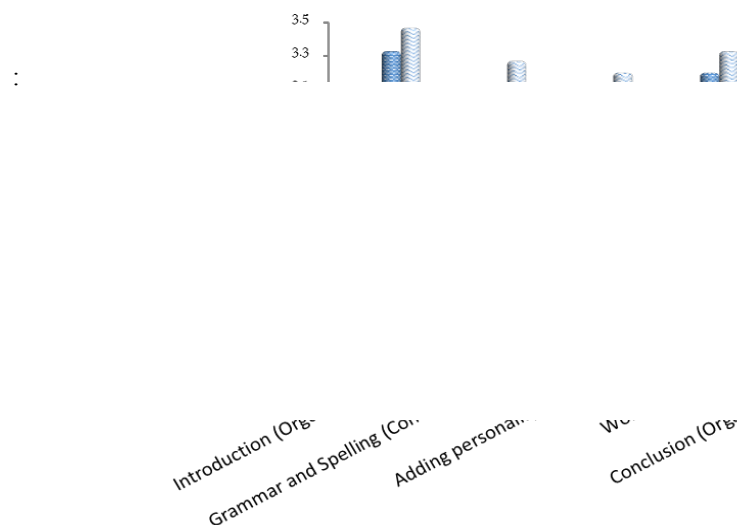


Table 2: Ancova analysis of control and experimental group differences

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	74.442 ^a	4	18.610	31.525	.000	.835
Intercept	14.893	1	14.893	25.229	.000	.502
Total score1	45.042	1	45.042	76.299	.000	.753
group	14.226	1	14.226	24.098	.000	.491
gender	.026	1	.026	.044	.835	.002
Error	14.758	25	.590			
Total	7390.000	30				
Corrected Total	89.200	29				

a. R Squared = .835 (Adjusted R Squared = .808)

components of descriptive writing

The main section of the results is presented in table 2, as shown below.

Table 2 reveals that the ANCOVA procedure was statistically performed. Based on the results ($F = 24.09$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < 0.05$), there was an overall statistically significant difference in blog based peer correction descriptive writing method (posttest) between the different intervention of (group variable) as their means had been adjusted for blog descriptive writing method (pretest). This is highlighted in the table above. Also an overall statistically significant difference between the different intervention of (gender variable) as their means had been adjusted blog based peer correction descriptive writing method (posttest) was not observed ($F = 0.44$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < 0.05$). This is also highlighted in the table above.

Furthermore, to be more specific for the result of the study, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed on the mean scores of grammar and spelling of control and experimental group and following result was observed.

According to the result ($F = 50.497$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < .000$) there was an overall statistically significant difference in grammar and spelling of experimental group (posttest) between the different intervention of (group variable) as their means had been adjusted for grammar and spelling of control group (pretest). This is highlighted in the table above. Further an overall statistically significant difference between the different intervention of (gender variable) as their means had been adjusted for the grammar and spelling of experimental group (posttest) was not observed ($F = .231$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < 0.635$). This is also highlighted in the table above.

Moreover, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed on these mean scores of word choice of control and experimental group and following result was observed. According to the result ($F = 29.345$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < .000$), there was an overall statistically significant difference in word choice of experimental group (posttest) between the different intervention of (group variable) as their means had been adjusted for word choice of control group (pretest). This is highlighted in the table above. Further an overall statistically significant difference between the different intervention of (gender variable) as their means had been adjusted for the word choice of experimental group (posttest) was not observed ($F = .363$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < 0.552$). This is also highlighted in the table above.

Additionally, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed on mean scores of adding personality and conclusion of control and experimental group but there were not an overall statistically significant differences in their mean scores.

Figure 2 (below) also show analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) on the mean scores of the pretest and posttest for different levels of descriptive writing (dependent variable) using a line chart:

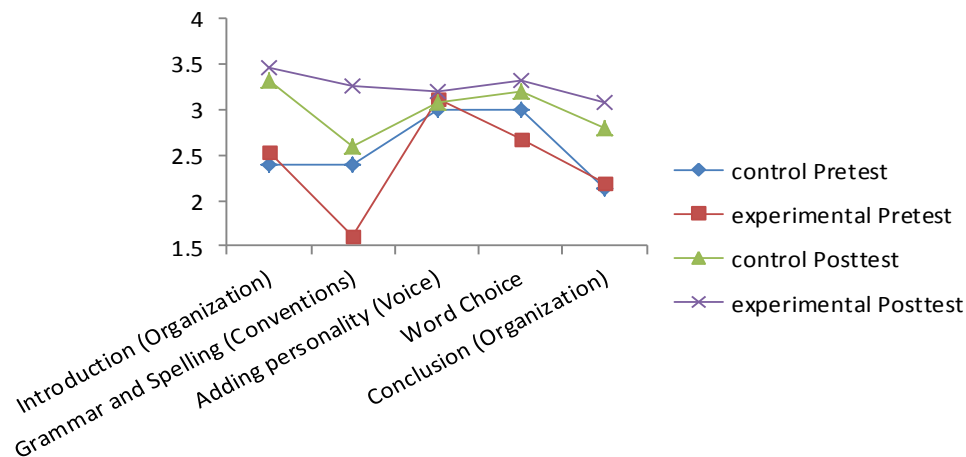


Figure 2: Plot for analysis of variance (pretests and posttests)

Result of Questionnaire on Students' Motivation and Attitudes

To probe the second and third questions of the study, qualitative and quantitative data were gathered based on the questionnaire which was administered at the end of the project. There were three main parts in the questionnaire. First part of it was started with three questions related to students' gender, educational degree and familiarity with blog. The second part of questionnaire consisted of thirty four multiple questions to gauge about students attitude toward blog and peer correction. The last part of it involved six open ended questions about blog and pair correction. Detailed analysis of different parts of the questionnaire including descriptive statistics of students' responses to the multiple choice questions in the survey were presented in the following sections.

Discussion

Discussion about findings of this study is divided into two parts. The first part of it is attributed to the result of pre and posttest of students in both groups. Further second part is regarded to the result of the questionnaire.

Analysis of findings regarding mean scores of students' pre and posttest in both groups, control and experimental, indicated that blog based peer correction improved student descriptive writing. Additionally, the result of ANCOVA ($F = 24.09$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < 0.05$), revealed that there was an overall statistically significant difference in blog based peer correction descriptive writing method (posttest) between the different intervention of (group variable) as their means had been adjusted for blog descriptive writing method (pretest). It can conclude that peer correction on the blog can improve quality of descriptive writing. Therefore, the first null hypothesis of the study in which the test scores of the control group are equal to the scores of experimental group, that is, the mean of the experimental group is equal to the mean of the control group, was rejected.

Based on the result of the ANCOVA ($F = 0.44$, $df = 1$, $\alpha < 0.05$), it was also found that there was not an overall statistically significant difference between the different intervention of (gender variable) as their means had been

adjusted blog based peer correction descriptive writing method (posttest). Thus the second null hypothesis of the study in which the test scores of the females are equal to the scores of male, that is, the mean of the female participants is equal to the mean of male participants was substantiated.

Moreover, more in-depth analysis of covariance on mean scores of different parts of descriptive writing revealed that peer correction improved grammar and spelling in addition to word choice of students' descriptive writing. In addition, it was found that there was not an overall statistically significant difference between the different interventions of (gender variable) as their means had been adjusted for grammar and spelling as well as word choice for experimental group (posttest), that is, there was not any significant difference between test scores of male and female participants.

Analysis of questionnaires, Likert scale and open ended, indicated that most of students in both groups were not familiar with blog in advance. Moreover, it was revealed that the overall attitude of the students towards the blog project and blog based peer correction was positive. Based on these results, it can be concluded that students' attitude toward learning writing skill through blog was positive. More in depth analysis of questionnaire revealed that blog based peer correction can enhance productivity as well as creativity of students. Thus they tend to use more structures and words in their writing task.

Moreover, comparing both group' responses to the Likert scale questionnaire, revealed that a simple blog form cannot be an effective incentive tool to motivate students to write different genres of writing. In EFL contexts like Iran in which blogs have not earned much reputation among language learners, they may become frustrated or unmotivated to operate their own blog. To make them more motivated to use their own blog despite their deficiency, lack of computer literacy, peer correction can be used as an effective technique.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, it was concluded that blog based peer correction was a useful technique to help students improve their descriptive writing skills, more specifically grammar and spelling and word choice of it. In addition, blog along with peer correction can be used to motivate students to write descriptive writing. Further it could be utilized to help students have a positive attitude toward writing.

Limitations of the Study

The study encountered with some limitations. Firstly, this study was limited by its sample size. The sample size could have been expanded by including more students in each group. Further some students were not exposed to blogging until they registered for this course. These students did not participate as actively as did the group members who were familiar with blogs. Another limitation of the study was word processing program existed in the computer and blog which checked automatically students' writing for spelling and some minor grammatical problems.

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**A STUDY OF SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FACTORS WHICH AFFECT ENGLISH PROFICIENCY OF
SECONDARY STUDENTS**

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ABSTRACT

This survey is accomplished by measurement method that is done by purpose of effective social and cultural factors on educational progress of secondary students in Andimeshk city, Iran. General number of statistical society was equal to 3200 students out of which 280 students were selected as sample volume according to Cochran formula. Sampling method in this research was simple accidental. With due attention that Social interaction acquire all of human science, the most appropriate theory for this research is parsons systematical theory. In this survey, the relation of 8 variables is estimated with educational progress. Obtained results from description statistics in this research show that there is a meaningful relation between 1-sex 2-social 3-family perspective (members of family) 5- study 6-self-respect 7-course like and educational progress of students. According to the acquired results ,it can be said that: Study hours, sex, parents social class and self-respect degree in order have more share than other variables in prediction of educational progress of secondary school.

KEYWORDS: educational progress, students, self-respect, social class, gender

INTRODUCTION

Human gained valuable experiences in connection to his environment and fought against obstacles of nature by his power of thought and vast these experiences to transmit to next generations. Education and chain loops connecting the different ages of human experience. The right to education is one of the largest and most complex social systems, an organization that always constructive role in the survival and continuity of culture and civilization, and today the cornerstone for the development of cultural, political , social and economic society.

It is education that can make a real man and flourish his talents. Sociological definition of education is to develop the next generation of adult education for tomorrow (Alaghemand, 2002, 165). Education is a field for being human, as Kant says; one can be human only by education. (Kant, 1984, 4)

Undoubtedly, true education shapes the future, and that is such effective that number of the classes indicates development (UNESCO Advisory Group, 2002, 22). The essential task of education in each country is the transmission of cultural heritage, developing the talents of students, and to prepare them for active participation in society. Therefore, the purpose of education to occupy the different issues is an educational necessity, and the issue of success or failure in education is the most important concern of any educational system in all societies.

Success and academic achievement reflects successful educational system that is efficient and sustainable development of such a system would be the inevitable result. Because, basic education is the base of economic development, social, cultural and political in any country and its role in improving the lives of individuals and society is obvious to everyone, also the transition from traditional society to modern society requires efficient forces of both sexes.

Since the development of education is the infrastructure of political, cultural and social development, political and cultural indicates the influencing factors of the development of modern societies that all these countries had education qualifications. more attention to education and cultural development is the most important factor to social, economic, community, family and community development that, its effect has aimed the families and societies.

It is clear that our society needs research and studies about the education of youth groups, particularly in two fields of educational progress and educational drop out in order to testify influence of variety of factors such as social, cultural, economic and spiritual causes on them and rapid changes of society in other side, its seems essential to apply new research.

In recent years, due to rapid changes which occurred in Andimeshk and other cities of Iran social, cultural, economical fields, these changes affected youth groups. Most youth groups are studying and these changes will affect directly on the quality of their teaching. So studying and exploring the social and cultural factors affecting academic progress every year is inevitable.

The main goal of this research is to identify that, social and cultural factors influencing the academic achievement of high school students of Andimeshk. One of the most important factors that should take consideration of is attainments, sources and potential intelligences of man and economical in high scale every year and causes irrecoverable affects in individual and society is two factors of educational progress and educational drop out. Man lives in the community in every period of life. Collective life of people affect the thoughts and actions .Classroom, school, family and community that school is located in it, as a social institution rise certain circumstances. Children behavior in each of these organizations has affected by social factors in a particular way.

Culture of each society has certain characteristics. In each society, particular social philosophy, rule the protocol of resort, ideas and habits and desires of the people of the community. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the cultural aspects of each society (Shariatmadari, 2000, 11). This paper examines the social and cultural factors affecting student achievement considering problems and needs provide solutions provide new ideas. The researcher is seeking to answer the question of what is the effect of social and cultural factors on the academic achievement of high school students of Andimeshk.

Theoretical Foundations

The Hidden Curriculum

Hidden curriculum has also been proposed in Parsons' paper (2000) about the "class as a social system". But Parsons uses "the moral element of the curriculum" for students to learn about issues such as respect to the teacher, classmates and co-operation with regard to the rights of possession and good habits.

So-called hidden curriculum discussed by Jackson in the book of "living in the classroom" for the first time. To him, the term refers to the lessons that the student learns in the classroom, such as giving sedate and cease of personal wishes and desires (Robinson, 1981).

Most important dimension of the hidden curriculum is the power structure of the school. A structure that has taught supra and infra structural concepts to the child and prepare him or her for future career. Therefore, many believed to maintain the status quo, the school (the school and its activities) is far more important and powerful than the content of the overt curriculum.

In fact, the hidden curriculum results that teacher and school are not searching them systematically, or teacher and school are trying to provide them, but they don't confess them obviously in front of the students (Gordon, 1997). It seems the hidden curriculum includes many different aspects of school life. Sometimes we refer to the hidden curriculum by using other terms such as "the implicit and tacit unwritten curriculum".

Bloom believes that the hidden curriculum in many aspects is more effective than the curriculum. Course lessons of this program, will stay in the mind of the students for a long time because it is similar omnipresent training. Students in this program have experienced lessons and learn them well every day (Bloom, 1972).

Theory of Self-Esteem

Students who are ambiguous about their identity or have not self-confident, they are hesitant while trying to break down learning tasks and assignments. Teachers can help students to acquire the clear image and positive self-esteem and identity and make their work far easier to do. Each student has been supposed to acquire a positive identity of him or herself and gain a positive concept of him or herself which can hold its positive status during the time, and do not consider the changes in the life and environment (Ericson, 1968).

Self-esteem is formed mainly through association with others, including: working with others to achieve difficult goals, to be recognized and respected by others and being kind to others. Teacher make the students participate in collaborative project that involved the development of mentoring relationships can cause creating new situation as well as the student's self-esteem and identity and the self-esteem of student would be more positive (Johnson & Johnson, 1977). What is important from the standpoint of social learning approach is students' perception of the self-adequacy and his development from personality.

Achievement as the social reaction

According to the theoretical framework of this research that is Parsons' theory of social action, social action and its related theories first have been expressed, and then we express Parsons' theory of action. What distinguishes action from reflexive behavior is that the interaction between stimulus and response is thinking. At least analytically we can distinct two kinds of actions from each other: individual action and social interaction. While distinguishing the individual action from social action, we will encounter two different views which they have competed from the start point. One of them is Max Webber attitude which emphasize on mental and internal criteria and on the other side Dorkhim point of view which emphasizes more on external and objective criteria (Roche, 1997).

Theory of justified action

Various attempts have been proposed in order explain a theory that can describe different individual actions. The most well-known and important theory which has been declared in this field belongs to Aizen and Fish Bien. Their point of view is that we can predict the behavior more in situation in which we know the aim and goal of that specific behavior which has done by the person (Rafiepour, 1993, 148). They believe that behavior follows a chain of factors and the ring which is before behavior manifestation is "behavioral intention". Their model suggests that intentions are related to norms and trends which are reliable on behavior. Orientation is a personal or private variable in which a person evaluates the state of being good or bad of a behavior (or a phenomenon). Norm reflects the influence and social pressure that a person understands it in order to do something (behavior). In situation that attitudes and norms relating to behavior are both positive, intention to perform a given behavior will increase. But if the trends and norms are in conflict, their relative power can determine the next destination, and subsequent behavior. This relationship can be shown as follows (Alavi Tabar, 2000, 20)

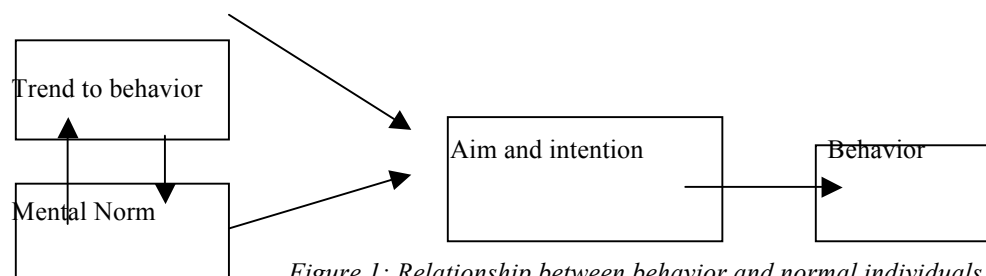


Figure 1: Relationship between behavior and normal individuals

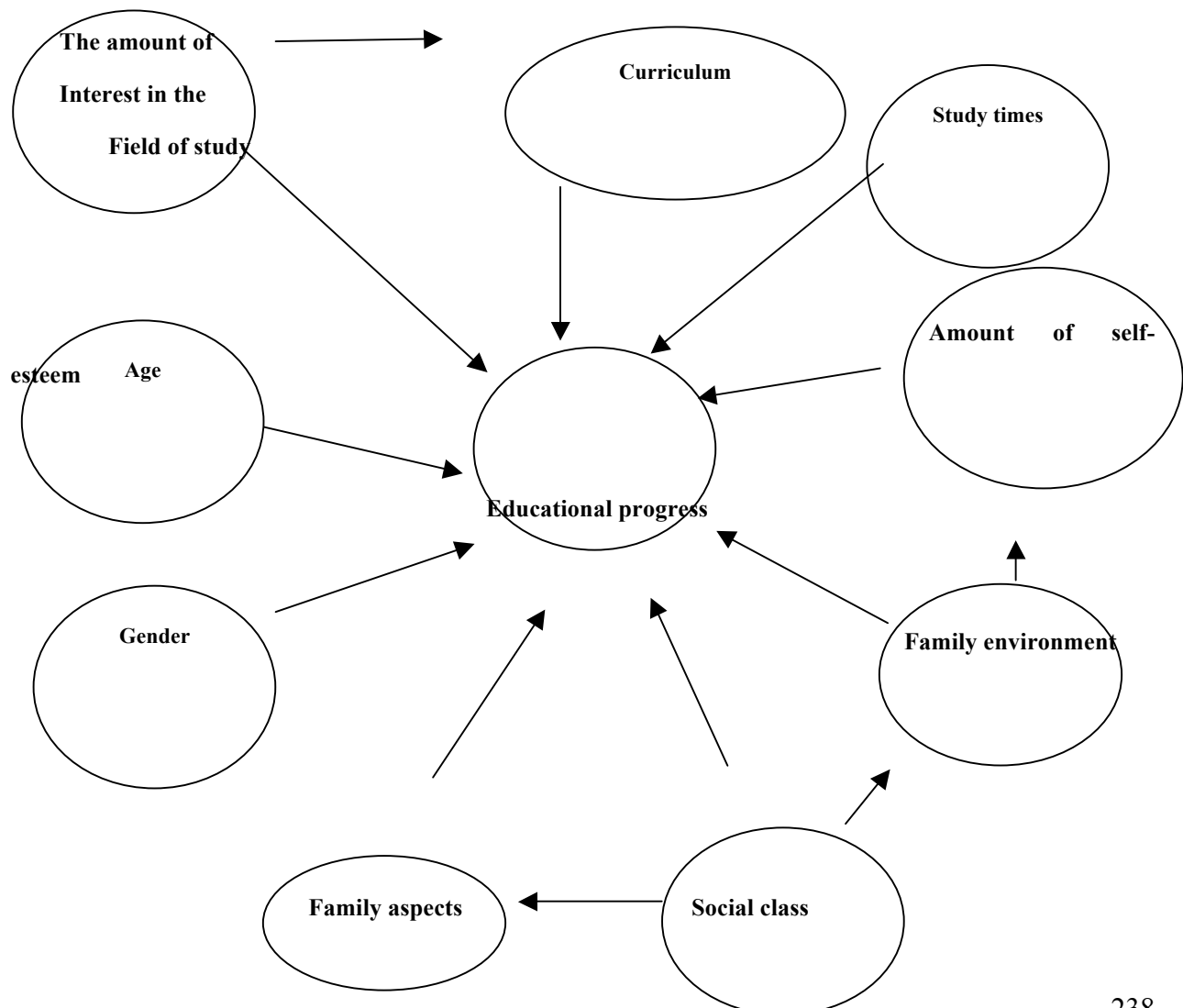
Voluntarism in Parsons Social Action Theory

The concept of Parsons Voluntarism is related to a single action concept. Voluntarism is about actors who choose to engage in social situations. Although voluntarism does not mean that the actors are completely free in their choice, but implies on the mind, consciousness and individual decision making clearly. Although the concept of Parsons voluntarism was criticized by many sociologists, but Parsons says that he does not mean free will by voluntarism, but he always believes that individual selection is limited by norms, values , ideas, situations, and so is limited (Reitz, 2004, 530).

Parsons' pattern variables

Pattern Variables are two different ways to measure the value of the role that the individual is expected to play in any social system. According to Parsons, pattern variables are the realities which have global and general aspects, thus, indicate the impact of structural features of any social system on individual behavior (Azkia 2003, 95). Emotional versus non-emotional, collective orientation versus individual orientation, specifically oriented versus universality oriented, acquisition versus establishment and inherent versus practicality. According to Parsons' pattern variables, we can say that teaching and education in rural communities that have been governed more by traditional, based on universality, collective orientation, acquisition and heritage, but in the urban population of societies which we can see the size of modern society, citizens in diverse roles and stubborn individualism according to specific orientation, and innate and acquired features have been evaluated. According to Parsons, education is conscious, creative procedure which has specific goals and occurs with a social system. In other words, he believes that with the formation of thematic structure and function, it is possible to make start happen such a phenomenon. Parsons considers the influential factors, culture (values and norms), their belief system, social needs and desires of the people.

The analytical model of achievements dimensions



RESEARCH QUESTION

This study attempted to address the following research question:

Do social and cultural factors have any effect on the academic achievement of high school students of Andimeshk, Iran?

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Participants

The present study is carried out by measurement style. Measurement survey focuses on the hypotheses and identification of relationships between variables. Data collection instruments and procedure was based on library research method with documentary and scope patterns. The primary population is 3,200, which is equal to the total final sample number of 280 students which were selected as the sample size based on the Cochran formula. In this study, sampling method was simple random. The English Language students in Islamic Azad University of Andimeshk in Iran have been considered as a target population. According to the statistics, about 3200 English Language students are studying in this unit. The number of samples required for this study based on Cochran's formula is 280 people. Sampling in this study is a multi-stage random sampling systematic method. The unit of analysis in this study is the individual itself so the analyses level is wisdom.

Instruments

To investigate the relationship between the variables that their evaluation level in nominal or ordinal, we have used relevant statistical tests such as when chi-square, t-test and Kendall test. In the cases which the study has distance and relative variables, the Pearson correlation coefficient method is used. To investigate the significant relationship between variables multiple regression analysis were used. After collecting data and final edition and rendering they have been analyzed by SPSS software version 17. In the current questionnaire of study, most of the items do not need any validity calculation and they don't have Alpha Cronbach test except three of them which have been evaluated by some options which are shown in the following table:

Number of options and Alpha Cronbach independent variables

Variables	Number of items	Reliability index (Alpha Cronbach)
Family environment	4	0/736
Curriculum	3	0/602
Self-Esteem	8	0/550

In general we can say that the questions and items of each of these variables have evaluation accuracy and good measurement power and the questionnaire has the power of evaluating variables. To investigate the relationship between these variables and the dependent variable Pearson correlation, multiple regression and path analysis are used. After data collection, the data should be edited and processed and then analyzed by SPSS software.

Procedure

The methodology is measurement based. In this method, the researcher on the basis of changes of each variable and the search for other characteristics that are linked with it regularly, seeking to identify the causes of social and economic phenomena, such as why the generation gap role of social and cultural factors between teachers and parent English Language students. Theoretical data obtained through documentary study and library and collection of data on sample population used field survey and measurement method. To determine the reliability and validity of formal validity of questionnaire we used and to determine the type of questions and items, Cronbach's alpha has been diagnosed as the most appropriate approach. The alpha reliability coefficient for the main variables is described below: Cronbach's alpha values of variables between the 55/0 to 75/0 to indicate that the internal solidarity and harmony between the variables related items is appropriate and acceptable. In other words, the reliability and trustworthiness is essential. Cronbach's alpha values of the dependent variable generation gap equal to 75/0, which is a relatively high level.

Multiple Variable Regression Result

The multiple correlation coefficients are equal to 0/551, which indicates a moderate relationship between student achievement and the independent variables. The amount of determinative coefficient index is equal to 0/303 and expresses the fact that 30/3 percent, or nearly one -third of the variation in academic achievement is related to the independent variables and 69/7 of the other factors that are relevant in this study have not been studied. In other words, only one-third of the variation in academic achievement is explained by the variables. Adjusted coefficient of determination is equal to 0/29 which its amount has modified by degrees of freedom. Standard error of the estimate is equal to 1/764, which shows the predictive power of the regression.

Summary of regression results

Multiple correlation coefficient	coefficient determination	adjusted coefficient	SD
0/551	0/303	0/290	1/764

Analysis of variance table for regression and significant linear relationship between the variables indicated that it supports a significant level. The numbers presented in the ANOVA table shows that the F value means the ratio of the mean variance of regression to the mean residual variance is equal to 23/41 and the degrees of freedom is 4 and a significant level of zero, we can say that probably more than 99 percent of confidence there is a significant difference between academic achievement and independent variables. This test indicates that the regression model with the independent variables and the dependent variable of the process are well explained by the model changes are real and not due to chance.

Analysis of variance

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean squares	F-statistics	significance level
Regression	291/552	4	72/888	23/41	0/000
The remaining	669/416	225	3/114	---	---
Total	960/968	219		---	---

But it is important which of the independent variables and the dependent variable should have a greater role in determining the amounts recognized Beta. According to the table, we can say that for the variables of the study (0/330 = beta) and sex (0/205 = beta) are more than the other variables. These numbers indicate that for every one-unit change in the size of the standard deviation for the 0/33 change the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Also, for every one-unit change in the student's gender as SD 0/205 in the dependent variable, the standard deviation of the student achievement will change. While a one standard deviation change in the other variables, the standard deviation of the dependent variable is less varied. The high beta value indicates the relative importance of its role in predicting the dependent variable. So here we can say that, for the variables of gender, parental social class and self-esteem, there is more variable predicting portion academic achievement in comparison to other variables.

Coefficient of the independent variables with independent variable of student achievement

Variables	Regression index	Standard error	Beta weight	T-test	significance level
Constant index	11/608	0/770	---	15/087	0/000
Study hours	0/606	0/123	0/330	4/938	0/000
Gender	0/860	0/287	0/205	2/994	0/003
Social Class	0/238	0/092	0/151	2/596	0/010
Self-esteem	0/085	0/036	0/139	2/369	0/019
Family environment function	-0/057	-0/976	0/330	0/67	0/938
Curriculum	-0/103	-1/557	0/121	-0/106	0/735
Interest in the field	-0/078	-1/300	0/195	-0/088	0/903
Number of household members	-0/028	-0/465	0/642	-0/032	0/888
Age	-0/112	-1/943	0/053	-0/132	0/957

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The multiple correlation coefficients were equal to 551%, which indicates a moderate relationship between student achievement and the independent variables. Determination coefficient reflects the fact that 30/3 percent or nearly one -third of the variation in student achievement is related independent variables. Almost 69/7% of the variation in academic achievement related to factors that were not examined in this study. Only one third of the variation in academic achievement is explained by the mentioned variables the amount of regression variables table shows that variables such as study hours, gender, social class and self-esteem are in a 95% of significance level. Fisher test shows that the regression models are in a good arrangement with set of independent and dependent variables. Explained variation was done by a real model and they are not originated from chance and accident. Variables of study hours and students gender have more rules in distinction of dependent variable (educational progress). Variables such as study hours, gender, parental social class and self-esteem have respectively more portion in prediction of students' achievement in contrast to other variables.

According to the findings of this study in contrast to the previous study assumption such as the gender effect, parental social class and self-esteem have verified to be effective in educational progress. But, other variables which are employed in this study such as interest to the field of the study curriculum have not been applied in other research. The hypothesis of the effect of independent variable of family environment on achievement has been rejected in the previous study. Reason of this issue is related to the study setting which is traditional and rural and still the family environment cannot prepare suitable field and condition for educational progress of their children.

According to the findings of this study, the following recommendations can be provided.

- 1- In case of an increase in family income or enhance socio -economic status or social class, the average level of academic achievement of students is increased and vice versa, if the authorities of the society want to improve the educational level of students they should increase income index and economical welfare level among the people. So that they can see the increase of the educational progress of students or their average level.
- 2- Having information about other countries and comparing the educational progress of one country with others (especially the developed and developing countries) and a comparison among other countries can be useful.
- 3- The higher the self-esteem of students', higher the academic progress is. So we should seek ways to increase self-esteem and confidence among our students. Raise the self-esteem of students in a different way. For example, for increasing self-esteem is essential for parents and coaches to pay attention to the individual differences, developmental characteristics, skills, abilities, emotions, thoughts and child's talents.
- 4- Time that can be devoted to education has a great role in student achievement. Generally, if children spend more time to study they can learn more content by keeping constant of other factors.
- 5- Parents should have regular programs for considering their children home works and should not be any difference between teacher view points and parents attitudes and education in school should be in an equal rate and step with home education and it should be done under control and supervision of teachers and parents because the lack of harmony between teachers and parents will make students hesitant.
- 6- It is recommended to parents pay attention to children strength more than their weakness.

Since respect for the personality of individuals and consider their strengths can be effective in increasing self-esteem, it is recommended to parents of children's strengths their weaknesses.

- 7- Less family members are the student achievement will be higher. So by observing and following family planning programs we can be beneficial in maintaining student achievement.

After completion of this research we can point to social, cultural and mental factors which are effective on the academic achievement of students:

Factors and independent variables such as peer groups, in-service courses for teachers, the textbooks, school environment and physical conditions of the school and tuition classes and types of pedagogical aids (organizations and school facilities), the impact of motivation, modern methods of teaching.

CONCLUSION

The first question concerned the impact of socio-cultural factors on minority students' school engagement. We showed that acculturation orientations stimulate educational progress, if they are matched with the prevailing context. In addition, a preference for both the ethnic and the majority culture in combination with high perceived acceptance was positively related to students' study strategies. Lastly, the personal goals of autonomy and conformity impact on motivated learning through individual and social achievement goals. In sum, socio-cultural factors impact on motivated learning.

The findings of the present research suggest that indeed a perception of exclusion may hamper school engagement. (Perceived) discrimination may therefore be a strong predictor of educational disadvantage in minority students. However, some studies have also shown that minority students tend to 'overachieve' because of expected discrimination (Johnson & Johnson, 1977). If a certain educational level is needed for a certain job, minorities may want to 'over invest' in educational levels, such that educational levels cannot be the reason of job denial.

This research shows that the impact of socio-cultural factors does not straightforwardly follow the common-sense idea that socio-cultural integration – in the sense of becoming more like the host population- leads to school success. In this line of thinking it is often thought that when minorities are closer to natives in terms of ethnic identification and cultural values and have more (and more positive) interethnic contacts with natives, they will score higher on measures such as school performance or labor-force participation. Our study showed, to the contrary, that one-sided adaptation of minorities to the host society does not offer the best chances for success in school. Rather, a combination of cultural adaptation and ethnic culture maintenance in public contexts, such as school, seems more promising.

The study on interethnic relations showed that a perception of exclusion may deepen the divide between natives and minorities in two ways. In the cultural sense, minorities withdraw more and more into rather closed minority communities. In a socioeconomic sense, they may no longer be motivated to succeed in a society that does not seem to accept them as full members, with the danger of forming an ethnic underclass.

Limitations of the study

The story of cultural and social factors on language acquisition is interestingly comparable to the story of the elephant which was supposed to be described by a group of people in a dark room. And they all came to different descriptions of the whole body because they just touched parts of the body. The same story still is the case for culture. As it is the case with almost all studies done in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, this study is not free of limitations. That is to say, because of the eluding nature of culture which is defined differently by different people one cannot claim to provide all inclusive criteria to list the problems with which EFL teachers wish to come to a conclusion in evaluating cultural knowledge and social factor as an approach in EFL contexts. Therefore, the authors of this paper have not intended to come to an absolute conclusion about the perceived problems with which EFL teachers might face in using cultural and social measurement in their real classes. ALL in all, it is hoped that this survey be of use for all colleagues. All defects of this paper are of ours. That is, no fault is to the participants in this study.

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ARTHUR MILLER'S *ALL MY SONS*: A DECONSTRUCTIVE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

All My Sons is one of Miller's most acknowledged and challenging plays. It shows the dual responsibility of man towards his family and society, where he gets stuck in a dilemma of undecidability. The characters of this play are drowned in the anthropocentric logos of the inherited mythos of their static culture, where going beyond this cultural hymen seems to be illegitimately illegitimised. The researcher wants to pore over the iterability of life fragments of the characters in different aporetic spaces, where the judgments towards them may be based on the poetic justice. This paper tries to analyze the mental texture of the characters from a deconstructive outlook, where a text and its characters are free from any imposed authoritarian logocentrism. The study reaches its concluding space by valuing the importance of the fragmentary assessment of the characters of the play within the different segments of time and place. It suggests that through a genealogical analysis, the formation and the different layers, which build any given concept, namely war, family or society and so on, may receive a fair assessment and judgment.

KEYWORDS: Derrida, deconstruction, iterability, aporetic space, artifactuality

INTRODUCTION

The study opens with the Literature Review followed by 'statement of the problem'. Then, the related research questions are presented. The importance of this study and its objectives are explained in the 'significance and purpose of the study'.

Arthur Miller's *All My Sons* has been one of the highly investigatory targets of the 20th and 21st world researchers. The researcher has tried to unfold the different layers of this play from various possible platforms. As numerous researchers have dealt with this play, the researcher has just selected a few of them to highlight the interests of the world critics in this play:

Sharma (2013) has written on the importance that Miller gives to the Middle class protagonist. He believes that the weight of the tragic atmosphere may be equal to the Elizabethan tragedy. Heritage (2011) has had a Bakhtinian look at Miller's *All my Sons*, focusing the notion of authorship and the philosophy of the act. Nees (2012) has analyzed the direction of *Miller's All my Sons*. She has tried to experience the application of her own direction to the play. Miller's *All My Sons* belongs to all the countries and all the nations because of its universal theme. The theme 'war' has become an integral part of the world nations, and Miller has beautifully scrutinized the internal and external repercussions of the different facets of war. Miller has revealed the hidden and marginalized aspects of war and its inevitable role in families. He has shown the contradictory approaches that the different people may have.

The researcher has tried to highlight the marginalized but crucially important elements, which are the bitter ingredients of war. Indeed, the novelty of this study is the analysis of the issue of war and family issues within deconstructive bedrock. The researcher has selected deconstruction as a neutral platform to give a new picture of the real nature of war. Indeed, the focal point of this study is to challenge the different logocentric notions, which have always been preventive stumbling blocks. By exposing the authoritative logocentric notions, the study may challenge all the inherited, normalized and internalized logos of life.

Statement of the Problem

Miller's *All My Sons* is one of the mind probing plays, which needs a deep and sensitive attention. It is a play that deals with two delicate issues, namely Family and Society. And above all, it examines man's sense of responsibility during the susceptible moments of War. The main concerns of the most world critics have been the patriotic elements of this play. They have tried to draw the attention of the people towards the weak mesianism, which may

be the imposed logo of the previous generations, and unfortunately the same seems to be practiced by the current generations as well.

Deconstruction does not try to condemn the previous generations but simply suggests a genealogical study of any important issue. Hence, through a deconstructive outlook, the frozen and fixed logos of life may receive a new and unbiased perception. As McQuillan (2007, p.2) avers "For deconstruction the future is not what it used to be."

Deconstruction tries to make one think on the life concerns that are hardly thought over. It makes an attempt at unfolding the suppressed nature of the marginalized issues or people of different social strata. This sort of thinking may come into existence when one stops being the slave of the imposed thoughts by the philosophers, critical thinkers or different religio-political authorities. Badiou (1999, 15) avows:

Thinking can only begin under the violent impulsion of a case-of-thought; that it start off from a principle is excluded. And each beginning, being a singular impulsion, presents also a singular case. But what begins in this way is destined to repetition.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Since deconstruction is a highly debated critical approach, the following questions are dealt with in this study:

- 1- How may the issues of Family, society and war in *All My Sons* be analyzed through a deconstructive angle?
- 2- What deconstructive elements are used to show the deterrent and fossilized authority of the metaphysics of presence?
- 3- How may findings of this study be used in real life situations?

SIGNIFICANCE AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

20th and 21st centuries have witnessed numerous melancholic and heart lacerating events. These two centuries have been and the latter one is still the bed chamber of bloodshed of wars of different nature. 20th century suffered two bloody world wars. Indeed, it gave birth to the real meaning of War. It heralded the apprehension of the contaminated logic and rationality. It justified the axiom that 'man corrupts power and power corrupts man'.

It seems that the political authorities use some contaminated and politicized terms like honor, patriotism and martyrdom as their trump cards to remain as the logocentric powers.

All My Sons is a play, which shows the contradictory notions of the different generations on war. It uncovers how theological and anthropological logocentrism leash and control the minds of the characters. The study tries to bring the whole scenario of the play within a deconstructive context, where the characters and their mental mindsets are exposed and scrutinized.

METHODOLOGY

This research is based on Derridean deconstructive outlook. Deconstruction does not mean dissolution, destruction or reconstruction of a system or an institution. It means to highlight the suppressed and marginalized facets of the issues in hand through a genealogical analysis.

According to Zima (2002),

The term *Deconstruction*, which Derrida introduces into the philosophical and philological debate, goes back to Heidegger's task of 'Destroying the History of Ontology'. This Deconstruction does not seek to be a destruction, but a dissection and critical reappraisal. Heidegger describes the process of Deconstruction planned by himself in the following terms: 'this hardened tradition must be loosened up, and the concealment which it has brought about must be dissolved.' He adds: 'But this destruction is just as far from having the *negative* sense of shaking off the ontological tradition. We must, on the contrary, stake out the positive possibilities of that tradition, and this always means keeping it within *limits* . . . (p. 23)

Nancy (2008, p. 44) gives the following comments on deconstruction:

1. A deconstruction is always a penetration; it is neither a destruction, nor a return to the archaic, nor, again, a suspension of adherence: a deconstruction is an intentionality of the to come [la-venir], enclosed in the space through which the con-struction is articulated part by part. 2. Deconstruction thus belongs to a construction as its law or its proper schema: it does not come to it from elsewhere.) Here, deconstruction is therefore none other than the logic, altogether historical and theoretical, of the construction of what one might readily call in the language of painting "short-stroke composition" ["fa composition au trait d'union").

Derrida in discussing a subject is more evocative than argumentative. He is more circular than linear. He intends to expose the equivocality of a text. He seems to intend to make an individual think anew. He suffers from the repetitious repetitions of the metaphysical logocentrism. As Williams says:

Things acquire an actual identity through repetition. Intensities come into relation with each other through repetition. Repetition allows us to explain the relation of virtual events to actual events and vice versa. Put simply, this means that things acquire fixity, that is, they acquire parts and hence boundaries through repetition. These parts and boundaries then allow us to see the individual as a member of a class or species (p. 11).

Derrida tries to give a vivid picture of deconstruction that is mostly misunderstood and sometimes is deliberately misinterpreted, especially by those, who find it the nemesis standing against their logocentric authorities.

Derrida (1991) believes that if you paint a milk bottle red, it does not mean that you have deconstructed it, or wearing nail polish does not mean deconstructing one's gender, or voting conservative to stand against the parliamentary left does not mean deconstructing politics. Derrida avers that:

Whatever deconstruction is (if it 'is' at all), it is not reducible to an attitude of nonconformity, oppositionality or principled resistance. Indeed the list of what deconstruction is not can be made to go on more or less indefinitely. Deconstruction is not, for instance, a form of critique, either 'in a general sense or in a Kantian sense'; it is not a method or a theory; it is not a discourse or an operation (p. 273).

Deconstruction refrains from surrendering to the logocentric authority of every 'is'. Indeed, it has problem with authority in general, which may be onto-theological or onto-anthropological sovereignty. Such refusal may create the misunderstanding that deconstruction shows tendency to preference. As Derrida further emphasizes:

It's not that deconstruction prefers or chooses to deconstruct the presence of a thing, as though it could choose to prefer to see things as being undeconstructible. Deconstruction is not a 'method' that can be 'applied' to something with a view to deconstructing it. If things are deconstructible, they are deconstructible already – as things (ibid).

Or as Derrida (1995) in *The Time is out of Joint* says:

In one of many approximations of a definition of deconstruction, to say that deconstruction consists of anything would be to say it consists of 'deconstructing, dislocating, displacing, disarticulating, disjoining, putting "out of joint" the authority of the "is"' (P. 25).

Indeed, within a text the word *deconstruction* surrenders itself to its elements. Therefore, these are the terms like binary opposition, difference, pharmakon, trace, supplement, hymen, iterability and so on, which determine the goal of deconstruction. Deconstruction emphasizes reiteration that is putting (old) texts into new contexts. Its purpose is to expose a text to different readings. It argues that there are different layers of meaning to all writing that even the author may not be aware of, or he may leave it to an incessant course of analyses and interpretations. Derrida (1994) affirms that deconstruction does not compromise with anything justifies gathering up, uniting, bringing up together— whether in the form of an 'accord' within Being or as the 'spirit' of a nation. For whatever gathers up also closes off. To gather all of us together in the here and now, for example, would be to close us off from the others who are no longer living and the others who are not yet living. Indeed deconstruction tries to decentralize

logocentric foundations, as Derrida further says, “deconstruction interferes with solid structures, “material” institutions, and not only with discourses or signifying representations’ (qtd. in Royle, 2003, p. 17).

All My Sons in a Deconstructive Context

All My Sons is one of the most remembered and universally argued plays of the post World War II. The main theme of the story revolves around Joe Keller and Steve Deever, two business partners, who own a manufacturing firm. During the Second World War, they have a contract from the Air Force to supply cylinder heads for the military aircraft. They receive an emergency call to supply cylinder heads. They provide the demand, but unfortunately all of them happen to be defective. This results in Deever’s arrest and Larry’s suicide and eventually Joe Keller’s suicide as well.

The study brings the play into a critical deconstructive analysis by putting the characters within different aporetic spaces, which are liable to deconstruction. The study moves further by infiltrating the deconstructive elements into the play in order to look at the world of Miller’s *All My Sons* from a deconstructive angle.

Artifactuality

Artifactuality deals with the concepts or ideas, which have been introduced by some special artists, writers or influential figures in a given segment of time and seem to be passed from one generation to another as conclusive facts. Indeed, it tries to supplant time and place.

According to Lucy (2004, p. 2):

Time does not stand still. What we mean by ‘time’ today – what it means to be ‘in the present’ or ‘in the here and now’ – should not be mistaken for what these might have meant at other times, in other places. Our time today – even what ‘today’ means today – is made up of features that produce a new concept, or certainly a new experience, of time, albeit one that isn’t ‘new’ in the sense of having come from nowhere, outside of history altogether. In so far as that concept or experience is explicable in terms of the ‘made-upness’ of time, we can say that time is an artefact. This goes to the heart of what Derrida means by the *artifactuality* of time in the present day.

The following dialogue between Keller and Frank shows the strong superstitious faith based on artifactuality in Miller’s *All My Sons*:

Frank: Larry was born in August. He’d been twenty-seven this month. And this tree blows down.

Keller [touched]: I’m surprised you remember his birthday, Frank. That’s nice.

Frank: well, I’m working on his horoscope.

Keller: How can you make him a horoscope? That’s for the future, ain’t it?

Frank: well, what I’m doing is this, see. Larry was reported missing on November twenty-fifth, right?

Keller: Yeah?

Frank: well, then we assume that if he was killed it was on November twenty-fifth. Now, what Kate wants...

Keller: oh, Kate asked you to make a horoscope?

Frank: Yeah, what she wants to find out is whether November twenty-fifth was a favorable day for Larry.

Keller: What is that a favorable day for a person?

Frank: Well, a favorable day for a person is fortunate day, according to his stars. In other words it would be practically impossible for him to have died on his favorable day. (Miller, 2005, Act I, p. 4-henceforth-Miller)

It seems that Miller’s characters find themselves shackled within the messianic traditions of metaphysics. Indeed, it is through this messianic faith that they even bring justification about Larry whether he is dead or still alive. As Caputo (2004) says:

Faith, the very idea of faith, occupies the distance between presence and coming, the gap that is opened up between them, not by chance, but structurally. So whether we are praying and weeping before the weeping wall in Jerusalem for the Messiah who is to come, or celebrating the birth of the Messiah at a midnight

Christmas mass in St. Peter's Basilica in Rome while praying for him to come again, the structure of messianic time, its structural futurity, remains in place. If there is time, there is hope and messianic expectation, hope in hope, which, as we Christian deconstructors think, goes hand in hand with hope against hope (Pp.111-2).

Hospitality

Fanaticism of a communal identity discourages the hospitality towards strangers. There are two kinds of *hospitality*, namely pure and impure. In the pure form of hospitality, the stranger is accepted unconditionally. His culture, religion and mindset are respected, while in the impure form of hospitality, the stranger is simply accepted provided he yields to some imposed conditions. Hence, he is bound to sacrifice something in order to gain something. Derrida yells his voice against those who highlight differences. Indeed, these are not called differences but the socio-cultural and religious attributes of different communities, societies and individuals, which should be respected, provided they are not given nationalistic forms.

Derrida says:

The law of hospitality, the express law that governs the general concept of hospitality, appears as a paradoxical law, pervertible and perverting. It seems to dictate that absolute hospitality should break with the law of hospitality as right or duty.... (qtd in Westmoreland, 2008, p. 4)

Bernett (2005, p. 11) comments:

It is tempting to interpret Derrida's deconstruction of hospitality in terms of an opposition between ethics and politics, where these two serve as figures for intrinsic and instrumental value. The question of whether a new arrival should be interrogated and questioned, or whether they should be offered unquestioning welcome, seems on the face of it to be analogous to the difference between the ethical relation and justice

Impure Hospitality

There are numerous occasions where we may witness the sense of impure hospitality among the characters, but the researcher has selected just one of them, which is between Chris and George. Chris shows a clear impure hospitality towards George by imposing conditions upon his stay with them:

Chris: (to George) If you want to go, I'll drive you to the station now, but if you're staying, no arguments while you're here (Miller, Act 2, p. 62).

The following dialogues between Chris and his mother show the sense of impure hospitality as well:

Chris: What do you mean you packed her bag? How dare you pack her bag?

Mother: She doesn't belong here.

Chris: Then I don't belong here.

Mother: She is Larry's girl.

Chris: And I'm his brother and he's dead, and I'm marrying his girl.

Mother: Never. Never in this world. (Miller, Act 2, p. 72)

Differance

Derrida asserts that:

Differance marks the opening of a system of differences in which everything acquires meaning and value according to what 'we believe we know as the most familiar thing in the world' – that the outside is not the inside. But 'without differance as temporalization, without the nonpresence of the other inscribed within the sense of the present' (1976, pp.70- 1),

It means that nothing has an inherently fixed meaning and value in itself. So everything keeps on differing and deferring. Hence in each deferment, there is a difference, and in each difference there is a new birth of an identity. Therefore deferment and difference have an endless spatial and temporal game, which is suppressed in the metaphysical idea of difference.

Metaphysics of presence is like the repetitious memories of the retired employees, who keep on entertaining their repetitious guests and addressees with the same repetitious and diabolically boring memories, as if *Time* has ceased

moving ahead for them. They keep on refreshing, rephrasing and reproducing the same memories. Most historians, philosophers and Theo-politicians also enjoy the logocentrism of the metaphysics of presence, which prevents the innovative and creative thoughts to come into existence.

Derrida further says:

Indeed, one must understand this incompetence of science which is also the incompetence of philosophy, the closure of the episteme. Above all it does not invoke a return to a prescientific or infra-philosophic form of discourse. Quite the contrary this common root, which is not a root but the concealment of the origin and which is not common because it does not amount to the same thing except with the unmonotonous insistence of difference, this unnameable movement of difference-itself, that I have strategically nicknamed trace, reserve, or difference, could be called writing only within the historical closure, that is to say within the limits of science and philosophy (p.79).

Differance comes in to the arena, when Derrida questions the undeconstructible nature of philosophy, history and politics of the Western tradition, a tradition, which maneuvers over the metaphysical determination of **being** as presence.

As Derrida says:

Differance is the name we might give to the “active”, moving discord of different forces, and of differences of forces . . . against the entire system of metaphysical grammar.’ Because *difference* does not constitute itself as an essential identity of difference, because it remains open to contingency, thereby undermining fixed identities, it may be seen as a tool of anti-authoritarian politics: ‘It governs nothing, reigns over nothing, and nowhere exercises any authority. . . Not only is there no kingdom of difference, but difference instigates the subversion of every kingdom (qtd. in Neweman, 2001, pp.10-11).

The following extract of the play shows the atmosphere of difference within the mental flow of the characters:

Ann: (putting her arms around him) Oh, Chris, I've been ready a long, long time.

Chris: Then he's gone for ever. You're sure.

Ann: I almost got married two years ago.

Chris: Why didn't you?

Ann: You started to write me... (slight pause)

Chris: You felt something that far back?

Ann: Every day since.

Chris: Ann, why didn't you let me know?

Ann: I was waiting for you, Chris. Till then you never wrote. And when you did, what did you say? You sure can be ambiguous, you know (Miller, Act, I, p. 35).

Undecidability

Undecidability is a kind of hesitation whether to make a decision or not. It is when one oscillates between *decidability and undecidability*. Even if one makes a decision, there is still a sense of undecidability in that peculiar decision, which Derrida calls the ghost of undecidable. Indeed, it is not a pure decision, but somehow one finds himself in an imposed aporetic space, where he has to make a decision.

Indeed, each decision is made in an atmosphere of undecidability, but the decision, which is supported by deconstruction, is a decision, which is not made out of externally influenced forces, but a decision that is made out of madness.

As Royle (2003) comments, Derrida warns against confusing undecidability with indeterminacy. He considers indeterminacy a kind of negativity or nothingness. Derrida believes that “there is no decision that is not structured by this *experience and experiment* of undecidable.” (p. 29)

In the following dialogue Ann and Chris seem to be stuck in an atmosphere of undecidability:

Ann: I wonder if we ought to tell your mother yet? I mean I'm not very good for an argument.

Chris: We'll wait till tonight. After dinner. Now don't get tense, just leave it to me (Miller, Act I, p. 38).

Intentionality

Intentions are integral parts of one's existence. They push one towards its upcoming moves of life. It is very common to have intentions in life, but the problem pops up when one expects its intentions to be definitely fulfilled; otherwise it will find itself stuck in a world of frustration and tragedy. The characters in *All My Sons* are stuck in an oozy quagmire of conflicting intentions. The following dialogues show the conflict of the intentions:

Chris: It means you knew they'd crash.

Keller: It don't mean that.

Chris: Then you thought they'd crash.

Keller: I was afraid myself.

Chris: You were afraid maybe. What kind of a man are you? Kids were hanging in the air by those heads. You knew that !

Keller: For you, a business for you !

Chris: For me! Where do you live? Where have you come from? I was dying every day and you were killing my boys and you did it for me?

Keller: You wanted money, so I made money. What I must be forgiven? You wanted money, didn't you?

Mother: I didn't want it that way. It doesn't excuse it that you did it for the family (Miller, Act 3, pp. 75).

Postal Metaphor

Derrida (1988) says, it is very common that a postal system has the intention of guarantying the letters to reach the intended addresses. Yet everyone related to the concerned letters know that there might be different possibilities on arriving the letters at the intended addresses. So, the letters may arrive where intended, or arrive somewhere else, or even might get lost in the post office itself.

Therefore, we may have different intentions, which may not be conveyed to our addressees the way we want. People of different situational contexts may misconstrue one another's intentions, which is very common. Hence, if we do not predetermine the results of our intentions, we may not face a tragic shock when our calculations turn out to be miscalculations.

The following dialogues may be an apt example of the postal metaphor where we can see the misconception of the intentions:

Mother: And you? You...go out much?

Ann: You mean am I still waiting for him?

Mother: Well, no. I don't expect you to wait for him but...

Ann: But that's what you meant, isn't it?

Mother: Well...yes.

Ann: Well, I'm not Kate. (Miller, Act I, p. 26)

Khora

Khora is a feeling, which is neither scientifically justifiable nor philosophically, but still has not been harshly challenged. Indeed, it is an internal vibration, which pushes one towards trusting one's inside voice.

Derrida (1995, p. 126) states,

khora is that third thing (between the intelligible and the sensible) that makes it possible to think anything like the difference between pure being and pure nothingness (or between my autonomous selfhood and your autonomous otherness); it is what makes it possible to think the difference between 'I' and 'you'. To be brief, khora is the pre-philosophical, pre-originary non-locatable non-space that existed without existing before the cosmos.

The following exchange of words between Kate and Ann, show Kate's khoric mindset:

Mother: Don't let them tell you what to think. Listen to your heart. Only your heart.

Ann: Why does your heart tell you he's alive?

Mother: Because he has to be.

Ann: But why, Kate?

Mother: Because certain things have to be, and certain things can never be. Like the sun has to rise, it has to be. That's why there's God. Otherwise anything could happen. But there's God, so certain things can never happen. I would know, Annie—just like I knew the day [indicates Chris] went into that terrible battle. Did he write me? Was it in the papers? No, but that morning I couldn't raise my head off the pillow. Ask Joe. Suddenly, I knew! And he was nearly killed that day. Ann, you know I'm right! (Miller, Act I, pp.27-8)

Derrida observes, *khora* “eludes all anthropo-theological schemes, all history, all revelation, all truth (qtd in Caputo, 2003, p108).

Caputo furthers claims:

Khora is neither present nor absent, active nor passive, the Good nor evil, living nor nonliving (*Timaeus*, 50c). Neither theomorphic nor anthropomorphic—but rather atheological and nonhuman—*khora* is not even a receptacle, which would also be something that is itself inscribed within it.

“*Khora* has no meaning or essence, no identity to fall back upon. She/it receives all without becoming anything, which is why she/it can become the subject of neither a philosopheme nor a mytheme.” (p.109)

Aporia and Aporetic Spaces

Aporia may have different contextual interpretations. One of the key connotations of aporia is the logical gridlock in a special situation. It is when the death of an argument or negotiation is declared sealed. Indeed, one may reach an aporetic decision within an aporetic space, but the nature of this aporetic decision depends on the nature of the aporetic situation. Sometimes, this aporetic space may be so horrendous, which may lead to tragic repercussions, and sometimes, we are in such aporetic atmospheres that the aporetic decisions may lead to a joyful difference, and sometimes, we may get stuck within the aporetic spaces, which are the inevitable and integral parts of our lives.

For Derrida, aporia is not a paralysis but a proceeding to take actions. People in different aporetic spaces make different decisions. Indeed decisions are inevitable. As we see, the following characters in different situational mood make curiously unexpected decisions:

Chris: I've given it three years of thought. I'd hoped that if I waited, mother would forget Larry and then we'd have a regular wedding. But if that can't happen here, then I'll have to get out.

Keller: What the hell is this?

Chris: I will get out. I'll get married and live someplace else. Maybe in New York. (Miller, Act 1, p. 15)

Messianicity and Hope

One of the considerable and undeconstructible elements of messianicity is having faith in the possibly least possible hope in life. Indeed, life exists in hopes. As Walsh (1999, pp.4-5) affirms:

Derrida does not disappoint. He tells us that while religion, like law, is deconstructible, faith, like justice, is "something that is presupposed by the most radical deconstructive gesture. You cannot address the other, speak to the other, without an act of faith, without testimony." In other words, to speak to another is to ask the other to "believe in me" or "trust me." Such faith, says Derrida, is "absolutely universal." And this universal structure of faith is an undeconstructible that Derrida calls the messianic structure or messianicity.

The same may be tangibly observed in the following dialogue between Joe Keller and his wife, Kate:

Keller: What do you want me to do? What do you want?

Mother: I want you to act like he's coming back. Both of you. Don't think I haven't noticed you since Chris invited her. I won't stand for any nonsense.

Keller: But, Kate—

Mother: Because if he's not coming back, then I'll kill myself! Laugh. Laugh at me.[she points to tree] but why did that happen the very night she came back? laugh, but there are meanings in such things. She goes to sleep in his room and his memorial breaks in pieces. Look at it; look. [she sits on the bench.] Joe—

Keller: Calm yourself.

Mother: Believe me, Joe. I can't stand all alone.

Keller: Calm yourself.

Mother: Only last week a man turned up in Detroit, missing longer than Larry. You read it yourself.(Miller, Act1, p. 21)

The possible return of Larry is nothing more than a messianic hope, which may herald the comeback of their missing son. This is simply this faint hope that makes Larry still alive.

CONCLUSION

The study was an attempt to free the characters from the yoke of the unnaturally naturalized traditions. It tried to identify the preventive logos, which enliven and canvass the omnipresence of the past that discourage the birth of any anti-authoritarian and anti-foundationalistic resistance. The researchers used the Derridian deconstruction to give a new life to the antediluvian world of Miller's characters, who are unwillingly drowned in the regressive and dreadful vortex of the metaphysics of presence.

Indeed, the paper tried to display the flexibility and optimism of the deconstructive context that encourages the promises of the various sunrises with their own peculiar and unrepeatable characteristics. It may be in a deconstructive context that individuals like Larry and Joe do not find themselves imprisoned within the black dungeon of an aporetic space of an inevitable suicide.

In conclusion, the paper suggests that new interpretations and outlooks should be given to any current issue, since nothing is created fixed and inflexible. So, no issue should be attached to some predetermined and invincible beliefs, otherwise it is impossible to get oneself away from the dark shelter of tyranny and dictatorship of the logocentric officious-minded world authorities.

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EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND CRITICAL THINKING

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at exploring the relationship among English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' language learning strategy use, and critical thinking. To this aim, 250 sophomore, junior, and senior undergraduate students majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Islamic Azad University at Damavand, Iran were randomly selected and were asked to fill in the two questionnaires on Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990), and a questionnaire of Critical Thinking (CT) developed by Honey (2000). After discarding incomplete answer sheets, 230 acceptable cases were used in statistical analysis. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The relationship between SILL, and CT, was investigated using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient. Correlation analysis indicated that significant relationships exist between EFL learners' use of language learning strategies & critical thinking ($r = .89$, $P < .05$). Moreover, running multiple regressions showed that memory strategy, as one component of language learning strategies, was the best predictor of critical thinking and predicted 72.7 percent of critical thinking. Social strategy was the second best predictor and enhanced the predictive power to 78.1 percent. The metacognitive strategy enhanced the predictive power to 79.2 percent. And finally, the compensation strategy increased the percentage of prediction to 79.8%. Implications of the study are presented and discussed.

KEYWORDS: language learning strategies, critical thinking, effective learning

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, a gradual but significant shift has taken place within the field of education, resulting in less emphasis on teachers and teaching and greater stress on learners and learning (Nosratinia & Sarabchian, 2013). At the same time, a shift of attention has taken place in second language acquisition research from the products of language learning to the processes through which learning takes place (Oxford, 2001). Dörnyei (2005, p. 166) states that "Learners' proactive contribution to enhancing the effectiveness of their own learning" is essential in developing skills in learning-how-to-learn. Thus, in order to enhance students' learning in a learner-centered education, the use of specific language learning strategies (Brown, 2000; Oxford, 2001; Schmitt, 2002), and fostering of higher-order thinking (Oxford, 2001) are suggested. Language learning strategies are the specific mental and communicative procedures that learners employ in order to learn and use language (Chamot, 2005; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Weinstein and Mayer (1986) state that the goal of learning strategies is to "affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge" (p. 315). A number of factors may affect the choice of language learning strategies among the learners such as motivation, age, nationality, career choice, gender, learning style, and critical thinking.

The proponents of reflective teaching argue that developing higher-order thinking skills, including critical thinking (CT) ability, is an educational priority for both students and teachers (Oxford, 2001). CT as one of the factors that

affect learning is a cognitive skill, which exists and influences the way of our thinking. According to Ennis (2011), CT is the ability to think clearly and rationally. It includes the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking, the ability to decide what to do or what to believe. Ennis (2011) defines CT as reasonable and reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do. It is apparent that these beliefs are not confined to external world. They can refer to one's internal world as an individual, i.e., people's internal systems and values such as self-acceptance, self-actualization, self-efficacy, and self-regulation, etc.

Language Learning Strategies

Since the mid 1970s, there has been substantial growth in the literature on learning strategies (e.g., Cohen, & Aphek, 1981; O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Schmitt, 1997; Wenden, & Rubin, 1987). Learning strategies, according to Chamot (2005), are the specific mental and communicative procedures that learners employ in order to learn and use language. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) state that the goal of learning strategies is to "affect the learner's motivational or affective state, or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge" (p. 315). Language learning strategies enable students to take more responsibilities of their own language learning and develop autonomy in their studies. In other words, learners proactive contribution to enhancing the effectiveness of their own learning is essential in developing skills in learning-how-to-learn (Tseng, Dörnyei, & Schmitt, 2006). A number of factors may affect the choice of language learning strategies among the learners such as motivation (Xu, 2011), age and gender (Traganta & Victori, 2012), learning style (Wong & Nunan, 2011), and critical thinking (Nikopour, Amini Farsani, Nasiri, 2011).

Critical Thinking

To think critically is undeniably one of the major elements of "first class human capital" in a knowledge economy (Atkinson, 1997). The importance of CT can be historically traced to 1933 as Dewey stated that the central purpose of education is learning to think. As part of that education, learners need to develop and learn to apply CT skills to their academic studies effectively (Moon, 2008). Halpern (as cited in Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978) defined CT as thinking, which performs through policies or cognitive skills that lead to increasing probability of acquiring desired outcome.

Watson and Glaser (as cited in Honey, 2000) believed that CT is a combination of individual knowledge, attitude, and performance. They also consider the following skills as critical skills to CT: deduction, identifying information, inference, interpretation, and evaluation of logical arguments. They believed that the ability of CT is processing and evaluating former information with current information and its outcomes. Scriven and Paul (as cited in Cohen, & Dörnyei, 2002) define CT as that mode of thinking -about any subject, content, or problem- in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them. This definition includes an attitudinal element of volition, and self-efficacy, and the metacognitive skill of evaluating one's own thinking processes. A diverse body of educational research on CT provides support for integrating CT skills into L2 educational curriculum (Fisher, 1998; Reed, 1998).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to explore the relationship and interaction between these two variables, the present study aimed at investigating the relationship among EFL learners' language learning strategies and their critical thinking skills and the following research questions were posed:

1. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' use of language learning strategies and critical thinking?
2. Is there any significant difference among different types of language learning strategies in predicting EFL learners' critical thinking?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 230 sophomore, junior, and senior undergraduate students (184 females, 80% and 46 males, 20%) with the age range of 18-27, studying English Translation and English Literature at Islamic Azad University, Damavand Branch. All of the participants were selected randomly.

It should be mentioned that the preliminary number of participants was 250 (195 females, 55 males) 20 of them were excluded from data analysis due to careless coding, incomplete answers, and subject mortality, bringing the final number to 230 participants.

Instrumentation

The following instruments were utilized in this study:

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

SILL questionnaire originally developed by Oxford (1990) covers six categories of strategies for language learning: Items 1-9 are concerned with the effectiveness of memory (memory strategies); items 10-23 are concerned with the use of mental processes (cognitive strategies); items 24-29 relate to the compensation for missing knowledge (compensation strategies); items 30-38 deal with the organization and evaluation of learning (meta-cognitive strategies); items 39-44 are concerned with emotion management (affective strategies); and items 45-50 deal with learning with others (social strategies). According to Ehrman and Oxford (1990), SILL has consistently scored above .90 using Cronbach alpha, which indicates high internal reliability.

SILL was translated and its content validity was checked by Tahmasebi (1999). Tahmasebi (ibid) argues that the content validation process of the translated version has happened through collaboration of some professors at Islamic Azad University. Moreover, Tahmasebi (1999) found Cronbach alpha of 0.77 for Persian version of SILL.

In this study, to avoid any probable difficulties of participants in understanding the English version of the questionnaire, the researcher administered the Tahmasebi translated version of the SILL questionnaire which consists of 50 multiple-choice items. Each item has five options ranging from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 5 (Always or almost always true of me). Therefore, the ultimate score is estimated in the possible range of 50 to 250, and participants are supposed to answer the items in 30 minutes.

The reliability of SILL questionnaire, in this study, was estimated to be 0.97 using the K-R 21 reliability indices, which demonstrated a fair degree of reliability. Table 1 shows the reliability of SILL and its components.

Table 1: Reliability Index of SILL and Its Components

	N	K-R21	Number of items
SILL	230	0.97	50
Memory	230	0.91	9
Cognitive	230	0.93	14
Compensation	230	0.86	6
Metacognitive	230	0.92	9
Affective	230	0.79	6
Social	230	0.83	6

Critical Thinking Questionnaire

The Critical Thinking Questionnaire intends to explore what a person might or might not do when thinking critically about a subject. Developed by Honey (2000), the questionnaire aims at evaluating the three main skills of comprehension, analysis, and evaluation of the participants.

This questionnaire contains 30 items which allows researchers to investigate the learners' ability in note-taking, summarizing, questioning, paraphrasing, researching, inferencing, discussing, classifying, outlining, comparing and contrasting, distinguishing, synthesizing, inductive and deductive reasoning. The participants are asked to rate the frequency of each category they use on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from never (1 point), seldom (2 points), sometimes (3 points), often (4 points), to always (5 points); therefore, the participants' scores are calculated by adding the numbers of the scores. The ultimate score is computed in the possible range of 30 to150, and the participants are allocated 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

In this study, the Persian version of this questionnaire was employed which has been translated by Naeini (2005). Naeini (ibid) reported the content validity of this questionnaire in a study in which the translated version and the original version were compared item by item by TEFL professors. In this study the reliability of CT questionnaire was estimated to be 0.98 using the K-R21 formula which demonstrated a fair degree of reliability (table 2).

Table 2: Reliability Index of Critical Thinking Questionnaire

	N	Mean	Variance	K-R21	Number of Items
Critical Thinking	230	89.97	1519.287	0.98	30

Procedure

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the following procedure was carried out. All participants of the study were randomly selected among both male and female sophomore, junior and senior students, with the age range of 18-27, majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Islamic Azad University, Damavand Branch.

All participants were explained about the instructions of filling the questionnaires and were asked to complete them in one session. It is worth mentioning that in order to encourage the participants to answer with more care and honesty, they were assured that their responses to the instruments were planned to be used only for gathering information for purposes of this research and the results were not linked to any form of classroom evaluation. Then, a package of two distinct questionnaires (SILL, and CT) was given in one session in order to collect the required data of this study.

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), developed by Oxford (1990) which had 50 items and candidates were given 30 minutes to answer them. The critical thinking questionnaire provided by Honey (2000), including 52 items and took 30 minutes to be answered. The Persian versions of the two questionnaires were administered to 250 participants. The respondents were explained about the instructions of filling the questionnaires and were asked to complete them approximately in 80 minutes. The researchers randomly observed the process of filling out for some individuals to make sure they were capable to fully understand the questions and responses.

Out of 250 students who took part in the administration, 20 of them were excluded from data analysis due to careless coding, and incomplete answers bringing the final number to 230 participants among which 184 females, 80% and 46 males, 20%. The justification for lower number of males as compared to females in this study is that female candidates commonly outnumber the opposite gender in selecting English as their major in university entrance exam.

Subsequently, the administered questionnaires were scored and the data, which was gathered through the above-mentioned procedures, was analyzed by the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Testing Assumptions

Since the research questions posed in this study were analyzed through Pearson correlation and regression analysis, the main assumptions of interval data, and independence of subjects, normality (Field, 2009) had to be met. The first two assumptions were met. The present data were measured on an interval scale and the performance of each subject did not depend on the performance of other subjects. The assumption of normality was also met. The descriptive statistics related to the obtained scores on the instruments appear below in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for Language Learning Strategies and Critical Thinking

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Language Learning Strategies	230	52	200	119.17	39.781	1582.543
Memory	230	9	36	20.53	7.282	53.027
Cognitive	230	14	56	32.20	11.343	128.661
Compensation	230	6	24	13.62	4.888	23.888
Metacognitive	230	9	36	20.88	7.619	58.043
Affective	230	6	24	16.53	4.863	23.648
Social	230	6	24	15.40	5.341	28.529
Critical Thinking	230	30	150	89.97	38.978	1519.287

Also, as displayed in Table 4 the values of skewness and kurtosis were within the ranges of +/- 1.96. It should be noted that since the sample size was large, the values of +/- 1.96 were used.

Table 4: Normality Tests for Language Learning Strategies and Critical Thinking

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Learning Strategies	230	.202	.160	-.828	.320
Critical Thinking	230	.103	.160	-1.437	.320
Memory	230	.249	.160	-.791	.320
Cognitive	230	.255	.160	-.791	.320
Compensation	230	.218	.160	-.816	.320
Metacognitive	230	.284	.160	-.811	.320
Affective	230	-.285	.160	-.687	.320
Social	230	-.042	.160	-1.140	.320

Correlation between EFL Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies and Critical Thinking

The Pearson correlation was run to probe any significant relationships between EFL learners' use of language learning strategies and CT. The results of the Pearson correlation, Table 5, indicated that there was a significant relationship between CT and memory strategy [$r(228) = .85, P < .05$], cognitive strategy [$r(228) = .806, P < .05$], compensation strategy [$r(228) = .808, P < .05$], metacognitive strategy [$r(228) = .810, P < .05$], affective strategy [$r(228) = .759, P < .05$], and finally social strategy [$r(228) = .828, P < .05$].

Table 5: Pearson Correlation between CT and Language Learning Strategies

		Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Critical Thinking	Pearson Correlation	.853**	.806**	.808**	.810**	.759**	.828**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	230	230	230	230	230	230

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

Power of Language Learning Strategies in Predicting EFL Learners' Critical Thinking

A linear regression was run to investigate any significant difference among different types of language learning strategies in predicting EFL learners' CT. Based on the results displayed in Table 6, it can be concluded that memory strategy was the best predictor of CT [$R = .853, R^2 = .727$] and predicted 72.7 percent of this skill. Social strategy was the second best predictor of CT [$R = .884, R^2 = .781$] and enhanced the predictive power to 78.1 percent. The metacognitive strategy was entered the model on the third step [$R = .891, R^2 = .792$]. That is to say memory, social and metacognitive strategies predicted 79.2 percent of CT skill. Finally, the compensation strategy was entered the regression model on the last step to increase the percentage of prediction to 79.8%.

Table 6: Model Summary: Language Learning Strategies for Predicting CT

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.853 ^a	.727	.726	20.412
2	.884 ^b	.781	.779	18.310
3	.890 ^c	.792	.789	17.892
4	.893 ^d	.798	.794	17.679
a. Predictors: (Constant), Memory				
b. Predictors: (Constant), Memory, Social				
c. Predictors: (Constant), Memory, Social, Metacognitive				
d. Predictors: (Constant), Memory, Social, Metacognitive, Compensation				
e. Dependent Variable: Critical Thinking				

The results of ANOVA test of significance of regression model (Table 7) indicate that at all four steps, the regression model enjoy statistical significant ($P < .05$). The four components of language learning strategies which are entered the regression model, i.e. memory, social, metacognitive and compensation, significantly predicted CT better than other strategies that did not enter the model due to their low contributions.

Table 7: ANOVA Test of Significance of Regression Model of Language Learning Strategies for Predicting CT

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	252917.817	1	252917.817	607.009	.000 ^b
	Residual	94998.970	228	416.662		
	Total	347916.787	229			
2	Regression	271809.977	2	135904.989	405.357	.000 ^c
	Residual	76106.810	227	335.272		
	Total	347916.787	229			
3	Regression	275572.202	3	91857.401	286.957	.000 ^d
	Residual	72344.585	226	320.109		
	Total	347916.787	229			
4	Regression	277594.607	4	69398.652	222.045	.000 ^e
	Residual	70322.180	225	312.543		
	Total	347916.787	229			
a. Dependent Variable: Critical Thinking						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Memory						
c. Predictors: (Constant), Memory, Social						
d. Predictors: (Constant), Memory, Social, Metacognitive						
e. Predictors: (Constant), Memory, Social, Metacognitive, Compensation						

The cognitive and affective strategies were not entered into the regression model due to their non-significant contributions to the model. As Table 8 displays, the cognitive ($t = 1.07$, $P > .05$) and affective ($t = 1.14$, $P > .05$) all showed non-significant contributions to the regression model.

Table 8: Excluded Variables in Regression Model of Language Learning Strategies for Predicting CT

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
					Tolerance
Cognitive	.087 ^c	1.071	.285	.071	.137
Affective	.067 ^e	1.142	.255	.076	.257
a. Dependent Variable: Critical Thinking					
e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Memory, Social, Metacognitive, Compensation					

Discussion

The results of the study indicated that there is a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' use of language learning strategies and their CT. This positive relation may be a replication of many previous studies concerning the effectiveness of CT on the ultimate success of language learners in the challenging process of foreign language learning. Many other studies confirm the effectiveness of CT on different aspects of second or foreign language learning (Atkinson, 1997; Cairns, Gilbert, Mc Crickerd, Romig, & Younger, 2005; Neubert & Binko, 1992; Reed, 19980). In another study conducted by Nikpour, Amini Farsani and Nasiri (2011) a significant relationship was found between Iranian EFL learners' CT and their use of direct language learning strategies including cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies.

As different studies in literature confirm the effectiveness of language learning strategies and critical thinking in fostering language learning and learner-centered teaching (Giancarlo & Facione, 2001; Li & Qin, 2006; Moore, 1995; Nunan, 1997; Oxford & Crookal, 1989; Tsui, 1998;) learners should be encouraged to develop a greater range of strategies and to activate their CT skills. They should, in short, be encouraged to think about the processes underlying their own learning, and to see that, ultimately, they are responsible for their own learning (Nunan, 1995).

CONCLUSION

In order to function effectively in society, encounter different problems, and promote independent learning, individuals must be able to think critically and reason effectively. Since a significant relationship was found between the CT ability and using language learning strategies, we can conclude that utilization of language learning strategies can help students to enhance their way of thinking, in other words, to think more critically.

The prime suggestion of this study would be directed to syllabus designers and material developers for writing courses to consider CT as one of the effective elements in both academic and future career success. Involving courses with specific focus on CT and also language learning strategies in course syllabuses will result in educating intellectual students with analytical abilities that are clear, precise, well reasoned, and helpful.

Following Christison (2003), we also suggest that teachers audit their own classroom practices to identify the strategies that they themselves favor. In fact, as Christison (2003) suggests, they can be seen as two sides of one coin. Learners are more likely to "stretch" their own learning strategies and develop greater flexibility as learners if teachers "stretch" their own teaching strategies and develop greater flexibility as teachers. Stretching increases the range of teaching strategies they employ and will help teachers cater to the different learner types that will almost certainly exist in their classrooms.

Learners should also be encouraged to develop a greater range of strategies and to activate their language outside of the classroom. They should, in short, be encouraged to think about the processes underlying their own learning, and to see that, ultimately; they are responsible for their own learning (Nunan, 1995).

Since in this study age and gender were not taken into account, future studies can be conducted considering age and gender of the participants and their possible relationships with their critical thinking and language learning strategies use.

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A COMPARISON OF MOVES IN CONCLUSION SECTIONS OF RESEARCH ARTICLES IN
MECHANICAL ENGINEERING AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to draw a comparison between the moves used in the two known distinct academic territories, namely Hard and Soft sciences. To meet this end we chose the two fields of Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics to represent Hard and Soft sciences, respectively. Forty research articles written by native and non-native researchers were selected from Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics. The Conclusion and Implication sections of these Research Articles (RA) were analyzed for their moves based on Dudley-Evans's (1994) model. The frequency analysis of the moves along with a Chi-Square analysis did not show significant differences between the moves employed in Conclusion sections of RAs in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics. The results also indicated a shortcoming regarding the Model proposed by Dudley Evans (1994) and the findings of the research include Implications to develop a new and more sophisticated Model for the analysis of the Conclusion sections of RAs.

KEYWORDS: Conclusion, moves, Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics, Dudley Evans's model

INTRODUCTION

As one of the most important genre of knowledge production, Research Articles (RAs), have been the focus of analysis by several researchers (e.g. Bazerman, 1988; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Brett, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Swales, 1981, 1990). In the past two decades different studies have analyzed textual products such as dissertations, and most of the studies tried to reach patterns for the organization on different sections of those writings (Hyland, 1992, 1996; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Thompson & Ye, 1991; Mann & Thomson, 1988; Hirose, 2003;), or dimensions of clause structure and discourse function in the systemic functional tradition (Gosden 1992, 1993; MacDonald, 1994; Fairclough, 1992; Matthiessen & Thomson, 1988).

On the other hand, some scholars have focused more on institutional contexts that the RA genre has evolved in and also they have focused on behavior of genre users, particularly in science (Bazerman, 1988; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Rymer, 1988). The researchers' main concern in this study is on the moves employed in RAs. According to Kanoksilapatham (2005), a move refers to the section of a text that performs a specific communicative function.

Based on Hyland (2008), Swales has been most influential in the emergence of ESP, due to his breakthrough into the move structure of RAs in 1981. Since then research studies came to focus on the organizational patterns of RA sections. The studies on the RA Introductions are the most important line of the researches among others that has also caught the most attention (Swales, 1981, 1990); in addition, others include studies of the Results sections (e.g. Brett, 1994, in sociology RAs) and the Discussion sections, in sociology, political sciences, and history RAs (Holmes, 1997), in economics, business and financial articles (Lindeberg, 1994), and across a wide range of sciences (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995). Most studies appear to treat each RA section as an independent entity, except that

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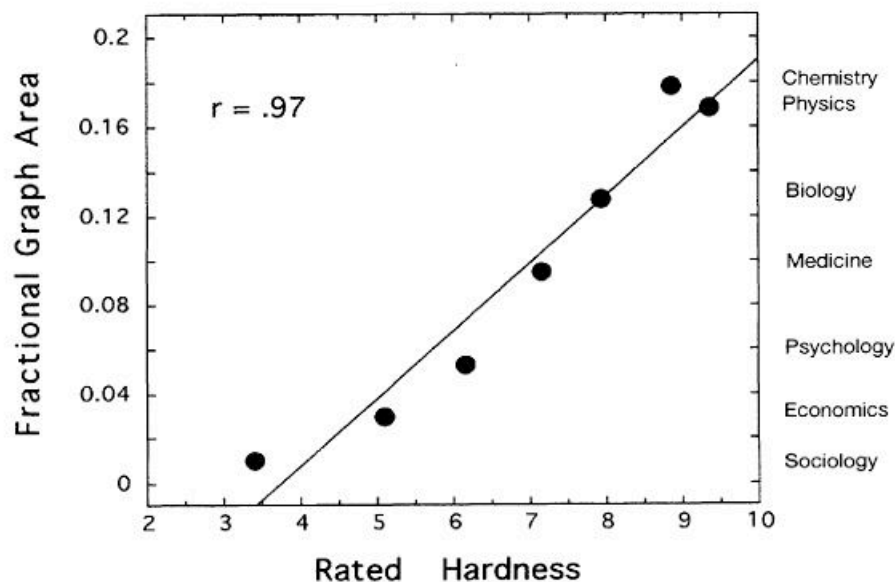
Berkenkotter and Huckin relate their analysis of the Discussion to the Introduction. Regarding the possible relation between the function of RAs in their respective fields and the moves employed in RAs' specific sections, we can report Swales (1990) which welcomes this idea. Swales also notes that Results and Discussion sections are often merged, and refers briefly to "additional or substituted sections labeled Conclusions, Implications or Applications and so on" (p. 170). However, Swales (1990) does not go on to offer a model for the move structure of final sections, which as he proposes, are merged Conclusions, Implications or Applications sections.

No one who has ever had the experience of writing or reading RAs, would argue against the fact that Conclusion /or Implications sections of RAs are important, and that they are related to the whole RA.

The only study in the literature regarding final sections of RAs, is Yang and Allison's (2003) study, which studied 20 RAs in Applied Linguistics for their organizational patterning focusing on moves and steps as the unit of analysis. In their study, they came up with three recurrent moves, namely, summarizing the results, evaluating the results, and making deductions based on findings. Although Yang and Allison's (2003) research was considered a novel study at the time it was carried out, it suffered from some major short-comings such as unrepresentative number of articles, and not using any known model in their study.

The present study, however, was an attempt to fill the gap in the literature regarding the move analysis of final sections of RAs. This study is different from others in that it has made use of Dudley Evans's (1994) model for the Discussion sections of RAs as a framework to analyze the move structure of Conclusion sections. The purpose of the study was two-fold: the move analysis of Conclusions sections, and the exploration of the relationship between neighboring sections in RAs, namely, discussion and Conclusion sections.

Our choices of disciplines, i.e., Applied Linguistics and Mechanical Engineering, representing Hard and Soft sciences, respectively, is based on Smith, L. D., Best, L. A., Stubbs, D. A., Johnston, J. and Andrea Archibald, B. (2000) who applied Latour's (1990) distinction between Soft and Hard sciences and devised a continuum for hardness of sciences (Figure 1). Based on Latour (ibid.), the use of graphs to present the results is a good criterion to decide on their hardness and softness.



Source: Data from Cleveland, op. cit. note 19.

Figure 1: Graph use as a function of the rated hardness of seven scientific disciplines.

The study had two main motives, one was the fact that the conclusion sections of RAs have not been studied to date, especially in a comparative research design, second the researchers try to pave the path for the development of a model of the moves in Conclusion sections of RAs.

Furthermore, a close look into the literature on teaching writing reveals that most students, even those with good command of English, often have difficulties in expressing themselves in writing. Students' main difficulties are not just in choosing proper vocabulary and correct grammar rules but also in organizing the structure depending on topic and selecting the right structure for getting across the right intention. Therefore, investigating the organization of different written texts, and the moves and steps they are comprised of, can provide invaluable help in foreign language teaching and learning. This study aims at investigating the moves that are used in Conclusion parts of the papers in Mechanical Engineering and Applied linguistic journals written by either native or non-native researchers to give a better understanding of the moves used in Conclusion and Implication sections of papers in the two fields and to explore any differences in the inclusion of genres between native and non-native researchers.

REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES ON RAS

Considering the fact that research reports are of great importance to students of higher education all over the world, university students often face difficulties comprehending the forms and functions of various sections of RAs (Swales, 2004). There are, unquestionably, a great number of samples of research articles and dissertations available. However, novice writers may find these forms and functions of writing ambiguous and incomprehensible (Basturkmen, 2009). The combinatory framework has been used by many studies which have focused on generic variations across disciplines (see Samraj, 2005; Ozturk, 2007; Lores, 2004; Kanaksilapatham, 2005; Bruce, 2009, for instance). Samraj (2005) came up with a closer similarity in terms of function and organization between research article introductions and abstracts in Conservation Biology than was the case with Wild Life Behavior articles.

Peacock (2002) analyzed the moves used in discussion sections of RAs in seven disciplines namely, Physics, Biology, Environmental Science, Business, Language and Linguistics, Public and Social Administration, and Law, using Dudley Evans's (1994) model for Discussion sections of RAs, and they offered a revised version of Dudley Evans's

- (1994) model which is given below:
1. information move (background about theory/research aims/methodology)
 2. finding (with or without a reference to a graph or table)
 3. expected or unexpected outcome(comment on whether the result is expected or not)
 4. reference to previous research
 5. explanation (reasons for expected or unexpected results)
 6. claim [contribution to research (sometimes with recommendations for action)]
 7. limitation
 8. recommendation (suggestions for future research).

The three-part framework and move cycle series are:

Introduction (moves 1, or 2, or 6)

Evaluation (the key move cycles are 2+4, 2+6, 3+4, and 3+5. Other less common cycles are 6+4 and 4+6)

Conclusion (moves 2+6, or 8, or 8+6, or 7+6).

The corpus in Peacock's (2002) study, which consisted of 252 articles comprising a 1.4 million word corpus, adds more value to the findings of his study. Not all the move analysis studies are done on RAs, for example, Ding (2007) analyzed 30 medical/dental school application letters using both a hand-tagged move analysis and computerized analysis of text features, and he offered five recurrent moves, namely, explaining the reason to pursue the proposed study, establishing credentials related to the fields of medicine/dentistry, discussing relevant life experience, stating future career goals, and describing personality. Studies such as Ding (2007) help the researchers understand and sometimes redefine limits and horizons of ESP.

Of the studies done on RAs in Applied Linguistics, Tseng (2011) is more important. He examined 90 research articles from Applied Linguistics for their move structure and verb tense, and found a pattern for verb tense in each move. The researcher also found that there is variation between abstracts written by Native and Non-Native researchers.

Yaghoubi and Tarlani (2012), examined 40 RAs in Applied Linguistics, 20 of which were written by Native and 20 ones by non-native Researchers using Swales' (1999) model for introduction sections of RAs, found that Native and Non-Native writers show different trends in their application of the moves.

In another study, Kanaksilapatham (2005) employed Swales' model for the moves used in articles and concluded that the moves are present in the articles, and the only thing that variation was observed was the clustering of the moves. The primary departure from Swales model lied in the patterns of cyclical configuration between moves. One other famous line of research on RAs has focused on the ethnicities and linguistic background of the writers in one single discipline, and tried to see if native or non-native writers vary significantly in their employment of the moves and traditional categories. Taylor and Chen (1991) conducted a study on RAs considering the nativity variable and they observed systematic variation in using the moves, they proposed that the observed variation was due to the interconnected discourse structures and "culturo-linguistic systems" (p. 319). Ansarin and Rashidi (2009) in a study on the abstracts by college students in the field of Applied Linguistics, their study showed that the macro-structures employed in the abstracts were bound by idiosyncratic characteristics of the ethnic group, for whom the texts are written, rather than by the conventions of the authors' native language writing culture. These and several other studies have been the movements which triggered the avalanche of contrastive studies on rhetoric and writing "examines differences and similarities in ESL and EFL writing across languages and cultures" (Connor, 2002, p. 493). As a result of this prioritization of rhetorical studies Atkinson (2004) along with several other researchers beats the drum for more attention to culture as an important variable in contrastive studies of writings. As Flowerdew (2002) puts it, contrastive analysis of writings by students and specialists in different academic fields points to the discrepancies in how information is cobbled together in a piece of writing in different languages and cultures. In other words, it brings to light "vast complexities of the cultural, social, situational and contextual factors affecting a writing situation (Connor, 2004, p. 304). Another profound effect of Contrastive study of Writings and texts was that it helped understand and elaborate on different cultural conventions which come to play in writing. However, it is natural to expect some culture specific peculiarities in the text production.

Different models have been suggested for different parts of papers by different scholars. The present study makes use of Dudley-Evans's Model for Research Articles Discussion Sections. According to this model, discussion parts of research articles are generally made up of the following moves:

1. Information move (background about theory/research aims/methodology)
2. Statement of result (either a numerical value or reference to a graph or table)
3. Finding (same as statement of result, but without a reference to a graph or table)
4. (Un)expected outcome (a comment on whether the result is expected or not)
5. Reference to previous research
6. Explanation (reasons for unexpected results)
7. Claim (a generalization arising from the results: contribution to research)
8. Limitation
9. Recommendation (suggestions for future research).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The researchers tried to answer the following research questions:

1. How the moves are employed in the Conclusion sections of RAs in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics?
2. How the moves are employed by Native and Non-Native researchers in the Conclusion sections of RAs?
3. Is there any significance difference between the Conclusion sections of RAs in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics as far as the Application of moves in their Conclusion sections is concerned?
4. Is there any significance difference between the Native and Non-Native researchers' application of moves?
5. Do the two neighboring sections, i.e., discussion and Conclusion of RAs, share any of the moves used in their structure?

METHODOLOGY

Corpus

The corpus for this study includes forty RAs, twenty ones in the field of Mechanical Engineering, ten of which were selected from Iranian journals written by EFL speakers and ten of them were chosen from the large pool of RAs written by Native English speakers. The same number of RAs was selected from Applied Linguistics in a way that ten of them were written by Native and the other ten were written by non-native Iranian researchers. In selecting the articles, the researchers did their utmost effort to meet Nwogu's (1997) three criteria, namely, representativeness, reputation, and accessibility. This means, the selected articles were almost representative of the genre (research articles) in content (all the articles were also controlled for their topics to prevent any incongruity that might distort the result of the study) in the two fields of Applied Linguistics and Mechanical Engineering. Regarding reputation requirement, it can be claimed that all English journals had strong international stance and with regard to Persian journals, they were all peer-reviewed and most cited journals in Iran. And finally, the ease with which the articles could be accessed contributed to the realization of the accessibility criterion.

All English articles which were written by native English writers were randomly selected from the five most leading international journals in the fields (namely, Applied Linguistics, English for Specific Purposes, Journal of Second Language Writing, Journal English for Academic Purposes, TESOL Quarterly, and System) whereas English articles written by native Persian writers were mostly published in English journals published in Iran. The publication period was from 2002 to 2012.

Instrument

Dudley Evans's (1994) model for the moves employed in discussion sections of RAs was employed to analyze the Conclusion and Implications sections of RAs. Since there was no previously developed model for final sections of RAs, the researchers had to make use of a similar model. As Swales (1999) contends, in RAs the researchers seem to sum up the findings that they have discussed in the discussion section of the Conclusion section of RAs. So, due to the similarity of the two sections, and also the fact the cycle introduced in discussion section contained a Conclusion cycle, the researchers made use of Dudley Evans's (1994) model in investigating the moves employed in Conclusion and Implication sections of RAs. He also introduced cycles which are made of different combinations of moves mentioned above.

Data Analysis

Two raters rated the articles based on Dudley Evans's (1994) model in a two week period of time. Inter-rater reliability of 0.9, which is a good index of reliability, was calculated for the raters, implying that the raters performed their jobs quite consistently.

Longer articles were included in very few cases where moves represented comparable patterns. The unit of analysis was the sentence though there were moves that were represented by multiple sentential units. In such cases, the whole group of the sentences was assigned to one move. After the moves were analyzed, a frequency count and also a chi-square analysis were run to answer the research questions which were of the two types of qualitative and quantitative.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the first research question about how the moves are employed in Conclusion sections of RAs in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics, the researchers did a frequency count in the RAs in two fields.

Table 1: Frequency of Moves in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics

	Move 1	Move 2	Move 3	Move 4	Move 5	Move 6	Move 7	Move 8	Move 9
Applied Linguistics	17 85%	3 15%	18 90%	4 20%	6 30%	3 10%	14 70%	4 20%	11 55 %
Mechanical Engineering	18 90%	5 25%	18 90%	4 20%	2 10%	0	6 30%	0 0%	7 35%

As Table 1 shows, all the moves have been employed in all the RAs of two fields. However, moves 2, 5, 6, and 7 suggest a meaningful point regarding the two disciplines.

Moves 2 which is the statement of the result, is used more often in Mechanical Engineering RAs' Conclusion sections than in Applied Linguistics, which suggests that in most cases the researchers in Applied Linguistics avoid direct mentioning of the results; while as shown by the frequency of the move, the researchers in Mechanical Engineering tend to be more explicit in reporting the results of their study.

Reference to previous study, i.e., move 5 shown in Table 1, has been used 6 times in Applied Linguistics and 2 times in Mechanical Engineering RAs. This might suggest that writers in Applied Linguistics have an inclination to refer more to the previous studies, or probably, they attach more importance to the related studies than scholars in the field of Mechanical Engineering.

Move 6, i.e., reasoning for the unexpected results, has a zero frequency in RAs in Mechanical Engineering, which can be considered quite justifiable, due to the hardness of the field in that, in Hard sciences there are relatively less unexpected results. But the same move, having the frequency of 3 in Applied Linguistics points to differences between the two fields. However, a word of caution is necessary because these findings might have deviations from the truth if larger samples are assigned to the study.

Claiming is the next move which is of remarkable significance, since its frequency is so different in the two fields under study. Move 7, i.e., generalization from the results, has been used 14 times in the twenty Applied Linguistics RAs equaling to 70 percent of the time; it is worthy of notice that the same number for Mechanical Engineering RAs is 6, which is 40 percent lower.

This suggests that in Applied Linguistics, the researchers are apparently more willing to generalize than their counterparts in Mechanical Engineering.

To give a better presentation of the moves employed in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics a Bar Chart has been provided in Figure 2 below.

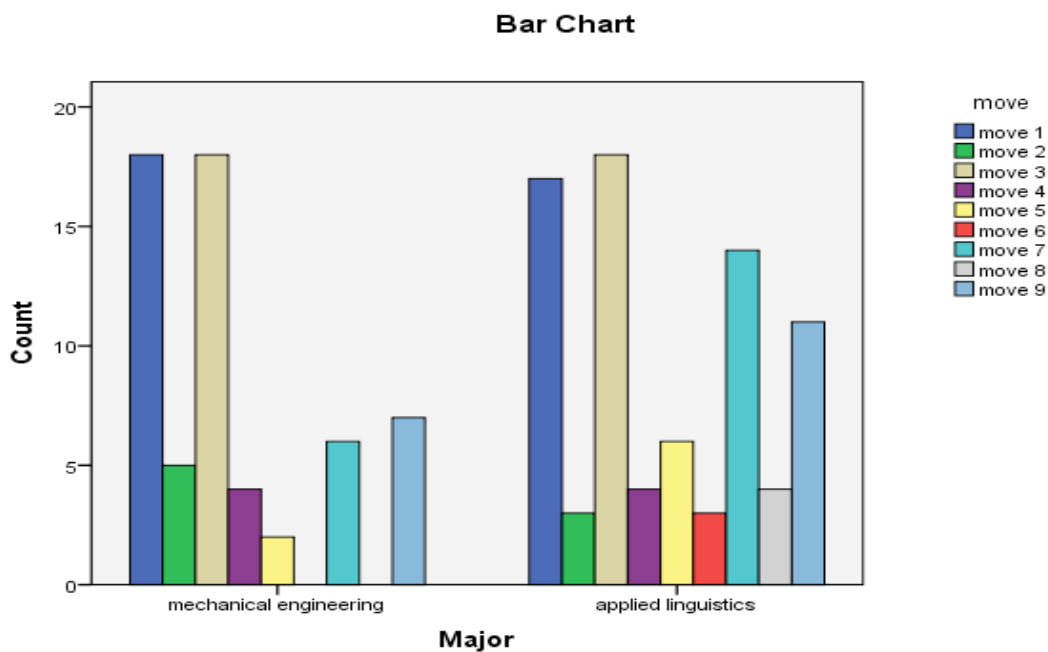


Figure 2: Moves employed in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics RAs Conclusion.

To answer the second Research Question, i.e., how Native and Non-Native researchers in the two fields used the moves in the Conclusion sections of RAs, the moves were counted, and the results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Moves Employed by Native and Non-Native Researchers

	Move 1	Move 2	Move 3	Move 4	Move 5	Move 6	Move 7	Move 8	Move 9
Native	19 95%	3 15%	18 90%	4 20%	6 30%	1 5%	10 50 %	2 10%	10 50%
Non-native	16 80%	5 25%	18 90%	4 20%	2 10%	2 10%	10 50%	2 10%	8 40%

Figure 3 provides a more lucid description of the moves employed by Native and Non-Native Writers below:

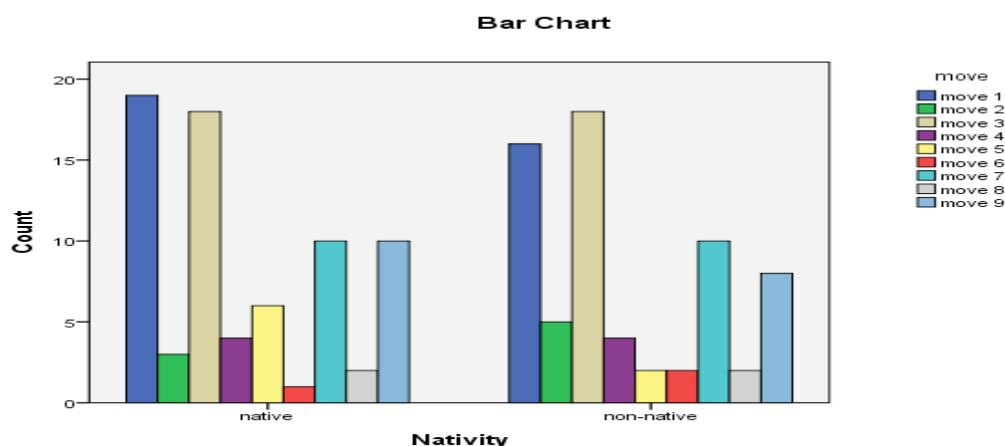


Figure 3: Moves employed by Native and Non-Native writers.

With regard to Research Question three that was concerned with whether a significant difference existed between Native and Non-Native writers in their application of the moves in the Conclusion sections of RAs, A Chi-Square test was performed to determine if Native and Non-Native speakers of English had used different moves in the Conclusion parts of research articles. It was found that there was not a significant difference between Native speakers and Non-Native speakers as far as the use of moves in the Conclusion section of RAs are concerned, $\chi^2(8, N=140) = 3.06, p>.05$.

Table 3: Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.984 ^a	8	.203
Likelihood Ratio	13.652	8	.091
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.038	1	.025
N of Valid Cases	140		
a. 10 cells (55.6%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.29.			

Another chi-Square analysis was run to see if there is a significant difference in the application of the moves between the RAs in Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics. As can be seen by the frequencies cross tabulated in Table 4, there is not a significant difference between the use of moves in the Conclusion section of RAs in Applied Linguistics and Mechanical Engineering, $\chi^2(8, N = 140) = .20, p>.05$. This suggests that it is not statistically improbable that the results may have happened by chance.

Table 4: Chi-Square Tests

Tests	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.061 ^a	8	.930
Likelihood Ratio	3.161	8	.924
Linear-by-Linear Association	.033	1	.856
N of Valid Cases	140		

As the results show, there is a great deal of similarity between the Discussion and Conclusion sections, as the two neighboring final sections in RAs. They shared many of the moves in their structures. Information, finding, claim, (de)limitation, recommendation, and implications moves were found in the Conclusion sections, suggesting that the two neighboring sections, namely, Discussion and Conclusion shared these moves.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The researchers in the current study compared the moves in the Conclusion sections of RAs in the two fields of Mechanical Engineering and Applied Linguistics, which represented Soft and Hard sciences. The framework for this move analysis was the model for the Discussion sections of RAs proposed by Dudley Evans (1994).

With regard to the findings of the this study, Dudley Evans (1994) model needs to be modified to suit the analysis of Conclusion sections of RAs, since discussion sections are not usually the last sections as observed ; this finding is in line with Peacock (2002) who also concluded that Dudley Evans's (1994) model needed revision and improvement.

Although statistical analysis did not show any significant difference between Native and Non-Native writers in their application of the moves in the Conclusion sections of RAs, mother tongue is believed to be a presumably influential factor in employing the moves.

The results also did not show any significant difference between moves in RAs of Native and Non-Native researchers. The data also shed light on the short-coming of the Model proposed by Dudley Evans (1994), because move 1 had not been predicted by the Model.

Taking the findings of the present study into account, the following Model for the Conclusion sections of RAs is suggested. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that the corpus for this study was comprised of 40 RAs, which might be considered relatively small for a claim like this which needs to be rectified in future related studies.

Information move (background about theory/research aims/methodology)

Finding (same as statement of result with/without reference to a graph or table)

Claim (a generalization arising from the result)

(De)limitation

Recommendation (suggestions for further research)

Implications.

Move 6 is an optional move which is usually employed in RAs in which there is a single unified section titled Conclusion and Implications.

Actually, the study did not face any major limitations; however, there were certain delimitations which need to be taken into account in the interpretation of the findings. Due to the limitations in the available resources and time pressure, the researchers could not afford to include greater number of papers from each given Field in the analysis, a fact which could have altered the results of the study. Another delimitation of the study was taking only two fields of study in the analysis, i.e., one from the hard sciences and another from the soft sciences.

Based on the findings of this study the following researches are suggested:

1. Other fields belonging to Hard and Soft scientific territories can be compared for their move structure in the Conclusion sections.
2. Courses related to composition of RAs in universities can be closely examined to find out any probable relationships between teaching writing and the moves used in the actual production of the learners.

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CONTENT-BASED SECOND LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

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ABSTRACT

Content-Based Instruction has been described as a new paradigm in language education, centered on fostering student competence in a second or foreign language while advancing in the knowledge of a subject matter. This approach is widely used in an extensive number of contexts and educational settings all over the world in a variety of models. Some of the most common ones in foreign language education at post-secondary level are theme-based courses, adjunct/linked courses, sheltered subject matter instruction, and second language medium courses. This paper aims at offering a conceptual description of the main characteristics, specific applications, and perceived effectiveness of CBI together with its different models as these were reported in the literature available. Additionally the comparison of CBI with immersion approaches was presented.

KEYWORDS: Content-Based Instruction, adjunct/linked courses, sheltered subject matter instruction, second language medium courses, immersion approach

INTRODUCTION

Learning a language through a syllabus based on academic content (as opposed to one based merely on linguistic or even communicative objectives) offers students an extraordinary educational opportunity since it provides a rich learning environment. Although it is usually unadvisable to do two things at the same time, in the case of language learning it is perhaps sometimes best. Nunan (1989, 125) defines content-based syllabuses by explaining that “many of the courses and textbooks for English for Specific Purposes take as their point of departure content or topics from other subject areas. Another example of content-based courses are the foreign language immersion programs in which school students learn math, science, history etc. through the target language. In a sense, as language is used as a vehicle to talk about other things, all language classes have a content dimension”. While content-based language learning courses are quite common in the ESL programs of countries where English is the native language it is often used as a supplement or in some cases as an alternative to traditional language programs in places where English is normally taught as a foreign language.

THE CONTENT-BASED SYLLABUS

As an approach to second and foreign language teaching, content-based instruction is a relative newcomer to the field; its application in the educational context, however, is not completely revolutionary for it grows out of its origins in immersion education in Canada from the 1960s and later in English for specific purposes programs. It first appeared, however, on the general language teaching scene in the mid-to-late 1980s, and has gained increasing popularity and wider applicability in the last ten years. This prominence can be easily perceived in the wide range of contexts, educational stages and content areas involved. Regarding contexts, although most of the cases reported refer to settings within North America, there are also numerous references to the application of the model in countries other than US and Canada. With regard to the plurality of educational levels in which CBI can be used, the paradigm has proved to be a valid approach for language teaching at all stages of instruction, from primary school to university levels, both in second and foreign language teaching situations. In terms of content fields, a wide number of courses and programs have been developed to advance language learning while developing content knowledge in different academic areas.

In concept, content-based teaching is simple. It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is primary and language learning occurs incidentally to the content learning. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice-versa. In practice, many programs using a content-based approach have also included an instructional component specifically focusing on the target language, but such specific language instruction is not regarded as the primary contributor to target language acquisition.

Accordingly, courses in these programs require an integrated rather than a discrete skill approach. That is, learners “use” language to learn about a topic, make presentations, write reports, and debate related issues rather than “learn” reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills. The rationale is that the students will “learn language through content” as a result of “learning content through language” (Chapple & Curtis, 2000). The distinction is similar to the contrast between “project-based” language learning, in which language is learned incidentally as students engage in projects such as producing a play or radio program, on the one hand, and “task-based” language learning, in which fun and interesting activities are designed as vehicles to achieve specific language learning goals.

The theory of language assumed by content-based instruction embraces the full range of communicative competence, including a structural competent (grammatical competence especially in school settings and in school discourse), and strategic competence, again as it relates to academic activities. It is a use-based theory of language that sees language as arising from the settings in which it is used. Content-based learning does not clearly distinguish form and function in teaching language but makes the new language available in the contexts of its functions and meanings (Marinova, Marshall & Snow, 2000).

THE RATIONALE OF CBI

Content-based instruction (CBI) bases its rationale on the premise that students can effectively obtain both language and subject matter knowledge by receiving content input in the target language. The benefits of the approach are directly or indirectly associated with an extensive body of research from a variety of fields. Strong empirical support for CBI can be found in second language acquisition research, in training studies and in cognitive psychology, as well as in the outcomes documented by successful programs in a variety of contexts and levels of instruction (Adamson 1993). Grabe and Stoller (1997) suggest seven rationales for CBI that can be summarized in the following points:

1. In content-based classrooms, students are exposed to a considerable amount of language while learning content. This incidental language should be comprehensible, linked to their immediate prior learning and relevant to their needs. In content-based classrooms, teachers and students explore interesting content while students are engaged in appropriate language-dependent activities. The resultant language learning activities, therefore, are not artificial or meaningless exercises.
2. CBI supports contextualized learning; students are taught useful language that is embedded within relevant discourse contexts rather than as isolated language fragments. Thus, CBI allows for explicit language instruction, integrated with content instruction, in a relevant and purposeful context.
3. The use of coherently developed content sources allows students to call on their own prior knowledge to learn additional language and content material.
4. In a content-based classroom, students are exposed to complex information and are involved in demanding activities which can lead to intrinsic motivation.
5. CBI lends itself well to strategy instruction and practice, as theme units naturally require and recycle important strategies across varying content and learning tasks.
6. CBI allows greater flexibility and adaptability to be built into the curriculum and activity sequences.
7. CBI lends itself to student-centered classroom activities.

COMPARISON AND CONTRAST BETWEEN CONTENT-BASED APPROACH AND IMMERSION APPROACH

The most salient example of a content-driven language program is immersion, an educational model most commonly found in elementary schools where students are educated in a non-native language. The focus of instruction is on content; it is expected that students will master the regular school curriculum, even though they are learning it in a language that is new to them. Elementary school immersion programs depend on parents voluntarily enrolling their children, and few programs would survive if they did not produce expected levels of academic achievement. In total immersion, the entire school curriculum is taught initially through the foreign language, with content instruction in the L1 gradually increasing through the grades; in partial immersion, at least half the school day is spent learning school subjects in another language.

Although immersion programs also aim to produce students with oral and written proficiency in a foreign language, in many immersion programs little explicit instruction in the foreign language is included in the curriculum. While students do learn to read in the foreign language, and a “language arts” component provides for instruction in some aspects of language (e.g., how to write for a variety of purposes and audiences), there is often little attention paid to the language elements more commonly found in foreign language programs. That is, there may not be a foreign language curriculum, with defined learning objectives or specific content (functions, vocabulary, grammar, discourse or social competencies, etc.). Rather, the language that students acquire emerges from content instruction and from the day-to-day interactions between teacher and students or among students themselves. Immersion programs, whether partial or total, are often judged successful based on student attainment of content, and may be deemed effective even though the levels of language proficiency students attain are not native-like.

Clearly, then, immersion programs, both total and partial, place heavy emphasis on content learning in many subjects and the acquisition of language plays a secondary role. Immersion serves as an exemplar for the concept of “content-driven language program” (Brown, 1994). However, there are some differences between immersion and content-based approach.

The biggest difference between an immersion approach and a content-based approach is the emphasis on time during which students are exposed to the target language. In a total immersion program, students must spend all of their time studying in the target language. In a partial immersion program, students spend approximately fifty percent of school time in the target language. On the other hand, a content-based approach does not require such extensive periods of exposure time to the target language to reach its goals. Some schools may have only one content-based class. However, the goals of a hard content-based approach and an immersion approach are similar. The main goal of the hard content-based approach or “strong content-based approach” as it is called by Brown (1994) is to teach the content matter to students who assume that class will emphasize content. Some of the goals of the immersion approach stated by Krashen (1975) are the same as goals of the content-based approach. These shared goals are below:

1. Developing a high level of proficiency in the foreign language
2. Gaining skills and knowledge in the content areas of the curriculum in keeping with stated objectives in these areas

PROTOTYPE MODELS OF CBI

It is in post-secondary education that CBI probably offers the richest variety of proposals in terms of creativity, functionality, and overall usefulness in view of the further applicability of the gained outcomes. Among the most common variations in foreign language education at the post-secondary level, four models are commonly considered; theme-based courses (TB), adjunct/linked courses (AL), sheltered subject matter instruction (SSM), and second language medium courses (SLM).

Theme-based Courses (TB)

Theme-based courses constitute the most common model in CBI thanks to its relative lack of complexity for implementation, as language instructors operate autonomously from the rest of the faculty and there is no demand for organizational or administrative adjustments. In TB, it is a language teacher, and not a subject specialist, that is responsible for teaching content. The foreign language syllabus in TB courses is organized either around different topics within a particular discipline, or including a number of individual topics associated with relevant general theme or content area. In both cases, themes are the central ideas that organize major curricular units; thus they have to be chosen to be appropriate to student academic and cognitive interests and needs, content resources, educational aims, and institutional demands and expectations. Normally, a course deals with several topics along its progression. Thus a typical TB course consists of a number of sub-units focused on different topics which explore more specific aspects or different perspectives of the general theme. In general terms, topics should be arranged to provide maximum coherence for theme unit, and to generate range of opportunities to explore both content and language. Each course is, in short, a sequence of topics linked together by the assumption of a coherent overall theme.

Courses designed according to the TB approach usually feature a variety of text types and discourse samples, combining oral input including teacher presentations, video sequences, recorded passages and guest lecture talks

with written materials including news articles, essays, informative excerpts and literary passages. Another key characteristic of these courses is the interest in the concept of integrated skills. Although the topics presented are commonly grounded on listening or reading, the oral passage or written text always serves as an optimal foundation for further exploring other areas like grammar, vocabulary, language awareness, as well as for acting as springboards for the practice of productive skills, making presentations and oral reports, engaging in discussions and debates, giving oral or written response to questions or issues associated to the topics, writing summaries and commentaries. Different skills and language analysis are therefore integrated around the selected topics in a meaningful, coherent and interwoven manner.

Adjunct/Linked Courses (AL)

AL courses constitute a more sophisticated pattern for the integration of language and content, as they are not developed on their own, but assisting an existing discipline class. The AL model aims at connecting a specially designed language course with a regular academic course. AL courses are taught to students who are simultaneously enrolled in the regular content course, but who lack the necessary competence to follow the course successfully unless some additional aid is provided. Both the regular discipline and the adjunct course share a common content base, but differ in the focus of instruction; whereas the content instructor focuses on academic concepts, the language teacher emphasizes language skills using the academic content as a background for contextualizing the language learning process. The adjunct courses work therefore as support classes for regular subject matter courses, and offer excellent opportunities to develop the academic strategies necessary to cope with real academic content. First of all, the language component of the course is directly linked to the students' academic needs and so, they can get help revising notes, writing assignments, preparing for tests, etc. as well as advancing in the conceptual background necessary to understand the content material. Additionally, the fact that the course deals with real academic subject matter in which students must earn a passing grade in the parallel course, helps to increase motivation in terms of mastering both the language and the content.

Although the benefits of these courses are reported as remarkable, the implementation of the AL model demands organizational requirements and coordination efforts that may exceed the possibilities of many institutions. Synchronization between instructors is essential: the syllabi of the two classes have to be negotiated with respect to each other, although it is typical that the discipline course provides the point of departure for the language class, dictating both the content and its progression. In this regard, Lonon-Blanton asserted that "as it is obvious, this model requires a willing interaction and co-ordination among teachers in different disciplines and across academic units and for that reason, may be administratively difficult to arrange" (1992, 287).

Sheltered subject-matter instruction (SSM)

"A sheltered content-based course is taught in a second language by a content specialist to a group of learners who have been segregated or "sheltered" from native speakers" (Brinton, Snow & Wesche 1989, 15). The term "sheltered" derives from the model's deliberate separation of second language students from native speakers of the target language for the purpose of content instruction. In sheltered subject-matter instruction, the class is commonly taught by content instructor, not a language teacher; this content instructor however, has to be sensitized to the students' language needs and abilities, and has to be familiarized with the traits of the language acquisition process. Nevertheless, some authors mention the possibility that the instructor may be a language teacher with subject matter knowledge, or an instructor working collaboratively with a language specialist and a content specialist (Gaffield-Vile, 1996). In order to meet the desired effect, there has to be an accommodation of the instruction to the students' level of proficiency in the language; content, however, is not watered down, and includes the same components as a regular subject course. Although the main characteristic of the model is facilitating the development of language abilities for students to meet the course aims, it has to be kept in mind that the overall purpose of SSM courses is content learning rather than language learning, so this model constitutes one of the "strong" paradigms within the general framework of CBI.

Authors agree that, when properly conducted, sheltered courses can offer a very effective approach for integrating language development and content learning for students whose language abilities may not yet be developed enough for them to progress successfully in demanding content courses designed for native speakers. A drawback for the implementation of courses of this kind however, would be the difficulty to find either content specialist familiarized

with the needs and demands of students with limited operational capability in the language of instruction, or language instructor with the adequate background for teaching real content disciplines at university level.

Second language medium courses (SLM)

A fourth option which is not always strictly considered as a model in CBI, but which is somehow related to the philosophy of the paradigm is what constitutes “second language medium courses” (SLM), which are advanced regular academic courses in particular disciplines (history, economy, psychology, etc.). In these cases, language aims are not contemplated as part of the curricular formulations of the given courses; in fact classes of this kind normally proceed without specific instructional emphasis on language analysis and practice, and without making adjustments to fit the discourse to the level of proficiency of students. The context, however, provides valuable opportunities for language learning as it involves intensive exposure to highly contextualized language of particular relevance to the academic interest of students. The students, therefore manage to advance their language competence by developing receptive and productive skills though in an unplanned, unsystematic way.

CONCLUSION

Content-Based Instruction has been put into practice throughout the last decades in a variety of language learning educational contexts and levels. Content-based approaches suggest that optimal conditions for learning a second/foreign language occur when both the target language and some meaningful content are integrated in the classroom, the language therefore being both an immediate object of study in itself and a medium for learning a particular subject matter. In content-based language teaching, therefore, teachers use content topics rather than grammar rules, vocabulary spheres, operative functions or contextual situations as the framework for instruction. As it has been exposed, CBI enjoys an increasing attention in all educational contexts. Moreover, as Wesche and Skehan point out, “it is likely to continue to flourish in contexts where learners have a clear need to develop their academic second language skills” (2002, 228). Despite the perceived differences in their orientation and immediate aims, all the models described in this paper share the view of language as a medium for learning content, and content as a resource for learning language. Although the outcomes of each individual course or program will depend on fulfillment of the necessary conditions and on the details of its implementation, the overall results of CBI in the different models have proved to be effective, motivating, and particularly advantageous for language students. This study may offer implications for language teachers as well as syllabus and material designers. It suggests them not to solely rely on language driven instruction and introduce content driven instruction where it is felt appropriate in the context of curriculum. In so doing, they can foster a meaningful context for language instruction as well as higher order thinking skills, making the learning context a motivating one. Although the design and implementation of CBI may be challenging in terms of teacher skill and balance between language and content, the results are proved to be promising.

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BIO DATA

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VIDEO-DRIVEN PROMPTS: A VIABLE PRAGMATIC CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING APPROACH IN EFL/ESL CLASSROOMS

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ABSTRACT

Recent research in interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) has substantiated that some aspects of pragmatics are amenable to instruction in the second or foreign language classroom, and that explicit teaching interventions are more fruitful to enhance both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic awareness. However, there are still controversies over the most conducive teaching approaches and the required materials. Therefore, the present paper is a review of the concept of pragmatics within the construct of communicative competence, issues being addressed within ILP, pragmatic consciousness-raising, and the challenges and dilemmas facing EFL/ESL learners and teachers. It mainly aims at materials developers and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers by illuminating some of the advantages of video-driven prompts as an influential source of input to sensitize learners' sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence.

KEYWORDS: Communicative competence, Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence, Pragmatic consciousness-raising

INTRODUCTION

The significance of pragmatic competence within the construct of communicative competence has been widely acknowledged in various models of communicative competence (Bachman, 1990; Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995). Pragmatic studies have focused on three strands of research, namely whether the targeted pragmatic feature is teachable at all; whether instruction in the targeted feature is more effective than no instruction, and whether different teaching approaches are differentially effective (Kasper & Roever, 2005). There is a widespread consensus that pragmatics in EFL/ESL contexts is teachable. A solid body of research substantiates that educational interventions have been successful at enhancing pragmatic ability (Alcón & Martí'nez-Flor, 2005; Birjandi & Derakhshan, 2014; Birjandi, Khatib, Fahim, & Derakhshan, in press; Eslami-Rasekh & Eslami-Rasekh, 2008; Eslami-Rasekh, Eslami-Rasekh, Fatahi, 2004; Rose, 2005; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Zangoei & Derakhshan, 2014). Similarly, as to the second issue, the pendulum has swung towards instruction. However, the third issue, i.e. whether different teaching approaches are differentially effective, has been a controversial area of research.

One cause of such controversy refers to the nature of input fed to EFL/ESL learners. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996) demonstrate that the pragmatic input, i.e. requests teachers made to students, was status-bound; consequently, they could not serve as direct models for the learner. Research conducted in an EFL context unearths that the range of speech acts and realization strategies is marginalized, and that the typical interaction patterns, i.e. IRF, impose inherent limitations on pragmatic input and opportunities for practicing discourse organization strategies (Alcon, 2005; Kasper, 2001; Lo'rscher & Schulze, 1988). In addition, Eslami-Rasekh et al. (2004) and Rose (1999) lay stress on the fact that large classes, limited contact hours and little opportunity for intercultural communication are some of the factors that impede pragmatic learning.

It is believed that video-driven prompts are beneficial sources of input which can help learners create their own interlanguage pragmatics. Alternatively, Crandall and Basturkmen (2004) stipulate that textbook conversations do not cater sufficient pragmatic input. In a similar vein, a solid body of research findings documents that textbook conversations are not a reliable source of pragmatic input (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan, & Reynolds, 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Gilmore, 2004).

As a result of the challenges and difficulties facing EFL/ESL teachers and learners, the use of audio-visual materials have drawn considerable attention in ILP studies. Washburn (2001), Rose (1997), and Grant and Starks (2001) are appreciative of the fact that both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness are difficult for EFL learners. Therefore, the authors believe that the use of authentic audio-visual materials is legitimized to be drawn upon in these contexts. On par with these authors, our experience shows that due to the scarcity of native speakers, naturalistic input is not accessible inside and outside the classroom, and that textbooks cannot simulate and authenticate real life situations; therefore, the use of video-driven prompts hold a great promise to bring real life to the classroom and to be able to raise learners' sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic awareness.

PRAGMATICS WITHIN THE CONSTRUCT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

The construct of communicative competence and its various subcomponents have been described by different scholars in the field of applied linguistics. Inspired by Hymes's (1971, 1972) postulations, it was Canale and Swain (1980) who posited the first and the most influential model of what they called "communicative competence" as comprising grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discoursal knowledge. Within this model, the sociolinguistic component implicitly encompasses pragmatics, as it refers to the rules of discourse and rules of use. The concept of communicative competence then went under some adaptations in Canale's (1983) expanded model in which the notion of grammatical competence remains unchanged from the definition proposed by Canale and Swain (1980), but significant changes are made to the definition of other competences. Sociolinguistic competence now refers only to sociocultural rules, and the rules of discourse have been subsumed under a discourse competence. Sociolinguistic competence is further defined as the appropriateness of meaning and of form, thus incorporating *pragmatics*. The new category of discourse competence is also defined as the ability to produce a unified spoken or written text in different genres using cohesion in form and coherence in meaning (Canale, 1983, p. 9).

However, it was Bachman (1990) who explicitly subsumes the pragmatic component under the rubric of 'pragmatic competence'. The author makes a distinction between organizational and pragmatic competence. On the one hand, organizational competence refers to those abilities involved in the production and identification of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, and also in understanding their meaning and in arranging them to form texts. These abilities are subcategorized into grammatical and textual competences. In Bachman's (1990) model, on the other hand, pragmatic competence is perceived as dealing with the relationship between utterances and the acts performed through these utterances, as well as with the features of the context that promote appropriate language use. The relationship between utterances and acts concerns the illocutionary force, whereas the context has to do with those sociolinguistic conventions involved in using the language (Alcón & Martínez-Flor, 2008). In a rather similar line of inquiry, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) refer to pragmatic competence as actional competence, consisting of knowledge of language functions and of knowledge of speech act sets. More specifically, emphasis is paid to the pragmalinguistic aspects of language. Moreover, they include the sociocultural component as part of their construct of communicative competence. Sociocultural competence, according to them, refers to knowledge about appropriate use within particular social and cultural contexts of communication.

All these models and conceptualizations have greatly shed light on our understanding of ILP and its relevance to SLA. Inspired by SLA principles, the following definition by Kasper and Rose (2002) explicates the interdisciplinary or 'hybrid' nature (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p. 3) of interlanguage pragmatics as belonging both to pragmatics and SLA well:

As the study of second language use, interlanguage pragmatics examines how nonnative speakers comprehend and produce action in a target language. As the study of second language learning, interlanguage pragmatics investigates how L2 learners develop the ability to understand and perform action in a target language. (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 5)

The above definition illustrates that Kasper and Rose's (2002) definition puts a great premium upon two important aspects of interlanguage pragmatics research. Firstly, it highlights that production and comprehension are two sides of the same coin and both of them are part of language learners' pragmatic competence in their L2. Therefore, second/foreign language learners do not only have to be able to produce utterances that are regarded as contextually

appropriate by their target audience, they also have to be aware of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior in a variety of social situations in their L2. This shows the link between culture and pragmatic competence in a second/foreign language (Schauer, 2009). Secondly, the second part of Kasper and Rose's definition of interlanguage pragmatics emphasizes that interlanguage pragmatics is also concerned with the *development of pragmatic competence*.

Kasper and Roever (2005) bring to the fore the tremendous challenge that learners encounter in acquiring the pragmatics of a second language because "they have to learn not only how to do things with target language words but also how communicative actions and the "words" that implement them are both responsive to and shape situations, activities, and social relations" (p. 317). Following Leech's (1983) demarcation, these two domains of pragmatic competence are referred to as *sociopragmatic* and *pragmalinguistic* competence. The former encompasses knowledge of the relationship between communicative action and power, social distance, and the imposition associated with the past and future (Brown & Levinson, as cited in Kasper & Roever 2005, p. 317), knowledge of mutual rights and obligations, taboos, and conventional practices (Thomas, 1983), and the social conditions and consequences of "what you do, when and to whom" (Fraser, Rintal & Walters, as cited in Kasper & Roever, 2005, p. 317). The latter, on the other hand, comprises the knowledge and ability to use conventions of means (such as strategies to realize speech acts) and conventions of form (such as the linguistic forms implementing speech act strategies) (Thomas, 1983).

ISSUES BEING ADDRESSED IN ILP RESEARCH IN EFL/ESL CONTEXTS

From cognitive-psychological and socio-psychological perspectives, interlanguage pragmatics research has investigated how factors such as *input*, *noticing* and *understanding*, *L2 proficiency*, *transfer*, and *individual differences* affect ILP development. Given this, Kasper and Roever (2005), in a seminal paper, recapitulate that three major questions have been great areas of interest in ILP research which are as follows:

1. *Whether the targeted pragmatic feature is teachable at all;*
2. *Whether instruction in the targeted feature is more effective than no instruction;*
3. *Whether different teaching approaches are differentially effective.*

The results of a host of studies have substantiated that most aspects of L2 pragmatics are amenable to instruction, and that instructional intervention is more beneficial than no interventional treatments (Alcón, & Martí'nez-Flor, 2005; Kasper & Roever, 2005; Rose, 2005; Rose & Kasper, 2001). As to the third question, the findings are more revealing corroborating that providing learners with explicit metapragmatic instruction yields more effective learning outcomes than providing them with implicit target input (e.g., House, 1996; Rose, 2005; Rose & Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). Rose (2005) reviewing these three questions concludes that "the research provides ample evidence demonstrating the teachability of pragmatic features" (p.392). Rose (2005) summarizes that most studies comparing the effectiveness of different teaching approaches select two types of pedagogical intervention, and in all cases the intervention could be construed as explicit versus implicit, and "the main characteristic distinguishing one group from another was the provision of metapragmatic information designed to make the target features more salient"(p. 392). Analogous to the second question, the instruction versus exposure studies, and interventional research on different teaching approaches also provide support for noticing: in most cases, learners who received explicit instruction in the form of metapragmatic information regarding the target features outperformed those who did not. Although there is a general consensus that students who received explicit instruction outperformed the ones with no such a thing, it was not the case that every study comparing two (or more) approaches to instruction found that provision of metapragmatic information produced better results. For example, Kubota (1995) replicated Bouton's (1994) study on implicature comprehension concluding that learners in an implicit group outperformed those in an explicit group, although by the time of a delayed posttest, these differences had disappeared.

ILP, CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING, AND NOTICING HYPOTHESIS

Kasper and Rose (2002) state that the first explicit proposals to draw on cognitive-psychological theory to pragmatic development can be traced back to no more than the early 1990s. Two of the most influential cognitive processing approaches proposed in SLA are Sharwood Smith's Consciousness-raising (1980, 1993) and Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993, 2001) Sharwood Smith (1980) conceptualizes that the term "consciousness-raising"

represents a deliberate focus on the formal properties of language with a respect toward enhancing the development of second language knowledge. Sharwood Smith (1993) argues that “CR implies that the learner’s mental state is altered by the input; hence, all input is intake” (p. 176). Given that CR plays a crucial role in enhancing properties of language, Rose (1994) cogently introduces video-prompts as an approach so as to promote pragmatic consciousness-raising since they can provide the fundamental aspects of pragmatics which can be capitalized upon by teachers of both native and non-native speakers.

In line with Sharwood Smith, Schmidt (1993, 2001) contends that the noticing hypothesis is primarily concerned with the initial phase of input processing and the attentional requirements for input to become intake. Schmidt (2001) conceptualizes that any target L2 feature needs to be noticed by the learner for learning to occur: “while there is subliminal perception, there is no subliminal learning” (p. 26). Because more attention results in more learning, “attention must be directed to whatever evidence is relevant for a particular learning domain, i.e. that attention must be specifically focused and not just global” (p. 30).

He then extended his hypothesis to pragmatics postulating that, “in order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both the linguistic form of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated” (Schmidt, 2001, p.30). He also mentions that “pragmatic knowledge seems to be partly conscious, and partly accessible to consciousness, although it cannot be the case that all pragmatic knowledge is accessible to consciousness” (Schmidt, 1993, p. 23).

“Simple exposure to sociolinguistically appropriate input is unlikely to be sufficient for second language acquisition of pragmatic and discoursal knowledge because the linguistic realizations of pragmatic functions are sometimes opaque to language learners and because the relevant contextual factors to be noticed are likely to be defined differently or maybe nonsalient for the learner” (Schmidt, 1993, p.36). Schmidt (1995) further makes a distinction between noticing and understanding. Noticing is defined as the “conscious registration of the occurrence of some event,” while understanding connotes “the recognition of some general principle, rule, or pattern. Noticing refers to surface level phenomena and item learning, while understanding refers to deeper level(s) of abstraction related to (semantic, syntactic, or communicative) meaning, system learning” (p.29).

PRAGMATIC LANGUAGE LEARNING: CHALLENGES AND DILEMMAS FACING EFL/ESL LEARNERS AND TEACHERS

From cognitive-psychological and socio- psychological perspectives, interlanguage pragmatics research has investigated how factors such as *input*, noticing and understanding, L2 proficiency, transfer, and individual differences affect ILP development. When teachers are faced with the task of teaching second or foreign language to EFL/ESL learners, one of the fundamental decisions to be made is related to the type of input, the amount, and the time it should be provided. As to the first factor, it is postulated that the classroom context is limited compared to spontaneous flow of interaction outside the classroom and naturalistic contexts in terms of learners' opportunities to authentically take on different conversational roles in a wide array of situations and engage with a range of fluent competent speakers of the language who provide them with expert input and opportunities for practice. Notwithstanding these inherent constraints, there are some other possible ways through which innovative teachers can boost the socialization experience through their teaching approaches and materials (Dufon, 2008); furthermore, drawing upon innovative approaches, teachers can make learners more *aware* of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features (Bialystok, 1993; Kasper, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 1999; Nikula, 2008; Thomas, 1983).

There is a general consensus that learning a language means learning not only the morphology, phonology, syntax, semantics, but also pragmatics, i.e. learning how to appropriately draw on language sociopragmatically and pragmalinguistically under different circumstances, being influenced by a number of extra-linguistic contextual factors such as social status of the speakers, social and psychological distance, and degree of imposition or power. This kind of pragmatic language use capitalizes on areas such as deixis, conversational implicature, presupposition, and speech acts. However, due to some constraints imposed on teachers and learners, teaching pragmatic language use makes great challenges and dilemmas for students and teachers.

Washburn (2001) enumerates the pragmatic language learning problems facing EFL/ESL learners as follows:

- a. the lack of varied, naturally occurring input in both EFL and ESL contexts;
- b. a lack of salience in the available input;
- c. a lack of awareness about the forms, norms, and limits; and
- d. a lack of direct or explicit feedback about violations of the norms in natural contexts or in textbook models.

Given the importance of the challenges students encounter, Dufon (2002) mentions that although naturalistic interactions with native speakers cater a beneficial means for learners to gain input and practice, there are some criticisms leveled against them. First, due to the scarcity of native speakers, naturalistic input is not always accessible outside the classroom, particularly in foreign language contexts. Second, even when naturalistic input is available, certain pragmatic features may not be adequately salient for learners to be noticed (Schmidt, 1993; Washburn, 2001). Third, native speakers are unlikely to provide learners with feedback on certain types of pragmatic violations, particularly those that are regarded to be social rather than linguistic (DuFon, 2000; Siegal, 1995), and learners may be more sensitive to the correction of pragmatic errors that seem to reflect more upon their knowledge of the world than on their knowledge of the second language (Thomas, 1983).

It should be emphasized that teachers are the agents of change, so the responsibility of teaching the pragmatic aspects toward the mastery of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic features of language falls on teachers and instruction. However, as language teachers, we face certain dilemmas and challenges (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Washburn, 2001). We lack adequate materials and training, which are hinged upon a lack of emphasis on pragmatic issues in ESL/EFL teaching methodology courses. Moreover, oftentimes little or no consistent attention is paid to pragmatic language use because it is regarded as subsidiary course content in other learning contexts. Gilmore (2004), contrasting the discourse features of seven dialogues with comparable authentic interactions, finds out that textbook dialogues differ significantly from their authentic counterparts across a range of discourse aspects including length and turn taking patterns, lexical density, false starts and repetitions, pausing, use of hesitation devices, and back-channeling.

Textbooks cannot simulate and authenticate real life situations and bring the closest approximation of real life situations to the classroom environment. Even if textbook dialogues simulate natural conversations accurately, Washburn (2001), for instance, argues that the characters in our language textbooks are usually one-dimensional; their relationships are defined in stereotypical ways (e.g., teacher-student, classmates), and their motivations are simplistic. Of particular relevance to this issue, Kasper's (1996) contention is suggestive of the fact that the incomplete or artificial input provided by pedagogical materials is one of the reasons for which learners' pragmatic performance is non-target-like. In 1997, Kasper again pinpoints that as a result of asymmetrical role relationships between the interlocutors in the classroom context, i.e. teacher-student interaction, oftentimes teachers monopolize discourse organization. Consequently, the adjacency pairs and interactions are contrived; the openings and closings are simplified, and discourse markers are limited. In a nutshell, it can be stated succinctly that teacher-dominated discourse is not conducive towards the mastery of appropriate sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic interactions.

Gilmore (2004) quoting McCarthy (1996) states that information or knowledge about language should never be held back; the task is to make it available, without artificial restrictions, in ways which best answer learners' needs. To tackle the problems concerning the inadequacy and inappropriateness of input in the pragmatically-oriented teaching materials raised by (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Gilmore, 2004; Kasper, 1996, 1997; Washburn, 2001, to name a few), video-driven prompts as input hold great promise in terms of simulating authentic interactions and sensitizing learners' sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence. This heightened awareness of contextualized pragmatic language learning can build confidence in the learners' communicative competence.

ILP AND THE ADVANTAGES OF VIDEO-DRIVEN PROMPTS AS AN INFLUENTIAL SOURCE OF INPUT

As a consequence of the constraints and challenges involved in dealing with teaching sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic features in the foreign language context mentioned above, the use of authentic audiovisual and video enhanced materials and the role of instruction have gained considerable attention in the development of pragmatics. Analogous to other areas of language learning, Alcón (2005) contends that learners could be exposed to pragmatic input through classroom interaction, textbook conversations and films. Loörscher and Schulze (1988) explicate that in EFL contexts the range of speech acts and realization strategies is marginalized, and that the typical interaction patterns, i.e. IRF, impose inherent limitations on pragmatic input and opportunities for practicing

discourse organization strategies. Alternatively, Crandall and Basturkmen (2004) stipulate that textbook conversations do not cater sufficient pragmatic input. In a similar vein, a solid body of research findings documents that textbook conversations are not a reliable source of pragmatic input (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Gilmore, 2004).

In contrast to classroom interaction and textbook conversations, the use of audiovisual input has been substantiated to fruitfully enhance both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic awareness. Grant and Starks (2001), Alcón (2005), and Martí'nez-Flor (2007), for instance, believe that authentic audiovisual input caters for abundant opportunities to address all aspects of language use in a variety of contexts. In like manner, Koike (1995) proposes that video prompts have the potentiality to contextualize language that may be misunderstood based on the linguistic code alone due to L1 transfer. Loneragan (1984) cogently emphasizes that video presents "complete communicative situations" to learners where relationships between speakers and hearers are readily apparent and the context of the interaction (e.g., home, business, etc.) is clear. Similarly, Swaffar and Vlatten (1997) note that authentic FL videos can visualize different kinds of registers and cultural contexts to learners. They also conclude that videos provide visual cues along with auditory material that improve both comprehension and learning of the content presented.

In a similar line of inquiry, Stempleski and Tomalin (1990) expound that videotaped materials enjoy a lot of merits. They expose students to variation in the medium of classroom materials. They also simulate and authenticate real life situations and bring the closest approximation of real life situations to the classroom environment. Hence, they not only add interest to the lessons but also increase motivation (Fluitt Dupuy, 2001). Quite on a par with others, Dufon (2002), further, explicates that videotaped materials in classroom instruction have some advantages over other means of input such as naturalistic interactions and textbooks.

Bardovi-Harlig (1999), in a seminal article, elaborating upon expanding elicitation tasks to accommodate acquisition studies, cogently argues that if we want to broaden our interlanguage pragmatics studies to include acquisition as part of the research agenda following Kasper and Schmidt (1996), we ought to involve learners at all levels, especially at the lower levels. She succinctly states that including lower-level learners will require some modifications to standard elicitation practices in order to make them more accessible. Visually oriented tasks such as presenting scenarios on video or the use of printed cartoons (Rose, 1994) have become more important because lower-level learners can interpret them more easily than the common written presentation (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999). Kasper (1997) cogently argues that "one way to overcome the inherent limitations of a FL environment is through the use of television and film, which represent rich sources of data on language use and should be fully exploited in teacher education". (P. 134)

CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This paper reviewed some of the main concepts in pragmatics such as sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence, the teachability of pragmatic ability, challenges and dilemmas facing EFL/ESL learners, and video-driven prompts as an influential source of raising pragmatic awareness. In a nutshell, it can be concluded that video-driven prompts have some merits over textbooks. One problem with textbooks is that the language used in them is often decontextualized, and even when it is contextualized it frequently diverges from the language used in comparable naturalistic interactions (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Cathcart, 1989; Myers Scotten & Bernsten, 1988). Conversely, videotapes offer more contextual information in a more efficient manner than do textbooks. They provide learners with a more complete image of the interlocutors and the setting, as well as information about posture, gestures, clothing and proxemics, all of which lead to the better observation of politeness in interactions (Gass & Houck, 1999; Stempleksi & Tomalin, 1990). Learners with no experience of the target culture and limited familiarity with it can really take advantage of these features (Dufon, 2002). In addition, with video the learners can hear paralinguistic features such as loudness, stress and intonation, all of which carry pragmatic and affective information (Washburn, 2001). Moreover, because of these extralinguistic and paralinguistic cues, videotapes can bolster learners' comprehension of the discourse (Stempleski & Tomalin 1990). Furthermore, when the videotapes display naturalistic interactions, they allow learners to hear authentic language. Washburn (2001) also concludes that videotapes can, therefore, help the learners overcome these problems if the pragmatically aware instructor stops the video at critical moments and points out non-salient pragmatic features and pragmatic violations in order to raise the students' awareness of them.

Textbooks are one of the most accessible sources of gaining knowledge for learners studying English in EFL contexts. However, in the case of teaching pragmatic language use, they seem to fall short of sensitizing learners' interlanguage pragmatic abilities, and the research findings are suggestive of the fact that textbooks are usually not responsive enough to the most current pedagogical theories (Jiang, 2006) and that pragmatics plays a subsidiary role in textbooks and course materials (Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Vallenga, 2004). Therefore, ESL/EFL teachers should realize the limitations of textbooks used in their classes, and they should take the initiatives to compensate for these pitfalls. We strongly argue that if EFL/ESL learners want to operate independently in English outside the classroom, they are to be immersed in the authentic and contextualized language.

To this aim, this article has been directed primarily at materials developers and teachers of EFL/ESL to embark on video-driven prompts as one of the substantial sources of input to raise pragmatic awareness in the classroom context.

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PEDAGOGICAL UTILITY OF TRANSLATION IN TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION TO IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

Indubitably, the skepticism against the pedagogical utility of translation in language teaching classroom has drastically changed in recent years. It is no wonder that writers such as Duff (1994) and Beeby (1996) ardently call for the reintroduction of translation in the process of second language (L2) acquisition. Due to a failure to understand the potential principles underlying the translation theories, L2 teachers and practitioners have largely neglected the use of translation as a technique in teaching foreign languages. Accordingly, the present study aims at investigating the pedagogical utility of translation in L2 teaching process. For this purpose, a sample of 180 students studying English as a foreign language was selected randomly. Using an Oxford Placement Test (OPT), they were homogenized and divided, based upon their proficiency levels, into six groups, i.e., elementary, intermediate, and advanced, for both experimental and control groups. During the treatment, the three experimental groups received translation oriented techniques aiming at teaching. Some textual features and the cross linguistic differences between the learners' first language (L1) and the foreign language they are learning were measured. At the end of the treatment, a post test measuring the same textual features was administered to both control and experimental groups. Finally, a researcher- developed questionnaire was also given as a post hoc analysis to gauge the learners' attitudes towards the effectiveness of translation as a L2 pedagogical tool. The results illustrated that the idea of the effectiveness of using translation activities in L2 classrooms to improve student's learning process was supported. The findings of the present study does contribute to the field by supplying the curriculum developers with some useful insights on how to design the grammar section of the English books in a way in which the learners have to translate sentences from L1 to L2 with the newly learned structures in question. Some useful translation activities, utilized in the grammar section of the book as a complementary activity, may improve the efficiency of the learning process.

KEYWORDS: L2 acquisition, translation, pedagogical utility, proficiency, textual features

INTRODUCTION

In spite of the abandonment of translation, as a pedagogical tool in teaching a foreign language, by many language practitioners, second language (L2) learners inevitably use it as a viable learning strategy. The utility of translation as a teaching technique in L2 classes has a long history and has always been the core of the controversies regarding whether or not it would be used as a valid and effective tool in foreign language teaching/learning process.

Early in the 20th century, according to the tenets of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), translation was highly thought of and used as an effective tool for learning a foreign language. In GTM, the basis for acquisition of a foreign language was the use of first language (L1). In other words, translation from L1 into L2 served as a reference system in learning the foreign language (Brown, 2000).

However, some practitioners of the field began to oppose this method and challenged the inefficacy of its underlying tenets and its utility for training fluent speakers in English. As a consequence, the need for a pedagogical shift from GTM to some other method which could foster the ability to speak the language was greatly felt. Therefore, the focus of interest was altered to the use of the Direct Method and the Communicative Approaches to language teaching. Accordingly, many teachers opted for eliminating the use of L1 and translation exercises in the L2 classroom contexts. The proponents of the Audio-lingual and Communicative Methods firmly believed that the use of the mother tongue was counter-productive in the process of acquiring a foreign language, and consequently, the application of translation in the classroom could do more harm than good, preventing learners from expressing themselves freely in the second language.

Another objection to using translation points out that "a good translation cannot be achieved without mastery of the second language. We, therefore, teach the language first, and then we may teach translation as a separate skill, if that is considered desirable" (Lado, 1964, P. 53). Nevertheless, in a L2 classroom, the goal is to teach the language through all sorts of communicative, comprehensive and writing activities. Consequently, we are not looking for professional translations, but for ways of teaching how to express the same idea in L2 in different ways. That is why the use of translation within the L2 curriculum should be considered as one more resource, rather than taken as a requirement for becoming professional translators.

In the last few decades, however, there has been an increasing interest in the translation practice in the foreign language classroom. It seems now that the general attitude towards translation has begun to change. Recently, foreign language teachers have been reconsidering the use of translation for different learning purposes. It was observed that translation activity could be used for pedagogical purposes along with other traditional language teaching activities. Reading, grammar exercises, translation, etc. “are in fact perceived by learners to be conducive to learning” (McDonough, 2002, p.409). Those who discuss about the translation in their studies argue that translation is a legitimate pedagogical tool especially in an EFL environment, and claim that it deserves to be rehabilitated (Widdowson, 1978:18, Harmer, 1991:62, Ellis, 1992:46, Bowen, Marks, 1994:93; Ur, 1996:40). However, they provide little methodological guidance as to how to translate translation into pedagogical practice. The literature on translation deals either with translation theories or translator’s training and contains only little relevant information on the applicability of translation for language teaching. According to Klaudy (2003), there are two types of translation, namely, *pedagogical translation* and *real translation*. Pedagogical translation, which is the focus of this study and will be explained on the next section, is an instrumental kind of translation in which the translated text serves as a tool of improving the language learners’ foreign language proficiency. In real translation, on the other hand, the translated text is not a tool but the very goal of the process. As such, the aim of real translation would be to develop translation skills of translators. In fact, only a small number of works are devoted to translation as an aid to teaching and learning, that is, pedagogical translation (Duff, 1989; Edge, 1986; Ulrych, 1986; Nadstroga, 1988; Urgese, 1989; Eadie, 1999). Accordingly, the problem discussed in this study pertains to the pedagogical translation as a tool in teaching the foreign language, and will be the relevance of translation and translation activities for enhancing learners’ foreign language skills, and more specifically their reading comprehension skill. As such, the present study aims to discuss that the lack of translation in the language classrooms is untenable, and also to prove that translation is a valid method for teaching all language skills, specially reading comprehension. The objectives of the study, therefore, will be:

1. To provide a substantial amount of evidence showing the wrong treatment of translation in the L2 context and unjustified criticism against it.
2. To examine the effect translation activities may have on teaching and learning foreign language skills and components, especially on students’ reading comprehension skill.
3. To highlight the possible relationship between language proficiency and the degree of translation effectiveness.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Translation is perceived differently by different linguists, methodologists and teachers. Its use in foreign language teaching provokes a great deal of disagreement and criticism. The main reason for this is the fact that throughout the years there have been a number of studies carried out, which have either favored or completely ignored the use of translation as a learning method. On one hand, after the fall of Grammar Translation Method, proponents of the Direct Method at the end of the nineteenth century banned the use of translation activities in the process of L2 learning. They believed in an approach called “*Monolingual Approach*”. On the other hand, proponents of “*Bilingual Approach*” acknowledged the use of L1 and translation as a pedagogical tool in teaching foreign languages. The problem with the later approach, however, is that the supporters of using translation activities tend to somehow overuse it, which, as some experts in the field believe, will naturally reduce the amount of students’ exposure to L2 (Dujmovic, 2007). Besides these two positions, however, according to Nation (2003), there could still be another position standing somewhere in between the two extremes of the continuum. Nation called this approach as “*Balanced Approach*”. He believes that a balanced approach is needed, which sees a role for the L1 but also recognizes the importance of maximizing L2 use in the classroom. As Cook (2001) also believes, translation activities used in the process of L2 teaching can be viewed as a rich resource which, *if used judiciously*, can assist second language teaching and learning. Therefore, this research study tries to open up a new horizon for English instructors to find a thoughtful way to use translation activities in the process of second language teaching.

The two extreme positions of pure translation and forbidding translation in the classroom have been the topic of most of the studies conducted on the impact of translation technique on the second or foreign language learning/teaching. Those who are against the use of translation in the L2 classroom consider it as inefficient, unreliable and irrelevant. According to Ross (2000), the rationale against using translation is founded on obliging learners to share their precious L2 use time with the L1; this is not a productive use of the opportunities given by the

class. As a follower of “monolingual approach”, Malmkjaer (1998) briefly summarizes the main reasons why translation fell from favour. It is because translation:

- Is independent and radically different from the four skills which define language competence: reading, writing, speaking and listening.
- Takes up valuable time which could be used to teach these four skills.
- Is unnatural.
- Misleads and prevents students from thinking in the foreign language.
- Is a bad test of language skills.
- Produces interference.
- Is only appropriate for training translators. (p. 6)

Duff (1994) reveals further reasons why teachers objected to the use of translation in foreign language classes. The researcher stresses that translation is text-bound and confined only to two skills, i.e., reading and writing. It is not a communicative activity as it does not involve oral interaction. Then the use of the mother tongue is required, which is not desirable. Moreover, it is boring, both to do and to correct. Accordingly, it can be claimed that the objections to the use of translation in foreign language teaching process are all based on a limited view of translation on the part of the teachers. It is also a widely held view that translation is not a suitable exercise in the initial stages of teaching (Muranoi, 2000). It is argued that, before learners can tackle translation productively, they need to have acquired a significant level of proficiency in the L2. They need to have moved beyond beginner's level.

Many theorists, linguists, and teachers, on the other hand, agree on the importance of using translation in foreign language classes. Atkinson (1987), for example, is one of the first and chief advocates of using translation technique in the communicative classroom. He points out the methodological gap in the literature concerning the use of the translation activities and argues a case in favor of its restricted and principled use, mainly in accuracy-oriented tasks. In his article, Atkinson clearly states that translation from mother language to the target language which emphasizes a recently taught language item is a means to reinforce structural, conceptual and sociolinguistic differences between the native and target languages. In his view, even though this activity is not communicative, it aims at improving accuracy of the newly learned structures.

The proponents of using translation technique in L2 instruction claim that the use of translation activities not only has a positive effect on students' second language learning, but also may help them improve the way they learn the target language. Cook (1999), for example, asserts that treating translation technique as a classroom resource opens up a number of ways to use it, such as for teachers to convey meaning, explain grammar, and organize the class, and for students to use as part of their collaborative learning and individual strategy use. "The first language can be a useful element in creating authentic L2 uses rather than something to be shunned at all costs" (p. 185).

Pedagogical translation is a term that has recently been used by most of the professionals in the field (e.g., Klaudy, 2003) so as to treat translation as a more effective tool in the process of foreign language teaching. On this point of view, Cook (2001) asserts that the word 'translation' has so far been avoided as much as possible because of its negative implication in teaching. As Cook puts it, "Translation as a *teaching technique* is a different matter from translation as a goal of language teaching" (p. 200). As such, pedagogical translation is used by teachers as a teaching technique to teach students reading, writing, vocabulary, grammar, and speaking. As translation is considered a communicative activity, it involves communication between the teacher and the student. Learners are encouraged "to discuss rights and wrongs as well as problems related to the translation task" (Leonardi, 2009, p.145). On one hand, students are involved in a conversation on the translation topic, which helps them strengthen their speaking skills. On the other hand, students are requested to talk to both the teacher and other learners. In the same way, Researchers Nolasco and Arthur (1995) suggest that translation activities, as one of the possible ways to integrate translation in foreign language classes, create a desire for communication and encourage students to be creative and contribute their ideas. They also add that, by using translation activities, students work independently of the teacher.

It should be noted that these two extreme positions, i.e., pure translation and forbidding translation, portraying the existing dialectic which separates those who believe in the use of translation and those who illuminated it from the

classroom is founded on a dogmatic fallacy which should be banned from language teaching profession. However, as this study tries to reveal, a *Balanced Approach* in which teachers strategically use L1 in order to promote foreign language acquisition seems to be logical. That is, L1 can be admixed with L2 as a complementary and supportive stimulus. In this regard, Turnbull (2001) states that maximizing the target language use does not and should not mean that it is harmful for the teacher to use the L1. One of the principles by which teachers' maximal use of target language is facilitated is the simultaneous application of both L1 and L2. Similarly, Stern (1992) asserts that using L1 alongside with L2 is pedagogically facilitative and this totally depends on the characteristics of learners' interlanguage and the language learning process. On the other hand, overuse of L1 will naturally reduce the amount of exposure to L2. Therefore, an attempt should be made to keep a balance between L1 and L2 use. As such, Turnbull (2001) admits although it is efficient to make a quick switch to the L1 to ensure, for instance, whether students understand a difficult grammar concept or an unknown word, it is crucial for teachers to use the target language as much as possible in contexts in which students spend only short periods of time in class, and when they have little contact with the target language outside the classroom.

Similarly, Cook (2007), with regards to the use of L1 in the classroom, argues that all second language learners access their L1 while processing the L2. She suggests that "the L2 user does not effectively switch off the L1 while processing the L2, but has it constantly available" (p. 571). She also maintains that when working with ESL learners, teachers must not treat the L2 in isolation from the L1. In fact, according to Cook, one cannot do so because "L1 is present in the L2 learners' minds, whether the teacher wants it to be there or not. The L2 knowledge, being created in them, is connected in all sorts of ways with their L1 knowledge" (p. 584). Thus, one might suppose that using L1, more specifically translation activities, in L2 instruction will lead to negative transfer. However, Beardsmore (1993) believes that although it may appear contrary to common sense, maintaining and developing one's native language does not interfere with the developing of the second language proficiency. To him, experience shows that many people around the world become fully bi-and multi-lingual without suffering interference from one language in the learning of the other.

The psychological benefits that the use of students' mother tongues and translation activities in the classroom bring about, according to Lucas and Katz (1994), are, "in addition to serving as a practical pedagogical tool for providing access to academic content, allowing more effective interaction, and providing greater access to prior knowledge" (p. 539). They also claim that by using and valuing the learners' native languages and, as a consequence, translation activities in the class, their learning process will also be supported and enhanced by virtue of the fact that they themselves are indirectly valued. Finally, many researchers support the idea that translation is a motivating activity. Carreres (2006) conducted a questionnaire and came to the conclusion that learners overwhelmingly perceive translation exercises as useful for language learning. Consequently, it was in response to student feedback that he decided to introduce translation more substantially in language classes. He added that translation, by its very nature, is an activity that invites discussion and students are only too happy to contribute to it, often defending their version with remarkable passion and persuasiveness.

Various researchers tried to investigate the role of translation in learning any of four language skills and sub skills. Amongst them, applying the act of translation in improving the reading comprehension performance of the language learners has received much of interest, which receives more focus in this study. In this regards, Upton (1997) asserts that reading in a second language is not a monolingual event and L2 readers have access to their first language as they read and many use it as a strategy to help comprehend an L2 text. Moreover, some other researchers have stronger ideas and show that translation is a key element in processing target texts by learners. Kern (1994), for example, conducted an illuminating study whereby he looked at the role of translating as a cognitive strategy in the L2 reading comprehension process. He found that students often used translation to understand the text. He also found that L2 readers most frequently used mental translation in response to specific obstacles to comprehension, such as unfamiliar words and structures. As a consequence, translation technique, and more specifically translation activities, might provide a guided practice in reading comprehension skill of the learners because before starting to translate a text, they should read and analyze the text meticulously to determine the content in terms of what, how and why it is formulated by the respective author (Leonardi, 2009). As such, careful text analysis improves students reading comprehension awareness and promotes L2 lexical development. In addition, translation can help students improve their writing skills because it is a transfer of a text from one language into another. In the same vein, Leonardi (2011) states that translation as a pedagogical tool can be successfully employed at any level of proficiency, at school or University, as a valuable and creative teaching aid to support, integrate and further strengthen the four traditional language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. Accordingly, translation in

foreign language classes can set a useful ground by which ample opportunities are provided for the students to view language as a holistic system with unique communicative capabilities, no matter what proficiency level they are in. Moreover, translation activities need not be used in isolation, but should be included in an inherent part of the language learning course.

On the basis of the above, the main goal of the present study is to consider the use of translation as a significant pedagogical component for promoting L2 learners' reading comprehension skills, by adopting a reconciliatory stance which ardently opposes those professionals in the field who consider translation and language teaching as wrong bed fellows.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Considering the above-mentioned facts, the researcher of the present study seeks to answer two questions regarding the role translation activities play in foreign language teaching:

- A. Does the use of translation from L1 to L2 have any effect on the improvement of learners' foreign language skills on the whole, and on their reading comprehension skill more specifically?
- B. What is the possible link, if any, between learners' language proficiency level and the degree of appropriateness of translation as a teaching technique?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

To reach the purpose of the study, a sample of 180 students from the population of the BA students from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan, Isfahan, Iran, studying English as their major, both male and female, aged between 19 and 24, was randomly selected. Using an Oxford Placement Test (OPT), the selected sample was divided into six groups, thirty each. Three groups served as the experimental sample, while the other three were determined to receive placebo treatment, hence, served as control group. At this point, care was taken to equalize the experimental and control samples based on learners' proficiency levels so that each group included elementary, intermediate, and advanced learners' sample. By employing three proficiency levels, the researcher wanted to find out whether or not there was an interaction effect between translation and proficiency variables. The age factor has been kept constant by employing participants from almost the same age range.

Instruments

The instrumentation utilized in this study included several materials. First, an OPT test was used for identifying learners' proficiency level, and insuring homogeneity of both control and experimental groups. Second, a reading comprehension text was selected from the reading module of the Barron's TOEFL (2010) and used as posttest to assess the learners' knowledge of text discursive characteristics as a main requirement since it is believed that translation technique is most suitable for teaching reading comprehension and textual features manifesting different types of discourse (Polio & Duff, 1994). The rationale behind selecting the reading text from the TOEFL was to make sure that the test enjoys a high level of validity, and that the level of difficulty was suitable for each group sample. The test encompassed a reading comprehension passage followed by multiple-choice items. The percentage of right answers was used as criterion for the final score of each student. The reliability of the test was estimated using KR-21 method, which turned out to be 0.80. Also, a time allocation of 30 minutes was decided for the test to be appropriate. Finally, an opinionnaire (questionnaire) was also given to the treatment group hoping to find the participants' attitudes towards the usefulness of translation in the L2 class. This would provide a sort of post hoc analysis gauging learners' opinions about whether or not they think translation is a useful strategy for learning a foreign language. It should be noted that most of the questionnaire items were adopted from Liao (2006). Naturally, the validity and reliability of this instrument must be established based on specialists' opinions and pilot studying.

Data Collection Procedures

To accomplish the purpose of the present study, the following procedures were carried out. First, by administering an OPT, the selected sample was classified into three proficiency levels, namely, elementary, intermediate, and advanced, based on their mean scores obtained from the test. The test was comprised of 30 multiple-choice and 5

open-ended types of questions, with a 60 minutes time period being determined to be appropriate for participants to answer the questions. After classifying the sample into three proficiency levels, they were further divided into three experimental and three control groups. The three experimental groups were supplied with the necessary discursive background by teacher's explanation of some textual features in their L1 (in this case, Persian language) and later on checking their understanding by giving them appropriate assignments involving translation, i.e., the reading comprehension test. It is evident that the control group was taught the same issues by providing essential explanations but only in L2 (English). That is, everything was the same as the experimental group except that the teacher did not use the Persian language in order to explain the textual features of the reading passage.

During a period of six-week course, the researcher attended in both experimental and control groups classes to take the same reading comprehension tests so as to check students' understanding of the textual features such as cohesion and coherence. In each session, the experimental group received a specific treatment that was the use of L1 (Persian language) in explaining the reading passage and some textual features. Evidently, the situation for the control group was different due to teacher's using only L2 (English) to explain about the same textual features as for the experimental group. After each session, the participants answered the comprehension questions and finally after six weeks the results of both groups were compared by using a posttest about which was explained above. The test was first piloted with 30 learners and some necessary changes were applied in terms of item characteristics, i.e., item facility and item discrimination, as well as reliability. In order to gauge the participants' opinions and attitudes toward the usefulness of translation activities in their foreign language learning, the researcher provided the participants of experimental group with a well-organized questionnaire. Giving some explanation on the reason the questionnaire was used, and some instruction on how to answer the questions, the researcher asked participants to complete the questionnaire. The questions were all multiple choice, so the participants were asked to choose from among 5 possible choices, based on the Likert Scale (i.e., completely agree, agree, not sure, disagree, completely disagree), the best one that is in line with their personal opinion.

Data Analysis

With due regards to the data analysis process, certain statistical procedures were utilized to analyze and interpret the data elicited by the study. In order to statistically analyze the results of the posttest given to both groups, the software Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was of great help in this research. The main statistical procedure employed in this project was a one-way ANOVA so as to compare the mean scores of the experimental and comparison groups of the study so as to determine whether or not the application of the treatment had any considerable effect on the learning process of the experimental group. Having determined the difference between two groups, a Tukey test, as a post hoc test, was used to see if there is any significant difference between each level, i.e., beginner, intermediate, and advanced.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Considering the research questions "1. Does the use of translation from L1 to L2 have any effect on the improvement of learners' foreign language skills on the whole, and on their reading comprehension skill more specifically?" And "2. What is the possible link, if any, between learners' language proficiency level and the degree of appropriateness of translation as a teaching technique?", a one-way ANOVA was run to compare the mean scores of the participants in each level of experimental and control groups on the posttest of reading comprehension. As is displayed in table 1, The mean scores of each level of experimental and control groups (elementary, intermediate, and advanced) revealed that the effect of using translation technique on EFL learners' reading comprehension proficiency did not differ significantly across three levels ($f(2,87)=2.655$, $p=.076>.05$).

Table 1: Results of ANOVA test
ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
exp. Posttest	Between Groups	112.867	2	56.433	2.655	.076
	Within Groups	1849.133	87	21.254		
	Total	1962.000	89			

con. Posttest	Between Groups	13.089	2	6.544	.457	.635
	Within Groups	1245.400	87	14.315		
	Total	1258.489	89			

Moreover, as it can be induced from table 2, the difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the posttest of reading comprehension is significant ($p < .05$). Consequently, the null hypothesis represented as "the use of translation from L1 to L2 does not have any effect on the improvement of learners' foreign language skills on the whole, and on their reading comprehension skill more specifically" **would be rejected**. Having received the treatment, the experimental group experienced better performance on the posttest of reading comprehension than control group. Due to the fact that the control group also underwent a course of instruction, it makes sense that at the end of the course, they have made some progress. But the point is that the control group has made little progress compared to the experimental group which is certain proof of effectiveness of treatment.

Table 2: Paired samples posttest of experimental and control groups

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	exp. posttest - con. posttest	31.622	6.077	.641	30.349	32.895	49.363	89	.000

Comparisons of three levels, using Tukey's post hoc test, indicated that there was not statistically any significant difference among the three levels of language proficiency regarding the effect of using translation technique on students' reading comprehension ability. A small difference, however, was found between the intermediate and advanced groups ($p = .062$) (see table 3). This is quite compatible with what Leonardi (2011) believed. In her study, Leonardi concluded that translation can be successfully employed at any level of language proficiency.

Table 3: Multiple comparisons among three proficiency levels

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) level of proficiency	(J) level of proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval
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						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
exp. Posttest	beginner	Intermediate	-1.167	1.190	.591	-4.01	1.67
		Advanced	1.567	1.190	.390	-1.27	4.41
	Intermediate	Beginner	1.167	1.190	.591	-1.67	4.01
		Advanced	2.733	1.190	.062	-.11	5.57
	Advanced	Beginner	-1.567	1.190	.390	-4.41	1.27
		Intermediate	-2.733	1.190	.062	-5.57	.11

The findings of the study are also in line with what Upton (1996) and Kern (1994) assert on the effect translation technique has on learners' reading comprehension proficiency. They believe that reading in a foreign language is not a monolingual event and L2 readers often use their first language as a strategy in processing and understanding the target language text. The results of the present study are, however, against the Malmkjaer (1998) and Duff (1994) views, who are objected to using translation as a teaching tool in foreign language classes. Muranoi (2000) also believed that translation is not a suitable exercise for the initial stages of teaching foreign languages because learners need to acquire a sufficient level of proficiency in L2 before they can tackle translation activities productively. But the results of the present study revealed that the use of translation technique in foreign language classes does not heavily rely on the overall language proficiency of learners.

The above-mentioned facts stemmed from the experimental phase of the study inspired the researcher of the present study to further support the results of the study by gauging the opinion and attitudes of the participants of experimental group toward the effect translation technique might have on their learning process. As was mentioned earlier, the participants were provided with a questionnaire so as to give their opinion and attitudes towards the effect of translation activities in foreign language learning. The questionnaire was comprised of 15 items and took about 20 minutes for the participants of experimental group to complete it. The analysis of the results obtained from the questionnaire revealed that translation from L1 to L2 played a major role in improving learners' reading comprehension proficiency. As is illustrated in Table 4, the means of item 1 indicated that above 68% of participants tended to use translation technique as a learning strategy in their foreign language learning process. Their answers to item 15 also revealed that they always flash back to their mother tongue whenever it is hard for them to think in a foreign language (English, in this case). Moreover, it can be resulted from their answers to item 4 that they highly accept the teacher's use of L1 when it comes to more difficult concepts of the foreign language. For example, they believed that the teacher had better use Persian language when explaining some the textual features of English reading passages.

Table 4: The examinees' responses to the items concerning their beliefs about translation

	Item Explanation	Mean out of 5 for elementary level	Mean out of 5 for intermediate learners	Mean out of 5 for advanced learners
1	I am interested in translation, using Persian to learn English.	4.2	4	4.6
2	Translation classes are more enjoyable and profitable.	3.8	3.2	3
3	I make faster progress in the L2 reading comprehension by means of translation.	4	4.2	4.8
4	A given translation by the teacher will improve my self-confidence when it comes to answering a reading comprehension question.	3.5	3.8	4.2
5	The teacher's use of L1 helps me become more familiarized with the target language culture.	4.7	4.2	4.8
6	Using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson later.	4	4	3.86
7	Translation activities serve as an adequate learning strategy in foreign language classes.	4.2	4.8	4.46

8	I feel under pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.	3.8	3	3.2
9	Translation of the gist of a passage has a positive effect on my comprehension, be it oral or written.	4.5	4.9	4.8
10	By using Persian language occasionally, I will gain a positive attitude toward learning English.	2.8	3.5	3.2
11	At some stages of learning, I cannot learn the foreign language without some translation activities.	3	2.8	2.4
12	The teacher's use of Persian language helps me learn such pragmalinguistic resources of English as register, genre, and some meta-discourse markers.	4.5	4	4.7
13	All language skills and components would be developed the same using translation activities.	4.5	3.2	2.86
14	Translation helps me understand the foreign language vocabulary and idioms easier.	4	4.2	3.4
15	I tend to flash back to Persian language whenever it is hard to think in English.	4	4.5	3.8

On the whole, the means of the participants' answers in all three levels revealed some facts, which would follow: **a)** all three groups of proficiency level believed that translation can be considered as a useful aid in comprehending reading comprehension passages of English, **b)** the teacher's use of mother tongue in explaining some more problematic concepts of a foreign language such as textual features for learners can be considered as a useful tool, according to all participants, and **c)** the attitudes towards the use of translation did not heavily rely on the overall language proficiency of learners. That is, the responses of less proficient students also indicated that translation is suitable and useful for students of lower level of proficiency in English. These finding are compatible with those of Kern (1994) that found the students often used translation to understand the text.

The results of the questionnaire also revealed that the overall language proficiency of learners did not have any effect on the use of translation as a foreign language learning strategy, which is compatible with the study conducted by Leonardi (2011). Leonardi also stated that translation as a pedagogical tool can be successfully employed at any level of proficiency, at school or University, as a valuable and creative teaching aid to support, integrate and further strengthen the four traditional language skills. Finally, all the three groups of participants believed that translation classes are more enjoyable (related item: 2), which is in line with what Carreres (2006) claimed based on the findings of his study. Carreres stated that translation, by its very nature, is an activity that invites discussion and students are only too happy to contribute to it, often defending their version with remarkable passion and persuasiveness. The study confirmed that translation activities could be used as a means to provoke the learners' motivation.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to explore the effect translation technique might have on students' reading comprehension proficiency. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the students' reading comprehension ability before and after the treatment. Almost all students improved in the posttest and showed positive attitude in the questionnaire.

Therefore, instruction through translation was beneficial to students' learning except in very few cases. The researcher induced the results and conclusions on the benefits and applications of using translation in this study as follows:

1. The use of L1 in the process of L2 acquisition would be of great help for foreign language learners and pave the way for their learning. Accordingly, EFL teachers should take the use of students' mother tongue into consideration as a pedagogical tool in the process of teaching. It does not seem reasonable to deprive

learners from deploying this recourse at the expense of exercising an English-only atmosphere in the classrooms, by virtue of the fact that mother tongue is truly a very rich resource of linguistic knowledge with which any L2 learner is already equipped.

2. As mentioned earlier, on one hand, reading in a foreign language is not a monolingual event (mental translation), and on the other hand, the students are not skilful enough to understand the passage thoroughly. Therefore, the teacher may help them by providing the translation of the gist of the reading passage and facilitate the process of comprehension.
3. In some special kind of reading passages, mainly texts about culture and traditions of the people of other nations, beginner learners may not be successful in comprehension due to that lack of background knowledge and cultural differences. In this regard, translation technique and the use of students' first language might be helpful as it help them to better understand the target language culture and related issues.

The findings of this study may have some useful implications for curriculum development. How to present the materials for the grammar section of the books has always appeared to be one of the most controversial issues amongst the materials developers and writers. Although there are a variety of activities to be used in presenting the structural points of a given lesson, the curriculum developers may find the findings of this study useful and design the grammar section of the books in a way in which the learners have to translate sentences from L1 to L2 with the newly learned structures in question. Some useful translation activities, utilized in the grammar section of the book as a complementary activity, may improve the efficiency of the learning process.

It is worth to be noted that although the findings of the present study supported the idea of the effectiveness of the utility of translation activities in improving learners' reading comprehension proficiency, there may be some limitations challenging the generalization of the results of this study. As an example, a short time period of six weeks might not be appropriate enough to experience the treatment. Another limitation that might affect the results of this study can be related to the validity of such tests as OPT and TOEFL. what such tests really measure may not be related to the purpose of study.

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THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT GLOSS TYPES ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY RETENTION OF IRANIAN EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The present study investigated the effect of different types of glosses (single textual glosses, interactive multiple-choice glosses, multi-media glosses, and multi-mode glosses) on incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian EFL learners. The subject pool consisted of 210 third semester Iranian students enrolled at Azad University, Central Branch. After administering a proficiency test, 155 homogeneous students were assigned to four experimental groups and one control group. Afterwards, a pre-test (Test of Novelty) was administered to verify students' unfamiliarity with the intended target words to be learned later. During this study experimental groups received different types of glosses for unknown words. As opposed to experimental groups, the control group received no glosses. In order to assess the efficacy of each gloss type, two types of post-tests were administered: recognition and production. A one-way ANOVA indicated that learners with access to different gloss types demonstrated significantly greater retention of word meanings. Additionally, a further analysis known as the Tukey test was conducted to pinpoint exactly where the differences exist in a pair-wise way. The results of this analysis showed that X4 outperformed the other experimental groups (X1, X2, & X3) and the control group. Furthermore, to assess the difference in outcome between short-term and long-term word retention a within-subjects was applied.

KEYWORDS: Incidental vocabulary learning, Gloss, Single textual gloss, Interactive multiple-choice gloss, Multi-media gloss, Multi-mode gloss, Retention.

INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that learning vocabulary is an essential part for language mastery (Schmitt, 2010); and that developing a rich vocabulary is a top priority but an on-going challenge for L2 learners (Waring & Nation, 2004). However, neither a clear understanding how a word is acquired nor a method that best enhances vocabulary learning has been accomplished, partly due to the fact that lexical learning is a complicated multifaceted learning influenced by a wide variety of factors (Meara, 1996; Nation, 2001; Yongqui-gu, 2003; Alessi & Dwyer, 2008). A large amount of research during the recent decades has been attempting to achieve the aforementioned goals. Likewise, the present study aims to investigate an influential way to enhance incidental vocabulary retention.

The value of reading as a particularly amenable channel for second language acquisition is well established (Hulstijn, 2001; Lee & Mallinder, 2011). Recently arguments have been advanced supporting the reading of L2 literary texts as powerful sources of linguistic and cultural input. In fact, the use of any authentic selection is apparently very appealing to foreign language students (Swaffar, 1985; Laufer, 2001; Krashen, 2004). Many literary passages, however, contain so many low-frequency vocabulary items that the readers' background knowledge may be unavailable because of the undue attention required to decode individual word meanings. In this case, reading no longer provides a minimally stressful access to real language but becomes instead a "three to four" hour ordeal, mainly because of the [non-native readers'] constant recourse to a dictionary. The importance of vocabulary is underscored by a study which found that, in certain contexts, just one unfamiliar word can render a sentence or even a whole passage incomprehensible (Wittrock, Marks, & Doctorow, 1986; Watanabe, 1997). Such studies provide teachers with excellent reasons for devoting attention to the vocabulary enhancement of their students. But language

teachers face a dilemma in current teaching situations. Although they have admitted the importance of vocabulary learning in English teaching and wanted to teach a lot of it to their students, it is impossible for them to spend most of the class time on vocabulary teaching alone. Moreover, students, themselves, are not interested in intentional vocabulary learning in which they are requested to do some exercises that focus on vocabulary itself. That is, EFL students prefer incidental vocabulary learning in which their attention are focused on some other features. In this vocabulary learning style, they learn vocabulary through reading texts, working on reading comprehension tasks or doing other activities that are not directly related to vocabulary learning.

However, the process by which incidental vocabulary learning takes place is slow and the amount of vocabulary acquired through this kind of learning is relatively small (Krantz, 1991; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Min, 2008). That is, successful and efficient incidental vocabulary learning just through reading alone cannot be expected.

Therefore, developing techniques for handling unknown words during reading activities has always been one of the principal challenges of English reading classes. One such technique that facilitates vocabulary learning and saves students' time and effort in reading L2 texts is "Glossing." This study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of different gloss types, that is, single textual glosses (SG), interactive multiple-choice glosses (IMG), multi-media glosses, and multi-mode glosses on incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on foreign language vocabulary acquisition has revealed that words in large quantities cannot be learned solely by means of intentional word-learning activities. It is commonly accepted that reading is one of the major sources of vocabulary learning. Words can be acquired incidentally through reading (Hulstijn, 1992; Dupay & Krashen, 1993; Leow, 2000; Horst, 2005; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Huang & Liou, 2007; Lien, 2010). However the efficiency and efficacy of this method has been challenged (Zimmerman, 1997; Waring & Takaki, 2003). Vocabulary gains from only-reading are usually found small. Thus, an efficient way that helps strengthen and speed up lexical acquisition process is called for. One possible way could be the use of glosses (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Nagata, 1999; Bowels, 2004; Cheng & Good, 2009).

Definition of Gloss

Glosses are many kinds of attempts to supply what is perceived to be deficient in a reader's procedural or declarative knowledge. Lomicka (1998) states that glosses are brief definitions or explanations which are most often supplied for "unfamiliar" words in a text. According to Hullen (1989), glosses were once of three types: synonyms, encyclopedic comments, and grammatical notes. Reading strategy suggestions and interspersed questions (Otto & White, 1982), too, have been called glosses. Stewart and Cross (1991) strongly maintain that glosses "should not be confused with embedded or inserted questions... , since marginal glosses, notes written in a blank space round the printed matter on a page, represent a markedly different treatment of texts. More examples of a gloss "by any other name" are: adjunct aids (Chun & Plass, 1996), metanotes (Wolf, 1990), metatext (DeCoster, 2004), and paratext (McDonnell, 2006). Oxford (1995) provides many possibilities under the rubric of assistance: error correction... a useful learning strategy... a full explanation, a schematic/partial explanation ... a leading question ... a pictorial representation of a verbal expression... a cooperative learning activity... an encouraging word at just the right moment.

Classification of Gloss

Glosses can be described and classified according their authorship (teacher-developed/ learner-generated), presentation (priming/ prompting), function (procedural/ declarative), focus (textual / extratextual), choice of language (L1/ L2/ L3), form (verbal/ visual/ audio), and format (basic dictionary form/ sentence level equivalents).

Different Gloss Types and Their Effects on Incidental Vocabulary Retention

Single Textual Gloss: Segler (2001) defined textual glosses as brief definitions or translations which are most often supplied for unknown words in a text which may help to limit continual dictionary consultation that may hinder and interrupt the L2 reading comprehension process.

Interactive Multiple-Choice Gloss: Multiple-choice glosses provide multiple definition options- typically one correct definition, one semantically related meaning, and one opposite meaning for a troubling vocabulary item in

the text along with the prompt feedback option enabling meaning verification and learners have to think about the meaning of the word and choose the best one that would fit the context (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001).

Multi-Media Gloss: Salem (2006) suggested that “multi-media or hypermedia refers to computer-based applications that provide information in a nonlinear way through multiple types of resources such as text, graphics (still pictures) and sound.” (p. 23)

Multi-Mode Gloss: Salem and Aust (2007) stated that multi-mode glosses refer to short definitions or explanations with nonlinearly linked-data associated with graphics, audios, and videos (dynamic pictures) in computerized texts.

The Effectiveness of Single Textual Glosses

According to (Jacobs, 1994; Lomicka, 1998; Roby, 1991; Al-Jabri, 2009), the most obvious advantages of textual glosses are that they enhance general comprehension, improve vocabulary retention, and save students’ time and effort in reading L2 texts. More importantly, textual glosses allow teachers to increase students’ exposure to authentic learning materials that are beyond the learners’ linguistic level, thus challenging students to read authentic, unabridged texts (Davis, 1989; Coady & Huckin, 1997). Thus teachers can use glossing to significantly increase comprehensible input, an important condition of successful L2 acquisition (Krashen, 1989; Yoshii, 2006).

Interactive Multiple-choice Glosses’ Effects on Vocabulary Retention through Reading

By the use of interactive multiple-choice glosses we provide one correct, one semantically related, and one opposite meaning for a troubling vocabulary item in the text and also provide meaning verification to correct wrong guesses of the students. It is suggested that MG is likely to be advantageous as it encourages meaning inferring. It is believed that a word of which meaning is inferred is retained better and longer since it involves deeper processing (Craik & Lockhart, 1972; Rott, Williams, et al. 2002; Ko, 2005) or greater mental effort (Hulstijn, 2001). Nonetheless, the advantage of MG does not always occur. Although multiple-choice glosses may help inferencing word meanings, it is not impossible that learners make wrong guesses. Moreover, they are unlikely to have any chances to realize that they have made wrong meaning inferring as traditional multiple-choice glosses usually lack the provision of meaning verification. Grace (1998) supports that the verification of meaning facilitates retention of words that have been learned incidentally or at least lessen difficulties in vocabulary learning, because the learners are assured of “the correctness of their guesses while they are guessing the meanings of the words” (p. 535). Thus, interactive multiple-choice glosses (IMG) have been developed in the hope that they may compensate for the disadvantages of traditional MG as IMG includes prompt feedback option enabling meaning verification.

Multi-media Glosses and Their Effects on L2 Vocabulary Retention

The introduction of computers into the field of second/foreign language education caused a large number of practitioners to concur that this technology holds great potential for language learning (Levy, 1997; Pennington, 1996; Warschauer & Healey, 1998; Plass & Jones, 2005; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2006; Yanguas, 2009). This belief leads to what is known as Computer-Assisted Language Learning, more commonly referred to as CALL. Even though the field is still young, many language educators are endorsing its use as an essential component in language teaching. Embracing the use of computers seems to be due to the fact that computers are capable of performing multiple tasks and thus are more than simply text processors. The computer can organize, select, and present multiple sensory components.

Several types of glossing when reading for comprehension have been addressed in the literature and could be subsumed under textual and visual glossing and a mixture of the two. Texts and pictures which are placed at the margin of texts when the students click on the hyperlinked word help the readers understand the meaning of difficult words in the text.

In a widely cited study, Yanguas (2009) investigated the effect of visual information for vocabulary learning and students’ look-up behavior. The results were twofold: firstly, incidental vocabulary acquisition rates of 25% in production tasks and 77% in recognition tasks were observed; secondly, significantly higher scores were found for words annotated with text and picture than those glossed with text only.

Salem (2006) also measured how different types of glosses influenced incidental vocabulary growth of the students. Results showed that those participants who had access to both textual and pictorial glosses outperformed those under the textual gloss conditions in the recognition of target words on both short-term memory and retention tests over a

period of time. He argued that these results were due to the different degrees of cognitive effort needed to process: the mapping of pictures onto the mental model provides a stronger bond than the mapping of words due to the different representations of their information.

Based on work carried in the field of psychology, Mayer proposed that it is through two channels that human beings represent and manipulate knowledge: a visual-pictorial and an auditory-verbal channel (Mayer, 1997, 2001, 2002, 2005b). Therefore, the use of textual and pictorial glosses would enter the cognitive system through those two channels. He argued that “meaningful learning occurs when learners engage in active processing within the channels, including selecting relevant words and pictures, organizing them into coherent pictorial and verbal models, and integrating them with each other and appropriate prior knowledge” (Mayer, 2002, p. 60).

The Effect of Multi-mode Glosses on L2 Vocabulary Retention

In the realm of second language acquisition (SLA), the most recent effort to enhance the process of language learning has involved computer technology. In this regard, Gettys, Imhof, & Kautz, (2001) pointed out that the adoption of computer technology in foreign language education is part of a larger phenomenon known as the “new humanism” and represents one of the most exciting developments coming out of the participation of advanced technology in education. They contended that “new humanism” is an attitude whereby technology helps to integrate the efforts of researchers from different fields. Technology enables the humanists to investigate traditional concerns in novel approaches, exploiting technology potential to build on the values of a given sphere and to create “principled connections” among the disciplines of the humanities.

Among the concerns often raised in the domain of CALL is how to use the potential of a computer to enhance the language learning process and how to use different media modes in teaching and learning of the vocabulary items. The concern has been narrowed to the investigation of the efficacy of presenting information using multiple modalities, such as text, audio, and dynamic videos in the field of SLA. An area that has recently received attention is the impact of glossing individual vocabulary via annotations embodied by different modes and media. Researchers were inspired by the premise that a variety of glosses for words in various modalities, such as printed text, graphics, dynamic video, and sound, might have differing capacities to facilitate vocabulary acquisition and retention. (Davis & Lyman-Hager, 1997; Al-Seghayer, 2003; Hew & Ohki, 2004; Knag, 2005; Gruba, 2006; Robin, 2007).

Al-Seghayer (2001) investigated what type of gloss, dynamic video or still picture, was more effective in aiding vocabulary acquisition. In the context of second language vocabulary acquisition, this study investigates the relative efficacy of two different annotation modes in a multimedia environment: the printed text definition coupled with a still picture, and the printed text definition coupled with a dynamic video clip. The study’s focal issue is to determine which mode of imagery, still picture or dynamic video, is more effective in aiding vocabulary retention. Results of the analysis carried out indicated that learners presented with text+ video had scores that were significantly higher than the text+ picture condition.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of different types of glosses on incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian third-semester Azad University students.

The following questions are to be answered through this study:

1. Do single textual glosses promote incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian students? And do they have any effects on long-term retention of learned words?
2. Do interactive multiple-choice glosses have any effects on vocabulary learning and retention over a period of time?
3. Do multi-media annotations facilitate vocabulary acquisition across the time?
4. Does glossing words through different modalities (dynamic image, sound and printed text) affect incidental vocabulary retention?
5. Does exposure to any type of gloss have a significant effect on L2 readers’ learning of target vocabulary words as measured through a) recognition or b) production tasks? If so, will this effect be maintained over a period of time?

To be on a safe side, the following null hypotheses were proposed:

HO: Glosses of any type do not have any facilitating effects on incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian students.

HO: Glosses do not have any effects on long-term retention of learned words.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The subject pool consisted of 210 third semester Iranian students who had enrolled at Azad University, Central Branch. Only female students were considered as subjects in this study. The average age of the participants was 25.5 years, ranging from 18-40 years of age. The subjects had the same native language and cultural background. After administering a proficiency test (TOEFL Test), 155 homogeneous students were chosen as the main subjects of the study. They were then put into four different experimental groups and one control group.

Instruments

Four instruments were used in this study: a test of language proficiency, a test of novelty, immediate post-tests (Production & Recognition), and delayed post-tests (Production & Recognition).

The language proficiency test (TOEFL Test) was used at the beginning of the study to determine the subjects' language proficiency level. It comprised eighty multiple-choice items. The first thirty items concerned the measurement of the students' vocabulary knowledge; the second thirty items were constructed to assess the students' grammatical knowledge, and the last twenty items were intended to measure the students' comprehension of the selected passages.

The test of novelty was also used before starting the study to ensure the subjects' unfamiliarity with the words to be retained later. The novelty test comprised 60 vocabulary items which had been selected from the assigned materials to be read by the subjects. These vocabulary items were presented in 3 sections: the matching section with 10 items, the multiple-choice section with 10 items, and the production section which contained a list of 40 target words for which the subjects were supposed to provide English definitions. This test was administered to the subjects and only those words with which none of the students was familiar were included in the study.

Vocabulary post-tests, the same as the test of novelty, with the familiar words discarded, were administered as the post-tests (Immediate & Delayed) to assess the subjects' vocabulary retention.

Two types of post-tests were administered: production and recognition. The production post-test comprised 50 production items for which the subjects were asked to provide English definitions. And the recognition post-test comprised 8 matching items, and 42 multiple-choice items for which the subjects were asked to choose the correct choices. In preparing the multiple-choice items of the recognition test one criterion was met: The stems of the items did not provide any contextual clues which might help the examinees find the correct responses without knowing the meanings of the intended words. Participants performed the production task first so that the multiple-choice recognition task would not provide additional exposure to the target words.

Furthermore, to assess the difference in outcome between short-term and long-term word retention, immediate post-tests (recall of the words immediately after reading the texts) and delayed post-tests (recall of the words after three weeks) were administered.

Data Collection Procedures

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the following procedures were carried on:

The language proficiency test (TOEFL Test) was administered in the first session of the study to assess the homogeneity of students. All 210 students took part in the test. They were given 50 minutes to answer the questions. The results were then used to select those students who were supposed to be the final participants of the study. Those students whose scores fell between 15.73 and 5.33 were chosen for the final data analysis.

The novelty test was administered in the second session of the study. The rationale for using this kind of test was its feasibility and its appropriateness for the level of the subjects. The students' provision of English definitions for the target words was included based on Nation's (2001) suggestion that "items" which require the learners to provide

equivalents are the best type of items. Rieder (2003) also stated “presenting words in isolation may be the only practical way of achieving the necessary coverage” (p.37) when designing a vocabulary test.

Six roughly-equivalent non-fictional texts were used as the assigned materials. Texts were quite similar in terms of readability and lexical profiles. Using the “Fog index of readability”, the difficulty level of the passages was computed. The readability indexes of the assigned materials were presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Readability Indexes of the Assigned Materials

passage	1	2	3	4	5	6
Readability Index	22.07	22.96	23.53	24.96	26.12	27.34
Average	24.49					

Piloting of the experimental texts: Twenty five randomly selected participants underlined all the unknown words in the texts. Only words underlined by more than half of the participants were selected to be glossed. After piloting, 123 potential target words were selected. Specifically, the number of new target words per text was approximately 20.

Glossing: Approximately 20 words in each text were glossed. In the experimental conditions, textual, multiple-choice, multi-media, and multi-mode glosses were provided for the nominated words of the texts. In providing textual glosses only English definitions of selected words were used. For providing multiple-choice glosses, one English definition, one semantically related meaning, and one opposite or unrelated meaning were written for each nominated word in the text. For the provision of multi-media glosses, the words were hyperlinked. When the participants clicked on a word, a box appeared below the word with a definition in English, a still picture, and also the pronunciation of the word was uttered. In multi-mode glosses, the words were hyperlinked but different modalities of pictures, that is, dynamic pictures were used.

Group 1 (X1) could consult single textual glosses (SG) while reading the texts. The second group (X2) read the texts with interactive multiple-choice glosses (IMG). Participants in the third experimental group (X3) received glosses in the form of printed text definitions coupled with still pictures and sound (multi-media glosses). The fourth experimental group (X4) was also introduced to a hypermedia-learning program in which glosses were provided in the form of printed text definitions coupled with video clips (dynamic image and sound). As opposed to experimental groups, the control group received no glosses for the troubling vocabulary items in the texts.

The passages were assigned one session a week over a 3 week period (during each session two passages were covered and also two immediate post-tests were given), saving two sessions for the pre-tests (Language Proficiency Test & Test of Novelty) administration and one session for the delayed post-tests administration.

Vocabulary post-tests, the same as the test of novelty, with the familiar words discarded, were administered as the post-tests (Immediate & Delayed) to assess the subjects' vocabulary retention.

Two types of tests were administered: production and recognition. The production test comprised 50 production items for which the subjects were asked to provide English definitions. And the recognition test comprised 8 matching items, and 42 multiple-choice items for which the subjects were asked to choose the correct choices. Participants performed the production task first so that the multiple-choice recognition task would not provide additional exposure to the target words.

Furthermore, to assess the difference in outcome between short-term and long-term word retention, immediate post-tests (recall of the words immediately after reading the texts) and a delayed post-test (recall of the words after three weeks) were administered. On the whole the subjects' vocabulary retention was measured based on their performances on the post-tests. The students' scores were recorded to be used in the final data analysis.

Design

Since in the field of language teaching we are dealing with the most complicated of human behaviors, language learning, and language behavior, constructing a true experimental design may be difficult if not impossible. The present study was not an exception to the aforementioned belief, so the design of this investigation was an experimental design which can be called the pre-test post-test homogeneous groups design. This design was often used in classroom experiments when experimental and control groups were such naturally assembled groups as intact classes, which were made homogeneous. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also used to determine whether or not the mean test scores of each of the five groups were significantly different from one another.

A mixed experimental design was adopted. A between-subjects design was applied to measure the effects of the application of different gloss types. To assess the difference between short-term and long-term retention of words, a within-subjects was applied.

Data Analysis Procedures

Data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics consisted of the means, standard deviations, and frequency counts obtained from the scores of the students in the experimental groups and the control group both on the pre-tests and the post-tests. They were used to reveal a general picture of the five groups under investigation. Inferential statistics comprised the application of ANOVA to determine whether the means of the five groups were too different to attribute to sampling error, and the application of a Tukey test for the further analysis of the data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Statistical Analyses were done based on the obtained scores of the subjects on the pre-tests and post-tests. They were presented in the following tables.

Analysis 1

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the Test of Novelty were presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Pre-test (Test of Novelty)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error	Minimum	Maximum
Control	31	1.9600	1.1904	.2176	.00	4.00
Experimental 1	31	1.9343	1.1339	.2065	.00	4.00
Experimental 2	31	1.9343	1.2436	.2314	.00	4.00
Experimental 3	31	1.9343	1.2312	.2292	.00	4.00
Experimental 4	31	1.9343	1.1587	.2098	.00	4.00
Total	155	1.9428	1.1916	.1258	.00	4.00

A one-way ANOVA was also used to determine whether the means of the five groups differ significantly on the pre-test (Test of Novelty). The results were presented in Table 3.

Table 3: One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Pre-test (Test of Novelty)

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	.02	5	.01	.005	3.15
Within Groups	136.578	1	1.923	.005	

As the result of the one-way ANOVA showed, the F ratio (.005) did not exceed the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance. This implied that there was no significant difference among the control and four experimental groups and as a result the five groups were almost homogeneous.

Analysis 2

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the immediate post-test (Production Test) were presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Immediate Post-test (Production Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	31	1.98	.79	1.123
Experimental 1	31	3.12	1.24	1.128
Experimental 2	31	2.93	1.44	1.008
Experimental 3	31	5.87	2.12	.980
Experimental 4	31	7.48	2.98	1.002

Then production scores were submitted to repeated measures ANOVA which were presented in Table 5.

Table 5: One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Immediate Post-test (Production Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	134.675	5	89.432	23.065	3.15
Within Groups	102.332	1	4.653		

As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed, the obtained F ratio (23.065) exceeded the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the five groups' performances on the production test. Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the immediate post-test (Recognition Test) were presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Immediate Post-test (Recognition Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	31	5.87	1.7191	.3123
Experimental 1	31	9.43	1.9936	.3588
Experimental 2	31	10.75	2.0809	.3790
Experimental 3	31	17.61	4.2435	.3912
Experimental 4	31	21.48	6.4531	.4124

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see how the control and the four experimental groups performed on the immediate post-test (Recognition Test) and whether the differences among their means were significant or not. The results were presented in Table 7.

Table 7: One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Immediate Post-test (Recognition Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	245/07	5	148.476	39.124	3.15
Within Groups	285/06	1	5.674		

As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed, the obtained F ratio (39.124) exceeded the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the five groups' performances on the vocabulary post-test.

Analysis 3

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the delayed post-test (Production Test) were presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Delayed Post-test (Production Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	31	1.03	.934	.5143
Experimental 1	31	7.65	1.34	.4621
Experimental 2	31	5.75	1.67	.4698
Experimental 3	31	9.61	1.87	.4875
Experimental 4	31	11.48	1.99	.4989

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see how the control and the four experimental groups performed on the delayed post-test (Production Test). The results were presented in Table 9.

Table 9: One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Delayed Post-test (Production Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	101/02	5	61.336	17.011	3.15
Within Groups	85/08	1	3.458		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see whether or not there is a significant main effect for Time, a significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group. They were presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Production ANOVA for Group and Time

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Group	98/02	5	51.268	2.011	1.15
Time	47/08	1	12.458	6.660	.0001
Time x Group	23.65	5	11.48	2.450	.076

Results yielded a significant main effect for time, with significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group. Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the delayed post-test (Recognition Test) were presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Delayed Post-test (Recognition Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	31	5.87	1.6543	.3143
Experimental 1	31	7.43	1.9564	.3621
Experimental 2	31	8.75	2.1121	.3698
Experimental 3	31	13.61	3.9567	.3875
Experimental 4	31	17.48	5.3421	.3989

Recognition scores for every group were submitted to repeated measures ANOVA to see whether the differences among their means were significant or not. The results were presented in Table 12.

Table 12: One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Delayed Post-test (Recognition Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	223/09	5	128.776	20.654	3.15
Within Groups	385/08	1	7.458		

As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed, the obtained F ratio (20.654) exceeded the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the five groups' performances on the vocabulary delayed post-test. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see whether or not there is a significant main effect for Time, a significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group. They were presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Recognition ANOVA for Group and Time

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Group	187.76	5	91.248	8.011	2.15
Time	67/08	1	32.458	16.660	.0001
Time x Group	43.65	5	21.48	4.450	1.76

Results yielded a significant main effect for Time, with significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group.

Analysis 4

However, this significant F did not pinpoint exactly where the differences exist in a pair-wise way. That is, the five groups differed significantly, but did group 1 differ from group 2, 3, 4, and/or group 5? Did group 2 differ from group 3, 4, and/or 5? These questions could be answered by a further analysis of the data using a post hoc test known as the Tukey test. The results of multiple comparisons were presented in Tables 14 and 15.

Table 14: Multiple Comparisons, Results of the Tukey-HSD Test for Performance on the Post-test (Production Test)

(I)Group	(J)Group	Mean Difference (I-J)
Control	Experimental 1	-2.3700
	Experimental 2	-1.1280
	Experimental 3	-3.8600
	Experimental 4	-4.7500
Experimental 1	Control	2.3700
	Experimental 2	1.2420
	Experimental 3	-1.4900
	Experimental 4	-2.3800
Experimental 2	Control	1.1280
	Experimental 1	-1.2420
	Experimental 3	-2.7320
	Experimental 4	-3.6220
Experimental 3	Control	3.8600
	Experimental 1	1.4900
	Experimental 2	2.7320
	Experimental 4	-0.8900
Experimental 4	Control	4.7500
	Experimental 1	2.3800
	Experimental 2	3.6220
	Experimental 3	0.8900

*The mean difference was significant at the .05 level.

Table 14 showed that the experimental groups including 1, 2, 3, and 4 differed from each other. In other words, experimental 4 outperformed the control group and the other experimental groups on the production post-test.

Table 15: Multiple Comparisons, Results of the Tukey-HSD Test for Performance on the Post-test (Recognition Test)

(I)Group	(J)Group	Mean Difference (I-J)
Control	Experimental 1	-3.6700
	Experimental 2	-2.5500
	Experimental 3	-5.3600
	Experimental 4	-6.4500
Experimental 1	Control	3.6700
	Experimental 2	1.1200
	Experimental 3	-1.2900
	Experimental 4	-2.7800
Experimental 2	Control	2.5500

	Experimental 1 Experimental 3 Experimental 4	-1.1200 -2.8100 -3.9000
Experimental 3	Control Experimental 1 Experimental 2 Experimental 4	5.3600 1.2900 2.8100 -1.0900
Experimental 4	Control Experimental 1 Experimental 2 Experimental 3	6.4500 2.7800 3.9000 1.0900

*The mean difference was significant at the .05 level.

Table 15 showed that the experimental groups including 1, 2, 3, and 4 differed from each other. In other words, experimental 4 outperformed the control group and the other experimental groups.

Discussion

As the results of the one-way ANOVA for performance on the immediate post-tests (Production & Recognition) showed, the obtained F ratios exceeded the F critical value at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the five groups' performances on the immediate post-tests.

The scores of delayed post-tests (Production & Recognition) which were submitted to repeated measures ANOVA also showed that there was a significant difference between the five groups' performances on the delayed post-tests (Production & Recognition).

Concerning the research questions in which the effect of different types of glosses was investigated in relation to vocabulary retention, results of the present study showed that participants exposed to different types of glosses (textual, multiple-choice, multi-media, and multi-mode) reported retention of the target vocabulary words significantly more than participants in the control group.

In relation to research question, which probed the effect of type of gloss on production and recognition tasks, significant effect was found both in the recognition and production tasks. Therefore, the null hypothesis which suggested that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the students who learned vocabulary items using different types of glosses and those who learned unknown words using no gloss was rejected.

Additionally, the results of Tukey tests for performance on the post-tests (Production & Recognition) showed that there was a significant difference among the gloss groups. The combination gloss group (X4) outperformed all others. In other words, vocabulary retention was better aided by textual information coupled with sound and dynamic pictures as provided by multi-mode glosses.

The present results would then provide support for Mayer's cognitive theory of multi-mode learning (Mayer, 2001, 2005b) and its SLA conceptualization (Plass & Jones, 2005; Lee & Mallinder, 2001) that accounts for differences in channels to process textual and pictorial input.

With respect to the issue of time, a significant main effect was shown for both recognition and production tasks. Learners in all experimental conditions for both recognition and production tasks significantly increased their scores from the pre-test to the immediate and delayed post-tests but also showed a significant loss from the immediate to the delayed post-tests three weeks later. However, this negative effect is counterbalanced by the fact that participants still showed a significant gain in scores from the pre-test to the delayed post-test.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The results showed that experimental groups who received different types of glosses outperformed the control group both on the production and recognition tests. That is the provision of glosses for the unknown words seemed to be a good technique in helping students learn unknown words incidentally. As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed there was a significant difference between the five groups' performances on the vocabulary immediate and delayed post-tests. That is, both traditional (Textual & Multiple-choice) and computerized (Multi-media & Multi-mode) glosses aided in retaining significantly more target words when compared to a control group. Additionally, subjects exposed to multi-mode glosses outperformed subjects exposed to other types of glosses.

Furthermore, results yielded a significant main effect for time, with significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group.

The results of this study may be of great benefit to EFL learners since glosses allow them the easiest and fastest access to the meanings of unfamiliar words. Glosses also provide multiple exposures to target items and hence increase the retention of previously unknown words. That is, encountering an unknown word in the passage (the first exposure), looking at its gloss (textual, pictorial, multi-media, or multi-mode) to understand its meaning (the second exposure) and going back to the word in the passage to see whether the meaning fits in the context (the third exposure). Moreover, the provision of glosses facilitate the burden of dictionary use which kills all interest in reading and even interferes with the process of constructing a mental representation of text meaning. And since it is usually too large an order for students to memorize all of the unfamiliar word meanings from word-lists, the glossing technique can help them pick up vocabulary items through reading activities incidentally in an efficient way.

The findings of this research may also encourage teachers who still believe in teacher-centeredness in language teaching to change their viewpoints in favor of more learner-centered techniques. As indicated by Stewart and Cross (1991), with glossed text, three voices become involved in the reading: the inner voice of the reader, the voice of the author, and the voice of the teacher manifested in the gloss (p. 5). So the purpose of glossing is to produce independent readers which is the ultimate goal of teaching.

Based on the findings of this study materials developers can also make use of this technique and provide glosses for the troubling vocabulary items of authentic texts either in the students' first or second language but their responsibility lies in providing unambiguous glosses (glosses which themselves do not present new puzzles).

Limitations of the study

Like any kind of research, the present study suffered from a number of limitations. They are as follows:

1. The researcher had to narrow down the scope of the study to only one university (Azad University, Central Branch).
2. The provision of comprehensible textual and pictorial glosses had its own limitations such as lack of exact equivalents or appropriate pictures (still & dynamic pictures) for the troubling vocabulary items.

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THE EFFECT OF MIND MAPPING ON FILM DISCUSSION TO DEVELOP EFL STUDENTS'
LISTENING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effect of mind mapping strategy on English as foreign language (EFL) students' film discussion developing their listening comprehension. Thus a teacher-made language proficiency test was administered to the pre-intermediate students majoring in English translation at Abadan Azad University, Iran; and 60 students were selected for the next phase of the experiment. Then they were randomly divided into experimental and control groups. Both groups took a pre-test of film discussion on the videos of Top Notch 1 A and B. The experimental group received mind mapping instruction on watching the videos and film discussion while the control group was allowed to discuss the film in class discussion without mind mapping strategy. The course lasted for 10 sessions and finally they sat for the post-test. Data were analyzed through Independent Samples t-test. The results demonstrated that there was a significant difference between the groups. In other words, the students who used mind mapping strategy in film discussion activities outperformed the control group in terms of developing their listening comprehension.

KEYWORDS: Mind mapping, Listening comprehension, Video, Class discussion

INTRODUCTION

Listening-the process of hearing, identifying, understanding, and interpreting spoken language continued to receive considerable attention from researchers in the fields of speech, psychology, sociology, and linguistics (Al-Jarf, 2011).. Listening is of essential importance in learning a foreign language, in that it comes before speaking, reading and writing in the development of all communication skills. Since conversation affords more content clues, students are more frustrated with listening materials on a passage level, especially academic speeches, during which students do not have communication with the speaker and many situational clues.

Improving listening comprehension is usually a complicated problem. Both educators and learners are trying to attack the problems. According to Khanchali (2005), listening to and understanding speech involves a number of basic processes, some depending upon linguistic competence, some depending upon previous knowledge that is not necessarily of a purely linguistic nature, and some depending upon psychological variables that affect the mobilization of the competence and knowledge in the particular task situation. The listener must have access to a set of listening strategies in order to listen, understand, process, and remember the information transmitted.

There are common strategies that underlie listening comprehension such as comprehension questions, true/false statements, multiple choice questions and matching. These are strategies which can be used to exploit a listening passage. There appears to be an important general language processing skill that influences performance in listening (Anderson & Lynch, 1995) namely, note taking which plays a significant role in improving students' listening comprehension.

Note taking is one way to enhance listening because you are using a systematic approach to the taking and reviewing of your notes and this can add very much to your understanding and remembering the content of what the teacher has said in class. In teaching of English for academic purpose, note taking is considered as an important macro-skill

in lecture-listening comprehension process and a popular and useful form of selective listening (Flowerdew, 1994; Rost, 2002).

Recent investigations in learning the second language have revealed that there are several different ways to take notes, each of which is deployed for different purposes: The Sentence method, The Mind Mapping method, The Format Outline procedure, The Cornell Method, and The Clustering method; Among these the Mind mapping method is selected to be the focus of the present study as this method enables students to organize their notes by categories and relationships while mapping.

Mind mapping, developed by Tony Buzan in 1970, is a method that uses comprehension/ concentration skills to create notes which relate each fact or idea to every other fact or idea. Mapping creates a graphic representation of a lecture's content. Because these techniques are diagrammatic, they provide listeners with the ability to capture a lot of information on a single page. Many around the world, including managers and students, have said that they find the techniques of mind mapping useful, being better able to retain information and ideas than by using traditional "linear" note taking methods.

In high school and even in college classes, students seldom receive significant training on how to take good notes and therefore rely too much on their memory instead of taking notes and because of that they would lose and miss important information. Good note taking forces the students to listen carefully and struggle with finding an effective way to fit all of the important information without writing too much or not write enough so that their notes are useless. Respectively, the goal of this study is to see the extents to which note taking strategy (Mind mapping) might improve listening comprehension in an academic situation.

Note taking is essential to students' success and forces them to listen carefully. The value of note taking in terms of enhanced listening comprehension, however, is a matter of dispute in ELT research. Supporters of note taking argue that it has a positive effect on learning and retaining lecture material. Others, however, point out that there is little empirical evidence to reinforce such claims (Tsai & Wu, 2010).

Note taking is a skill taught by relatively few foreign language (FL) teachers. Some, however, find it important to teach note-taking guidelines in L2 for the sake of having "an organized written summary as the end product" (Marchi & Najul, 1994, p. 46). It is critical for learners to master note taking for school, work, and life in general. A good reason to take notes is that you can never re-listen to speech or a presentation. You must take every opportunity to record and keep information so you can use it later.

Although there are some significant studies concerning note-taking strategies, there is little empirical research on the significance of mind mapping strategy in promoting listening comprehension in an academic situation in Iranian EFL environment. Therefore, conducting an experimental study in order to see whether mind mapping strategy can improve EFL students' listening comprehension seems to be promising (Delam Salehi, Jahandar & Khodabandelou, 2013).

Listening is the first language mode that children acquire. It provides foundation for all aspects of language and cognitive development, and it plays a life-long role in the processes of communication. According to Bulletin (1952 cited in Khanchali, 2005), listening is the fundamental language skill through which people gain a large portion of their education, their information, their understanding of the world and of human affairs, their ideas, sense of values, and their appreciation. In this day of mass communication, much of its oral, it is of vital importance that students are taught to listen effectively and critically. Given the importance of listening in language learning and teaching it is essential for language teachers to help students become effective listeners.

Regarding listening comprehension, one of the major problems of the Iranian students is that they cannot successfully follow a university lecture due to faulty listening skills. Note taking is important because it improves the listening ability by increasing the listener's attentiveness and prevents side tracking (Delam Salehi, Jahandar & Khodabandelou, 2013). Taking notes helps to identify the important idea presented in videotapes. The significance of this study lies in the fact that it suggests taking effective strategies which may enhance EFL learners' aural skill.

Research into L2 listening is important because a better understanding of the process will inform pedagogy. Students who learn to control their listening processes can enhance their comprehension. This, in turn, affects the

development of other skills and overall success in L2 learning. Thus, it is important to improve the abilities of listening comprehension. Listening involves a complex process of communication. Successful listening occurs when the listener understands the speaker's intended message. In school and at work, poor listening may cause communication breakdowns, while skilled listening promotes success.

The good news is that listening is a teachable- and learnable-skill that engages analytical and practical abilities. Classic studies have shown that immediately after listening, students are likely to recall only half of what was said. This low retention rate is due, in part, to the following listening challenges.

Taking notes makes you an active class participant-even when you do not say a word-and provides you with study materials-what is on the live is nothing short of your academic success. Class notes have two primary purposes: to serve as a record of what happened in class and to use for studying, alone and in combination with your text notes. Because it is virtually impossible to take notes on everything you hear, note-taking encourages you to use your analytical intelligence to critically evaluate what is worth remembering (Delam Salehi, Jahandar & Khodabandelou, 2013).

The purpose of note-taking in lectures and tutorials is to record our understanding of the ideas and concepts discussed in class for future uses such as essay writing, preparing to read, and studying for examinations and tests. However, in practice, achieving this purpose can be a real challenge.

Mind Mapping Method

Mind Mapping developed by Tony Buzan (1970), is a method that uses comprehension concentration skills to create notes which relate each fact or idea to every other fact or idea. Mapping creates a graphic representation of a lecture's content. Because they are diagrammatic, they have the potential to capture a lot of information on a single page. They help show the conceptual links between ideas and allows for additional material to be added without the need to crowd the page. In this Mind Map the central topic has been placed in the centre of the page and the main ideas related to it are placed on branches that directly connect to the central topic. The details which support these main ideas are then directly linked to the main ideas (and thereby, indirectly to the central topic). There is room to add information on further main ideas and you can add color or doodles to accent your work. Each time you work with the mind map, you will make use of the key words and phrases that you developed in the review column of the Cornell notes and as a result you will interpret these keys each time you work with the Mind Map; essentially, you will be reviewing your material in a brief and active way. A mind map is a multicolored and image centered radial diagram that represents semantic or other connections between portions of learned material. For example, it can graphically illustrate the structure of government institutions in a state. Once a mind map is well-structured and well established, it can be subject to review (e.g. with spaced repetition). The uniform graphic formulation of the semantic structure of knowledge may help reconsolidation of memories. This can make memories more stable and long lasting and may increase motivation to work on a task.

Many around the world, including managers and students, have said that they find the techniques of mind mapping to be useful, being better able to retain information and ideas than by using traditional "linear" note taking methods.

Mind maps can be drawn by hand, either as "rough notes" for example, during a lecture or meeting, or can be more sophisticated in quality. There are also a number of software packages available for producing mind maps. Some students find that it is difficult to record a lecture using mind maps because they are unsure of the structure of the lecture in advance. If you feel the same way, you might try using mind maps to collect up the key information from a group of notes that you have already taken to get a sense of the overall themes of a section of your course. Or, you can use mind maps to capture and organize ideas you have about writing a paper as they occur to you randomly. The key here is that mind maps allow for a great deal of information to be summarized in one place in a way that emphasizes the interrelationships among ideas.

This format helps you to visually track your lecture regardless of conditions. Little thinking is needed and relationships can easily be seen. It is also easy to edit your notes by adding numbers, marks, and color coding. Review is simple by covering lines and clusters to recall relationships. Main points can be written on flash or note cards and pieced together into a table or larger structure at a later date. This method may also be used effectively when listening to a guest lecturer or whenever you can not anticipate how a lecture is going to be organized or

presented. Mind maps are useful for chapter reviews, test preparation, planning, organizing, report-writing, note-taking, and generating ideas for creative writing or research.

Listening Comprehension

Language educators have approached note taking from different perspectives. McKeating (1981) sees note taking as a complex activity which combines reading and listening with selecting, summarizing, and writing. Carrier (1983) maintains that the teaching of note taking can yield good result in improving the students' ability to succeed. According to Kiewra (1989), note taking is beneficial for at least two reasons. First, it aids lecture learning by activating attention mechanisms and engaging the learner's cognitive processes of coding, intergrading, synthesizing, and transforming aurally received input into a personally meaningful form. Second, note taking is seen beneficial because the notes taken serve as an external repository of information that permits later revision and review to stimulate recall of the information heard.

Putnam, Deshler, and Schumaker (1993) pointed out that taking notes on lectures is a common expectation of teachers especially at the secondary level. Hughes and Suritsky (1994) maintained that because taking effective notes can make the difference between passing and failing, finding strategies and ideas for effective note taking needs to be a common expectation of school instruction. But we must remember that we need to teach students how to take notes.

Some researchers have found positive relationships between note taking and learning. Ornstein (1994) believes that all students would benefit if teachers deliberately trained their students in note taking techniques, especially the lower-achieving students. Fajardo (1996) highlights the complexity of this task by pointing out two aspects of note taking: (a) its involvement with the combination of different skills like listening or reading, selecting, summarizing and writing, and (b) its requirement of selecting the relevant information from the nonessential.

Ferris and Tagg (1996) conducted a research, and in their research content-area instructors at four different institutions and in a variety of academic disciplines responded to questions and provided comments about their ESL students' aural/oral skills. Respondents felt that their ESL students have great difficulty with class participation, asking and responding to questions, and general listening comprehension (as opposed to lecture comprehension). They also suggested strongly that ESL instructors strive for authenticity in their EAP activities, specifically that they give students opportunities to practice listening to real lectures by a variety of speakers, interact with native speakers, and cope with genre-specific vocabulary, reading materials, and writing tasks.

Finally, in this survey of specific listening and speaking tasks required by college and university instructors at four institutions (Ferris & Tagg, 1996), found that professors' expectations and requirements for their students' listening and speaking skills vary considerably across academic discipline, institution, and class type (graduate, upper division, or lower division), and that, although lecture comprehension and note-taking are still very important, today's professors also require a variety of tasks, including graded collaborative assignments, informal presentations on case studies or course readings, and on-the-spot recitations on laboratory projects. With the exception of business professors, however, most faculties indicated that traditional up-front student presentations are not as common as they might think, even in graduate classes.

Pressley, VanEtten, Yokoi, Freebem, and VanMeter (1998) found that learners tended to learn far better by focusing on the content of learning material rather than worrying over any one particular form of note taking. In one study by Cary and Carlson (2001), students were asked to carry out a series of arithmetic calculations, with some partial results being useful for later calculations. Some of the students were allowed to take notes and others were not. Among all the phenomena observed, two results deserve to be highlighted. Firstly, at certain moments in the calculation of the solutions, taking notes turned out to be disadvantageous, so even those students who were authorized to take notes tended to rely upon internal memorization of the intermediary results. At each stage of the task, the students juggled between taking notes and internal memorization in order to obtain the best cost/benefit ratio. Secondly, the spatial formatting of notes was seen to facilitate the production of solutions, as such formats allow useful information to be presented more clearly than formatting methods that closely follow standard linear textual forms.

Boyle and Weishaar (2001) examined the effects of strategic note taking on the recall and comprehension of high school students with learning disabilities or educable mental retardation. Twenty-six students with high incidence

disabilities were randomly assigned by grades and disability to either an experimental or control group. Using strategic note taking, students in the experimental group were taught to independently take notes while viewing a videotaped lecture. Students who were taught strategic note taking scored significantly higher on measures of immediate free recall, long-term free recall, comprehension, and number of notes recorded than students in control group who used conventional note taking.

Michellini (2000) discussed potential uses of mind maps in nursing practice, and suggested that mind maps could be used by home health care nurses to teach patients how to take their medications. Farrand, Hussain, and Hennessy (2002) found that the mind map technique had a limited but significant impact on recall only, in undergraduate students (a 10% increase over baseline for a 600-word text only) as compared to preferred study methods (a 6% increase over baseline). This improvement was only robust after a week for those in the mind map group, and there was a significant decrease in motivation compared to the subjects' preferred methods of note taking. They suggested that learners preferred to use other methods because using a mind map was an unfamiliar technique, and its status as a "memory enhancing" technique engendered reluctant to apply it.

Pollitt (2003) explains how mind mapping can be used to improve note-taking, presentation, and to make meetings more effective. D'antoni and Pinto Zipp (2005) conducted a research, and in their research fourteen third-year physical therapy students enrolled in a doctoral neuro-rehabilitation course were required to create a mind map based upon the lecture presentation and assigned reading for six diagnoses. The students were asked to complete a post-course survey to assess their perceptions of the usefulness of the mind map learning technique in improving organization and integration of course material. Although the subject pool was limited to 14 students, 10 out of 14 agreed that the mind map learning technique enabled them to better organize/integrate material presented in the course, while only two disagreed. The final two students respond neutrally when asked if the mind map learning technique assisted them in organizing/integrating course material. However, these 2 students did agree the technique enabled them to recognize areas in which further study was necessary them to adequately master the course material.

According to Chow (2009), there are many memory devices that are used by people for remembering facts and figures and these include things like mnemonics and rhymes. However, mind mapping can help you remember things even better because when you are using mind maps you are actively creating a flow of thought that is associating itself with the idea or fact that you are trying to remember.

Considering the above mentioned studies and the fact that Iranian EFL learners' need to learn note taking strategies, it seems that few studies have been done in regard to the effect of mind mapping strategy on improving EFL learners listening comprehension. Therefore, the present study has been motivated to investigate the effect(s) of note taking strategy (Mind mapping) instruction on the students' listening comprehension achievement in an academic setting.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The current study attempts to answer the following question: Does instruction on mind mapping strategy promote listening comprehension skill on pedagogical videos in an academic context?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 60 undergraduate students including both female and male majoring in English translation at Abadan Azad University. These participants who had passed courses in English were selected from a population of 100 pre-intermediate students after taking a simulated TOEFL proficiency test (Barron, 2003). Their ages ranged from 20 to 29. After administering the proficiency test, the participants were randomly assigned into two groups of experimental and control each including 30 participants.

Instrumentation

A simulated TOEFL test was administered as a pre-test to determine the English language proficiency level of the participants. The test consisted of listening, grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension sections each

including 30 items. The reliability of this test, computed through the KR-21 formula, was 0.835. Pre-test and the post-test were designed based on Top Notch 1 (A & B) developed by Ascher and Soslow (2007) videos including 30 multiple-choice items. The reliability coefficients of both pre-test and post-test were calculated through KR-21 as ($r=.826$) and ($r=.736$) respectively.

Top Notch 1 (A & B) was presented to the participants in the experimental and control groups as an instructional source prior to the post-test. Participants were instructed how to use mind mapping techniques and take notes based on mind mapping method and practice using this technique and the control group was learned how to discuss the films. These activities were followed in a session at the beginning of the treatment. Then they watched five episodes in ten sessions before taking the post-test. Finally, the groups were asked to answer 30 information teacher-made questions after watching Top Notch 1 (A & B) visual episodes on different themes which lasted 30 minutes; a CD player was used to display the episodes. The reliability indices were calculated through KR-21 for the pre-test and post-test were 0.758 and 0.802 respectively.

Procedure

This study was conducted over the course of ten weeks and consisted of six phases. In the first phase of the study, a population of 60 undergraduate students majoring in English translation at Abadan Azad University was invited to take the simulated TOEFL proficiency test. The assigned time for this test was 95 minutes. The test was used to select the pre-intermediate level students from among the whole participants. In the second phase of the study, the researcher selected those students whose language proficiency scores ranged between one standard deviation above or below the mean. Based on their scores, 60 participants were called for the next phase of the study. In the third phase of the study, the participants were randomly divided into two experimental and control groups. Then the pre-test was administered to 10 students with similar characteristics of the population and their study to calculate reliability of the test.

The experimental group (i.e., mind mapping group), the instruction was carried out in the form of "informal instruction", that is, the participants received instruction from the instructor within the class. They were taught the mind mapping strategy through a pamphlet and the researcher helped them with unclear parts. The control group received the same instruction without focusing on the mind map strategies. They received just film discussion. The aim of this phase was to gain insight into the students' mind mapping habits and attitudes regarding note taking instruction. At this phase of the study, after an interval of a week, the post-test was used to assess participants' mind mapping method knowledge. This test comprised of 30 multiple choice items. Both groups took the post-test as they were required to watch five different visual episodes for 30 minutes; then they responded to a set of 30 information wh-questions. Collected data were collected and analyzed through Independent Samples *t*-test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After administering the pre and the post-test, according to the obtained data, the performance of the two sample groups was compared and contrasted by applying an Independent Samples *t*-test to determine any significant difference between the groups. The results of descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	13.1667	3.64912	.66624
Control	30	13.8333	4.71303	.86048

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics on the pre and the post-test. The mean of the pre-test in both the experimental and the control groups are very close. Since the means of the tests cannot determine the significant difference, Independent Samples *t*-test was run on the comparison of the tests' means. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Independent Samples *t*-test (Pre-test)

Groups	N	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Mean
Experimental vs. Control	30	.613	58	.543	.66667	1.08825

Table 2 indicates the *t* score difference between the pre-tests. The difference between pre and post achievers is significant at ($p < 0.05$) since the observed *t* ($O_t = .543$) is less than the critical *t* ($C_t = 2.066$) with $df = 15$. In other words, the both tests are not significantly different. The results of the post-test scores are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (Post-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	19.3333	7.63988	1.39485
Control	30	14.3000	5.29899	.96746

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics on the post-test among low achievers among the pre-intermediate participants. The mean of the pre-test is less than their post-test. Since the means cannot determine the significant difference between the means, Paired Samples *t*-test was run on the comparison of the groups' means. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Independent Samples *t*-test (Post-test)

Groups	N	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Mean
Experimental vs. Control	30	2.965	58	.004	5.03333	1.69752

Table 4 indicates the *t* score difference between the post-tests. The difference between the post-tests is significant at ($p < 0.05$) since the observed *t* ($O_t = 2.965$) is greater than the critical *t* ($C_t = 2.066$) with $df = 58$. In other words, the hypothesis that both groups are not different could be rejected.

Discussion

This study has examined the effect of mind mapping note-taking instruction on listening comprehension skill of students learning English as a foreign language through film discussion. The first question of the study raised the point whether giving instruction on the mind mapping strategy to university students can promote students' listening comprehension skill. Experimental group outperformed the control group since they used mind mapping techniques. The control group who received class discussion on films showed lower level of language achievement on wh-grammar than those who took notes on the basis of the mind mapping method.

All trained note-takers yielded significantly higher scores than the other group. Furthermore, the mean for the mind mapping method was higher. This showed that the note-taking instruction plays a significant role in listening comprehension skill. In other words; this may suggest that the effect of explicit instruction of note-taking strategies in listening comprehension skill on mind mapping method was positive. Accordingly, students often seem surprised when they have listened in class; everything they heard made sense, they took notes, and they still cannot recall the information later on. It should not be surprising; most of what you hear in class stays only in short-term memory and then is lost. When we learn something new, it is automatically entered into our short term memory and unless we take steps to transfer it into long term memory, the information will soon be forgotten. The first step for transferring that information is to review the notes as soon as possible. After a lecture, checking your understanding of the ideas and making any necessary corrections and changes that would help improve your comprehension and retention of the material. As the two groups of participants in this study practiced note-taking, they seemed to digest the ideas presented in listening comprehension test better than the non-note taker groups. The higher achievement was more evident in the performance of mind mapping group as they scored highest.

Results obtained from the post test for all groups revealed that mind mapping group performed better on the post test and mind mapping group had the highest mean than the other two groups. To conclude, the results of this study suggest the existence of positive relationship between listening comprehension skill and note-taking strategy. Organizing information, using pictures, symbol and abbreviations instead of full words, writing in phrases rather than in sentences and using brainstorming helped the Mind mapping group recall the information when they watched film.

The findings of this study seem to be consistent with some researchers for example (Ornstein, 1994) explored the relationship between note-taking instruction and student achievement and he found that instruction had positive improvement on student achievement. The results of the present study also contradicted some other researchers (Palmatier, 1971, Peck & Hannafin, 1983), who found no improvement in achievement for students receiving instruction in note-taking strategy. According to Sperry (1968), Ornstein (1977) and Zaidel (1983), note taking would lead you to conclude that a note-taking and thought organization technique designed to satisfy the needs of the whole brain would have to include not only words, numbers, order, sequence, and lines, but also color, images, dimensions, symbols, visual rhythms; in other words, mind maps (Buzan, 1989). In this study the mind mapping group drew an image of central key in the middle of a blank piece of paper, they used images, codes, symbols, and dimensions from the central key, and also they linked supporting ideas to the main idea, they used different colors because different colors had an impact on their mood and behavior.

This group also organized and classified concepts in their minds and presented information in relation to other data, which helped them to mark which concepts are more important than others. They were also able to view the entire series of relationships between ideas with just one look, which eased the cognitive load on their mind and, enabled them to have a quick overview of the subject therefore, the mind mapping group performed significantly better than the other two groups.

Farrand, Hussain, and Hennessy (2002) found that "mind maps provide an effective study technique when applied to written material" (p. 426). A mind map lets you rapidly produce an almost infinite number of ideas, and at the same time organize them by placing each idea next to what it is related to. This makes a very powerful tool for creative writing or report writing, where it is very important to get down all your ideas first. It is then a trivial matter to read the mind map and write a sentence or paragraph on each 'key word'.

CONCLUSION

An important finding of this research was that teaching the Mind Mapping note-taking strategy to university students can help improve students' performance. Therefore, this study demonstrates that there is a positive relationship between note-taking strategy and listening comprehension. Because of the fact that the Mind Mapping note-taking instruction influences participants' performance in the listening comprehension skill, we suggest that students should be taught to use this technique with a number of lecture topics before actually incorporating it into their own classes (Tsai & Wu, 2010).

Closely linked to participants' success in improving their video listening was their improvement in taking notes and constructing meaning from those notes. Effective note taking can help students guess at meaning in a post-listening review of notes, especially when comprehension is limited during the listening event. An illustrative example of how note-taking strategy instruction benefits students is that it helps them to develop their own abbreviations and symbols for faster note taking and to realize that meaning can be constructed from key word notes rather than entire sentences. Having more confidence in their ability to construct meaning from their notes made it easier for the participants in this study to selectively listen for the information needed to answer the advance organizer questions.

According to the research results, students can improve their listening performance via a note-taking strategy. On the other aspects, note-taking is effective to enhance listening performance because it can help students concentrate more on the listening text as well as enhance recall. The advantages of note-taking outweigh its disadvantages, so it can be concluded that note-taking is an effective strategy for students to improve their listening comprehension.

The results of this investigation might have implications for EFL teaching, testing and research programs. Based on the findings of this study the teachers are recommended to include note-taking materials as part of their instruction to help students grasp more about the subject matter under instruction. Students may not know how to jot down key

words during the note-taking process, so they will miss some important information to interfere with listening comprehension; as a result, it is essential for teachers to effectively train students on the note-taking strategy.

McAndrew (1983) suggested that instructors use handouts that give students room to add notes by inserting verbal cues into the notes to highlight the key words or important information. Carrier and Titus (1981) asked teachers to devote some class time exclusively to a review period before an exam. By reviewing notes, students can be cognitively aware how to take notes related to key words and main ideas from the listening text.

More recent research (Kiewra & Benton, 1988; Lin, 2004) has been studying the relationship between lecture note-taking behaviors and academic ability, and they conclude that the amount of note-taking is related to academic achievement and listening comprehension development. To enhance EFL students' listening performance, it is essential for instructors to teach effective note-taking skills to contribute to the improvement of academic performance (Delam Salehi, Jahandar & Khodabandelou, 2013). Future designs need to separate the different types of note-taking strategies so that their relative contributions to effective listening can be determined. In addition, the number of female in this study was more than male. Therefore, future research can examine the effect of note-taking strategy on gender.

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THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION AND CONSCIOUSNESS-RAISING (CR)
ON TEACHING PRAGMATIC FUNCTIONS IN WRITING AMONG IRANIAN
HIGH SCHOOL EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of pragmatic functions instruction on Iranian high school English as foreign language (EFL) learners' writing proficiency. For the purpose of this study, 60 Iranian female learners studying at the first grade of high school in Dezful were selected through simple random sampling procedure. The results of the proficiency test revealed that the groups were homogeneous. Then they were divided into experimental and control groups. The control group was taught based on usual and traditional methods of writing instruction, and the experimental group received treatment based on pragmatic function instruction in writing one- paragraph essays. The achievement of writing on pragmatic functions was assessed based on a pre- and post-test method. The Pre-test included 30 items, focusing on pragmatic functions proposed by Halliday (1985). The pre-test was performed before the treatment period to make the researcher sure that the groups are homogeneous on pragmatic function knowledge in writing essays. Having administered the treatment, the participants took the post-test on pragmatic functions consisting of 30 multiple-choice items related to pragmatic functions acquired during the treatment. Then, the results revealed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the participants in the control and experimental groups ($p < 0.05$). Thus, the students who received explicit pragmatics instruction focusing on language pragmatic functions in writing essay performed better on the post-test than those who did not.

KEYWORDS: Consciousness-raising (CR), Pragmatic Functions, Writing, EFL

INTRODUCTION

Even though EFL learners can understand what the native speakers of second language (L2) say, but they still produce the utterances in a way that is like their own native language than the target language. Pragmatic competence is the ability to convey and interpret meaning appropriately in a social situation. It has become an object of inquiry in a wide range of disciplines including linguistics, applied linguistics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, communication research, and cross-cultural studies (Taguchi, 2009). Learners' developments of pragmatic functions that potentially influence pragmatic learning have been highlighted in educational contexts. One of those functions is the role of instruction on learners' awareness and the production of pragmatic functions (Alcón & Pitarch, 2010).

Consciousness-raising is a psycholinguistic notion that is related to the question of how second languages are learned and is specifically connected to the cognitive question of how students' ideas act. Rhetorical CR includes an exploratory field consisting of the way writers construct meaning for their readers through their texts within certain contexts (Sengupta, 1999, pp. 291-319). Clearly, specific criteria should govern on awareness-raising within the classroom. For instance, moves writers make (Swales, 1990) or metadiscourse have relied on awareness-raising in the classroom. As Johns (1993, p. 87) explains that "...if we are to educate our students for a breadth of communicative demands. They will confront in English language contexts, we, and they, must understand the necessity of considering an audience as real-living in a community that participates in sharing values and interests".

Pragmatic functions writing in conversations with the completion test format in a second language does not enjoy a big amount of support. Second language writers need to reach a specific level of fluency by the time they are writing pragmatic functions (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001). Otherwise, they will find it a very effortful process which may require conscious attention to retrieve words and spelling; leaving little working memory free to attend to higher-level concerns such as generating detailed content and organizing the discourse.

According to Brock and Nagasaka (2005), there are a number of language competencies which English language learners must develop, in tandem, in order to communicate successfully in English. Any successful communicative event, at least one that extends beyond expressions of simple, immediate need, will require that L2 speakers have developed some mastery of syntax, morphology, phonology and lexis of the English language. Yet, as many English teachers recognize, language functions such as pragmatic functions that are grammatically and phonologically correct sometimes fail because the learner's pragmatic competence-his or her ability to express or interpret communicative functions in particular communicative contexts-is undeveloped or faulty. Pragmatic incompetence in the L2, resulting in the use of inappropriate expressions or inaccurate interpretations resulting in unsuccessful communicative events. This may make some misunderstandings for native speakers that the L2 speaker is either impolite or ignorant.

With writing like other three skills, learners should be involved in meaning and language-focused learning, and fluency improvement. It is also significant that the usage of writing cover the whole of uses that learners deal with in their daily lives such as writing friendly letters and business letters, note-taking, academic writing, making lists and filling forms. Every this mentioned writings include certain ways of organizing and presenting the writing that should be considered. Learners should do lots of writings dealing with many particular elements of the writing skill that time spent writing fulfills efficient practice for improving them. Learners should transfer a message while writing. Most writing should be done with the aim of communicating a message to the reader and the writer should have a reader in mind when writing. Writing instruction should be based on a careful needs analysis which considers what the learners need to be able to do with writings.

Learners should bring experience and knowledge to their writing. Writing is most likely to be successful and meaningful for the learners if they are well prepared for what they are going to write (Nation, 2008). Teaching pragmatic functions in the language classroom is important for two reasons: (1) it has been demonstrated that there is a need for it to communicate properly; and (2) quite simply, it has proven to be effective in negotiation of meaning. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) asserts that, without instruction, differences in pragmatics show up in the English of learners regardless of their first language background or language proficiency. As the research into pragmatic functions across cultures has demonstrated, pragmatic transfer between languages can, on occasion, make non-native speakers appear rude or insincere.

One approach that may help learners create their own interlanguage is awareness-raising. Rose (1994) introduces active video-viewing activities and suggests that this approach, which promotes pragmatic consciousness-raising (CR), has the distinct advantage of providing learners with a foundation in some of the central aspects of the role of pragmatics, and that it can be used by teachers of both native speakers and non-native speakers. Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of instruction on the acquisition of pragmatic competence in the situation of EFL written production among young learners at high school level, to analyze the effect of CR on pragmatic functions in their production and to attain some insights into teaching communicative strategies in EFL writing.

In order to be successful in communication, it is essential for second language learners to know not just grammar and text organization but also pragmatic aspects of writing skill (Bachman, 2009). In many EFL classes, even where teachers have devoted much time to teach using pragmatic functions in writing dialogues, the results have been disappointing, especially where English is not the main medium of communication. Therefore, finding a new method to solve this problem and help teachers with writing instruction on pragmatic functions seems to be crucial. This study tries to fill this gap; thus, the present study investigated the effect of pragmatics functions instruction and CR on learning pragmatic functions and their impact on developing writing proficiency among EFL learners.

Since using pragmatic functions in writing skill is significant for most of the students. Teachers should equip themselves with up-to-date techniques and methods of teaching this skill. One of these ways is CR of pragmatics. This can automatize production since the focus is on meaning and context that can help the students to understand the intended meaning of the writer in different contexts. Thus, pragmatics is appealing because it is about how

people make sense of each other linguistically, but it can be a frustrating area of study because it requires us to make sense of people and what they have in mind. Pragmatics is a relatively novel branch of linguistic research, which focuses on the rules and tendencies of language as function of communication. The current study attempts to show the effect of teaching pragmatic functions on learners' writing proficiency; moreover, pragmatic functions instruction (i.e., noticing, highlighting, and CR) has significant effects on learning pragmatic functions. This study may help those dealing with foreign language teaching, such as syllabus designers, material developers, test makers, learners, translators and the like.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teachers of English often do not teach pragmatic components of English because of a lack of time and awareness of the importance of pragmatics and particularly language functions in daily life. Nowadays, the importance of the use of language functions included in pragmatics in a worldwide context needs pragmatic competence that will guide the students towards metapragmatic ability. Textbooks and their contents are considered as the basic sources of teaching English as a foreign or second language that the learners focus on them to increase their language skills. But unfortunately, conversations used in the textbooks are not representatives of authentic and natural language use (Vellenga, 2004).

Social interactions are regarded as specific fashions of externalities, that the behavior of reference group affects an individual's decisions (Scheinkman, 2008). In human interactions, language is considered as a vehicle that can show people's feelings, attitudes, personality, intentions, desires, and thoughts (Wierzbicka, 2010). In addition, language is regarded social in nature (Wedin, 2010). In the field of pragmatics, social interactions reveal either spoken communication including at least two people or all types of written and mixed forms of communication (Kasper & Rose, 2002). As a result, it is necessary for English language teachers and learners to be perfectly conscious of various forms of social interactions that can aid them to become socially proficient in communication and to understand how to use this information efficiently.

In educational contexts, learners' development of pragmatics has been examined from different theoretical aspects and effective conditions on pragmatic learning have been focused. Also, the results obtained of findings reveal that explicit teaching is better than implicit teaching (Takahashi, 2001, 2010). Learners' improvements of pragmatics and factors that potentially affect pragmatic have been emphasized in educational occasions. In fact, the rationale for the necessity of instruction in pragmatics is provided by Schmidt (1993) that believed that simple exposure to the target language is not enough for improving pragmatic knowledge. He states that pragmatic functions and related contextual aspects are often neglected even after continued exposure. A classroom approach that teaches children to use conversational knowledge of language functions serves their ability to extract meaning from text and prepares students with a practical way of knowledge transfer. However, in the field of pedagogical intervention in pragmatics, Alcón and Martínez-Flor (2007) claim that although the literature of interlanguage pragmatics signify the positive effect of teaching for L2 pragmatic development, the results are temporary until concluding more researches about the instructional influences of certain target forms in FL classrooms. In order to communicate effectively in the second or foreign language, learners should be able to comprehend the utterances and also produce utterances that are regarded contextually appropriate by their target addressee (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Schauer, 2009).

Product-oriented approaches for writing rely on tasks in which the learner copies, imitates, and transforms models provided by the teacher or the textbook. Such approach is compatible with bottom-up processing, structural linguistics and sentence level. However, it is not consistent with creating thoughts in discourse analysis. It focuses on well-formed text instead of on the way of generating it by the writers. This writing method was imposed on students by giving presenting them good sample texts to imitate (Silva, 1990). Therefore, writing was considered as a situation for display and practice of grammatical knowledge. Although this kind of instruction can still be found nowadays in both the classroom and the textbooks, the product-focused approaches basically applied from the 1940s to the 1960s (Kern, 2000). In addition, Nunan (1999) believes that product-oriented approaches focus on the final result, the error-free, coherent text. Nunan (1999) believes that process approaches rely on the stages involved in drafting and redrafting a piece of work. Proponents of process writing confirm and approve the idea that there will never be the perfect text, but the one can become closer to perfection through discussing, producing, focusing on, and reworking continuous drafts of a text.

In a study, Mirzaei and Esmaeili (2013) investigated the effect of explicit instruction on EFL learners' interlanguage pragmatic development. To conduct this research, a sample comprising 210 Iranian non-native EFL learners majoring in English from three Iranian state universities and 60 native speakers from American English-speaking were chosen from which, 30 non-native speakers were divided into two main groups of experimental group receiving explicit instruction and control group and the rest of 90 non-native and 60 native speakers participated in pretest and posttest based on multiple-choice discourse comprehension test (MDCT), written discourse completion test (WDCT) and scoring-scale improvement. The instruction continued for about 12 weeks. The results revealed that explicit instruction improved pragmatically appropriate use of language.

Rafieyan, Abdul Majid and Eng (2013) examined the relationship between positive attitude toward target language culture and its impact on improvement of pragmatic understanding. They employed 32 intermediate level language learners at a language academy in Malaysia. The data were gathered through a Likert scale attitude questionnaire and pre-test and post-test administered were based on two pragmatic comprehension test. The instruction lasted for 12 weeks. The conclusions showed that interest and positive attitude by familiarity with cultural features in the classrooms plays an important role in the students' improvement of pragmatic comprehension ability.

In another study, Grossi (2009) investigated how teaching compliments and compliment responses could be presented in the adult ESL classroom. In this study, naturally occurring oral examples of compliments and compliment responses were gathered from speakers of different ages and contexts that constructed the teaching source that was used in an intermediate and advanced immigrant English class in Australia. It was concluded that using real samples to teach these speech acts can be used at all levels in the adult ESL context and can be effective in identifying syntactic and lexical methods that were vague for the learners.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study aimed to answer the following questions: (1) Does instruction of pragmatic functions through CR develop high school learners' knowledge of language functions? (2) Does CR of pragmatic functions facilitate EFL learners' use of pragmatic functions in their writing dialogues?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 60 female junior students of two high schools in Dezfool. They were studying at the first grade of high school and their ages ranged from 14 to 16 years old. They were selected through simple random sampling procedure among the whole students of the high school. In order to find out whether they were homogenous, a simulated proficiency test of English extracted from English book1 of high school developed by Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi and Mahmoodi (2009) was administered. There was not a significant difference between the participants' level of English proficiency. Then they were divided into experimental and control groups based on systematic random sampling method through which learners were given odd and even numbers from 1 to 60. Students' odd numbers were classified in the experimental group and the students' even numbers were assigned to the control group.

Instrumentation

Initially, the participants took the simulated homogeneity test extracted from the first grade English book of high school developed by Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi and Mahmoodi (2009) to ensure the homogeneity of the groups at the very beginning of the course. The test included 44 different items consisted of Grammar, Vocabulary, Conversation, Fluency, and Relevance. The reliability of the homogeneity test was estimated through Cronbach Alpha formula and the obtained reliability index was estimated as ($\alpha=0.729$) which seemed to be an acceptable reliability value.

The second instrument was a pre-test that contained 30 multiple-choice items of pragmatic functions extracted from the two textbooks of Top Notch Fundamentals 1 (A & B) including 14 units on the whole, and each unit comprising three conversations related to the particular topic of that unit written by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher (2007). It was administered to measure the learners' actual knowledge of pragmatic functions at the beginning of the treatment. The reliability of the pre-test was measured through KR-21 as ($r=.856$). Finally, a modified version of pre-test was

used as a post-test. It included 30 multiple-choice items administered to determine the effectiveness of experimental and control groups' pragmatic functions instruction. Moreover, in both pre- and post-tests, each item was assigned one point and so the overall score was 30. The reliability of writing for the post-test was calculated through KR-21 as ($r=.924$).

The intra-rater reliability was run to examine the reliability of scoring the pragmatic functions of the writings. The intra-rater reliability of control group's scores on the writings was estimated through KR-21 as ($r=.920$). The intra-rater reliability of experimental group's scores was estimated through Pearson correlation as ($r=.892$). The fourth instrument was a checklist for developing pre-and post test including seven pragmatic functions consisted of Instrumental, Regulatory, Interactional, Personal, Heuristic, Informative, Attention getting served in this study based on Functional Grammar Book (Halliday, 1985). The intra-rater reliability of experimental group's scores was estimated through KR-21 as ($r=.892$).

Procedure

Initially, a sample of 60 participants was selected through simple random sampling procedure. Then, a simulated proficiency test of written English extracted from first grade English book 1 of junior high school (2009) developed by Birjandi, Soheili, Nowroozi and Mahmoodi was being employed to determine the homogeneity level of the participants. Afterwards, they were divided into two groups of experimental and control. The two groups had the same size. A pre-test was run to ascertain both groups' knowledge on pragmatic functions at the initial stages of the study. Then, the explicit instructions were done during one academic semester including eight sessions. The Top Notch 1 (A & B) developed by Saslow and Ascher (2007), as authentic native materials, was being effectively used for teaching pragmatic functions in each session. Thus, the experimental sequence of the study was carried out over a period of around one month. As noted earlier, 60 homogeneous learners were randomly assigned to two groups: an experimental group (EG) and a control group (CG). Around one week prior to the first treatment session, all the participants took the pre-test which was a 30 multiple-choice item test designed to measure the learners' knowledge of pragmatic functions in writing prior to any type of treatment. Then, every group spent eight different treatment sessions. There was an interval of around three or four days between the treatment sessions. The pragmatic instruction in writing process through CR for the experimental group began by listening to the conversations and then a teacher-fronted discussion of various meanings a single dialogue might convey in various contexts and situations (e.g. the phrase "Excuse me") that is an interactional function, may be used in order to start and form a dialogue. At the same time, it can also be regarded as an attention-getting function as it is used for trying to ask a question. After teacher fronted discussion students were divided into different groups and asked to come up with instances of the target pragmatic functions in L1 and L2 and to discuss the similarities and differences in the realization aspects of the pragmatic functions in L1 and L2.

The participants were asked to do role play of the intended pragmatic functions in writing skill for the whole class. Also, the students were provided with dialogues in English in different texts and asked to extract taught pragmatic functions. However, in the control group classroom, no pragmatic instruction in writing process was given and the students were taught in accordance with the usual instructional programs of the high school. The dialogues were read aloud to them with no extra pragmatic explanation. After the completion of the period of around four weeks, the post-test was performed to the participants. The results of this study demonstrate that the experimental group performed better than the control group. Consequently, it can be stated that there is a significant positive effect on the incorporation of the target language pragmatic functions into classroom instruction and the level of pragmatic functions comprehension and production in writing process and the students enjoyed the pragmatic functions that were integrated into the classroom instruction of writing and that the instruction through CR involved greater depth of processing, resulting in knowledge that was firmly embedded. Then, the post-test (another test as an adapted version of the pre-test items) followed the last teaching session around a week later. Each group was taught the same materials with different methods of teaching. The participants of the experimental group received an 8-session treatment. Seven pragmatic functions were administered to the students to measure their proficiency on pragmatic functions in writing essays. The experimental group was as the way that this group first listened to a short conversation involving one kind of pragmatic function in focus. Then, they received a scripted version of the conversation, and participated in a series of direct CR (i.e., listening to teacher's explanations about pragmatic functions in writing and also cultural and contextual differences in different situations involved and the meta-pragmatic information on appropriateness of pragmatic functions in writing) and productive (i.e., role play)

activities. In other words, the students in the experimental group received instruction and raised their consciousness on the earlier mentioned pragmatic functions in writing and their differences in use and contextual identification and also meta pragmatic information in terms of their suitable use and they had to solve the exercises on the themes in the conversations related to taught sessions involved in the book as homework for their next session. Those in the control group listened to the conversations and were provided with the scripts in simply text-type very similarly to the experimental group. Needless to say, the control did not receive any instruction and CR regarding pragmatic functions in writing as the main difference between the experimental and the control group.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data quantitatively, descriptive statistics and Independent Samples t-test for comparing the performance of the two groups at the pre-test and post-test were used. Also, the students' writings were scored analytically based on the checklist provided by Halliday's (1985) pragmatic functions. Since this study was designed to focus on the learning of pragmatic functions by EFL learners in writing process, a pre-test and a post-test was run. To analyze the data, the mean scores of different writing components on each case (seven types of pragmatic functions in total) for both groups were analyzed. It should be noted that since the items in the pre and post-test were all multiple-choice items, the KR-21 method was applied to guarantee their reliability. Reliability indexes showed that the tests were acceptable for the purpose of the study. Participants' responses to pre- and post-test items (their use of pragmatic functions in writing) were scored as a single point if they gave appropriate pragmatic answer to each item considering the kind of theme and rules. Responses that were not pragmatically appropriate were given zero. All the correct responses added up to a total sum. The tests were scored by one rater. Intra-rater reliability coefficients were calculated to meet the reliable scoring on the manuscripts. Then an Independent Sample t-test was run to calculate any prominent difference between the means gained by experimental and control groups on earlier mentioned seven pragmatic functions as well in pre- and post-tests at the level of significant ($p < 0.05$).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Statistics on the Pre-test

Descriptive statistics including means, and then standard deviations of the pre-test of the control and experimental groups were computed. They are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	15.2667	4.40950	.66624
Control	30	14.9000	3.71716	.67866

It indicated that the mean scores of control group and experimental group in pre-test exam were statistically similar. However, since the mean scores cannot indicate the significant difference between the groups, therefore, the mean scores are presented in Table 2.

Independent Samples t-test for the Pre-test

As there were a dependent and an independent variable, an Independent Samples t-test was run to estimate the scores which are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Independent Samples t-test (Pre-test)

Groups	N	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Mean
Experimental vs. Control	30	.348	58	.729	.366	1.052
						30

Table 2 indicates that since the critical t ($t_c = 2.000$) is greater than the observed t ($t_o = .348$) with df (58). Therefore, the difference between the two groups is not significant at the level ($p < 0.05$). This shows the two groups' homogeneity at the beginning of the experiment.

Descriptive Statistics on the Post-test

Data were analyzed through descriptive statistics regarding the post-test scores as it is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	20.433	3.024	.552
Control	30	15.466	3.655	.667

Table 3 indicates that the mean score of the experimental group is (20.4333) in the post-test exam which is more than the mean score of the control group (15.4667). It also reveals that the experimental group has worked effectively and therefore, its mean score had been better than that of the control group. However, it is essential to explore whether there is a significant difference between the two groups.

Independent Samples t-test on the Post-test

An Independent Samples *t*-test was run to reveal the significant difference between the control and experimental groups. The results are shown in the Table 4.

Table 4: Independent Samples t-test (Post-test)

Groups	N	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Mean
Experimental vs. Control	30	8.042	58	.000	6.966	.866
						30

Since the critical *t* ($t_c = 2.000$) is less than the observed *t* ($t_o = 8.042$) with df (58); therefore, the difference between the two groups is significant at the level ($p < 0.05$). In other words, the treatment of pragmatic functions through CR was effective in developing participants' knowledge of pragmatic functions in writing process.

Discussion

The present study indicated the positive effect of pragmatic functions instruction in writing on the experimental students' post-test compared to the control group. The results of Independent Samples *t*-test analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of pragmatic functions instruction in writing through CR ($p < 0.05$). By the comparison of mean scores of the post-test participants, the instructional method of pragmatic functions in writing skill appeared much more beneficial to the experimental group rather than to the control one.

The teacher must explore the students' answers and writings and focus on the frequent pragmatic deviations in their writings as teaching points for improving the students' performance on pragmatic functions in writing process. As a result, there are a few opportunities for students to acquire pragmatic information, activities and practice the use of English in contexts. The usual teaching method prevent the improvement of students' pragmatic competence so that they have confined knowledge of pragmatics and are not able to use their limited knowledge in real social communication. Furthermore, the teacher's job will become more decisive in making their students conscious of the aspects in which they face difficulties in the appropriate use of language functions and give them sufficient authentic practice to succeed in dealing with these problems. The findings of the studies conducted in this area have widely indicated that pragmatics teaching can and must involve in the EFL classrooms. Therefore, high school English teachers must provide adequate pragmatic knowledge and design tasks based on pragmatics in writing process for students in their classroom teaching to assist them become pragmatically proficient. Simultaneously, language teachers should not ignore the improvement of students' linguistic competence and examination skills during their teaching. In the other hand, it is necessary to move from the traditional teaching method and teacher-centered towards a student-centered method (Chow & Mok-Cheung, 2004) by combining the strengths and the criteria of practicality and experience of the traditional instructional method with the new one and help students' serious and active participation.

CONCLUSION

The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the correct responses' percentages of the participants in the control group taught according to the current and traditional approach of writing with no pragmatic instruction and CR in writing skill and the accurate answers percentages of the experimental group taught based on instruction (i.e., noticing, highlighting, and consciousness-raising) on pragmatic functions in writing. The conclusions revealed that on the whole the range of Halliday's (1978) pragmatic functions except for imaginative function, the experimental group performed better than the control group. That is, pragmatic functions instruction through CR might significantly affect high school EFL learners' writing proficiency. Therefore, it could be claimed that pragmatic functions instruction should be included in the writing syllabus at the high school since pragmatic competence could be improved in order to increase the students' communicative competence.

The conclusions also showed that pragmatic functions instruction in writing skill (i.e., noticing, highlighting, and consciousness-raising) had significant influence on students' learning pragmatic functions. Furthermore, exposure to conversations in different contexts and by the use of authentic materials is useful activities for high school EFL learners. In fact, incorporating the knowledge of pragmatic functions into the classroom instruction of writing enhances the students' level of pragmatic comprehension and production. As Pierce (1995) believed that language classrooms provide a desired arena for probing the relationship between learners' subjectivity and L2 use. Classrooms afford L2 learners the opportunity to concentrate on their communicative encounters and to explore with various pragmatic options. For foreign language learners, the classroom can be the only accessible context that they can experiment what using the L2 feels like, and how more or less comfortable they are with various fields of L2 pragmatics. The safe environment of the L2 classroom will thus prepare and support learners to communicate efficiently in L2. But more important than this is to encourage students to explore and focus on their experiences, observations, and interpretations of L2 communicative practices and their own stances towards them, L2 teaching will extend its role from that of language instruction to that of language education. Therefore, activities that increase students' knowledge and use of pragmatic functions in writing skill are necessary.

This study is mainly helpful to EFL learners who intend to make developments in using pragmatic functions to develop their writing proficiency. The findings of the experiment focus on the significance of teaching pragmatic functions to improve students' writing proficiency. As a result, they require using language functions instruction in order to write proficiently. Unfortunately, in the EFL classrooms, both the teachers and students focus just on vocabulary and grammar and related issues as a ready for the examination and the necessity of teaching pragmatics in general and language functions in particular, is neglected. The main purpose of instruction in pragmatics is to raise learners' pragmatic CR and to give them choices regarding their conversations in L2 in order to help learners become familiar with pragmatic practices in English as an international language. The activities conducted in this study aiming at raising students' pragmatic consciousness and providing the opportunities for communicative practice (e.g., listening to the conversations through the tape-recording, organizing the small group interactions and role-play activities, etc.).

Instruction on pragmatic functions should be encouraged to replace traditional and common method of pragmatics teaching (i.e., reading loud and defining) for the purpose of increasing high school EFL learners' writing abilities. Moreover, pragmatics instruction is what most EFL students would prefer and believe to be beneficial in improving their writing skill. As a result, language teachers are responsible for using all necessary activities and practices to improve the students' pragmatics knowledge in general and the knowledge of language functions, in particular. Also, it should be considered that employing the mentioned activities and practices is helpful for both teachers and students to be successful in their duties.

The current study just examined the female students; therefore, the significant factor of gender was ignored. Furthermore, activities and practices and the lesson plans were employed in this study were designed and delivered by the teacher as the researcher by herself. So the quality of instruction might differ in the other contexts. Moreover, this research investigated one aspect of expanded knowledge of specific pragmatic functions (i.e., the effect of Halliday's language functions teaching on writing process) and the other skills were not investigated. The researcher just examined language functions identified in the conversations and contexts of Top Notch series that were in accordance with their own textbook that could include limitations. The post-test was a modified version of pre-test and similarities existing could have led into memorization of the items.

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THE EFFECT OF INTERACTIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL SPEAKING STRATEGIES ON
TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS TO IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS AT SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this experimental study was to investigate the effectiveness of interactional and transactional speaking strategies by using the technique which comes from Audio Lingual Method (ALM) and Total Physical Response (TPR) method on teaching speaking skills to Iranian English as foreign language (EFL) learners in senior high school. It attempted to enhance students' speaking skills among Iranian high school students. In doing the research, 60 female learners were selected in a senior high school in Gachsaran, Iran. They were in the first grade of senior high school with the age ranging from 15-17. They took proficiency test (Richards, 2007) and the learners whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as the research sample. Then 60 learners were randomly divided in two experimental and one control group. The participants were given a pre-test on speaking tasks and scored through a speaking check list proposed by Chastain (1988, pp. 397-400) throughout a 10 session treatment, the Experimental groups received transactional and interactional strategies for speaking fluency while the control group received some placebos. Finally, a post-test was administered to three groups and data were collected. Data were analyzed through One-way ANOVA was utilized to analyze learners interview scores based on the check list. Results showed that transactional group, outperformed both interactional and control. This study suggests that the use of transactional activities ($p < 0.05$) in speaking skill could be more beneficial activities since it is the use of contextual speech in a meaningful way.

KEYWORDS: *interactional, transactional, speaking strategies, EFL learners*

INTRODUCTION

According to (Richards, 1990), "Transactional uses of language are those in which language is being used primarily for communicating information" (p.54). Transactional exchanges are interactions which have an outcome. In such contexts the range of language used is quite limited and therefore sensibly predictable. Most spoken interactions "can be placed on a continuum from relatively predictable to relatively unpredictable" (Nunan, 1991, p. 42). According to him interactional conversations are relatively unpredictable and can range over many topics, with the participants taking turns and commenting freely. In contrast, Nunan states that "Transactional encounters of a fairly restricted kind will usually contain highly predictable patterns" (p. 42). According to Nunan (1991), interactional speech is more fluid and unpredictable than transactional speech (such as telephoning for a taxi cab), which is shaped in part by the needs of the parties involved to successfully accomplish the exchange of information, goods, or services. Transactional uses of language are those in which language is being used primarily for communicating. Brown (2007) stated transactional strategies are taught within the context of real reading events. They are not practiced in isolation. At first the teacher models and explains everything but gradually students are responsible for their learning.

Speaking is a productive oral skill which is the hardest skill, in teaching English at a foreign language (EFL) because it happens in real time (Nunan, 2003). Furthermore speaking includes productive verbal utterances to convey meaning. Spoken language is auditory and temporary. Speaking is "the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts" (Chaney, 1998, p. 13). According to Ur (2000), speaking seems the most important skill among four skills and people who have knowledge about language are called speakers of the language. Speaking is one of the main aspects of communication.

According to Haley and Austin (2004), "To be more orally productive, learners would need to be more capable of responding in a relevant and socially appropriate manner to the communication of others" (p. 189). Richards (2008) stated that speaking skills in English is the main point for many foreign-language learners. So EFL teachers provide the strategies for developing speaking abilities.

Lindsay and Knight (2006) declared that to be a good speaker it is essential to notice some points such as producing connected speech, the ability to interact, talking round gap in their knowledge, speaking in a range of contexts and balancing accuracy and fluency. Bygate (2001) cites, "Teaching oral language was thought to require no more than engineering the repeated oral production of structures concentrating on the development of grammatical and phonological accuracy is combined with fluency" (p. 15). There are two strategies, interactional and transactional, for speaking skill. Brown and Yule (1983) described that interactional speech refers to conversation and it has a social function. The focus is more on the speakers and how they wish to present themselves to each other and transactional speech pays attention to what is said or done. The main focus is on making oneself understood. Interactional language is language for maintaining social relationship and transactional language is message-oriented.

Speaking can be defined as the people way to convey the message to others. The purpose of speaking is to make the receiver understand the topic being uttered. Most of the EFL students in Iran fail to master speaking, so the purpose of this study is the evaluation of how transactional and interactional strategies facilitate speaking among Iranian EFL learners. The purpose of this study was the evaluation of how transactional and interactional strategy by using (ALM) and communicative approach facilitate speaking teaching and learning in high school level.

Speaking is a highly challenging essential skill for most learners to acquire. Learners need to speak to carry out the most basic social transactions. They also need to develop their speaking skills to fulfill more sophisticated needs. So the aim of this study was to make students actually want to communicate. It was going to answer to this question that whether interactional and transactional strategies could improve EFL students speaking accuracy and fluency at senior high school level. Moreover, it was going to show whether interactional and transactional strategies differ in developing EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Richards and Rodgers (2002) pointed out that reading and writing are the necessary skills however, the skill of speaking and listening are paid no or little attention. Celce-Murcia (2003) argued that for most people "the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language since speech is the most basic means of human communication." (p.103). Richards (2008) argued that the most important point for many foreign-language learners is the mastery of speaking skill in English. Learners' success in language learning is by their feeling about their progression in language proficiency. To get this aim, teachers and materials for teaching speaking must provide the strategies or sub-skills that are necessary for developing good speaking abilities.

Hughes (2002) defined fluency speaks about the production and it is normally reserved for speech. In fluency linking units of speech easily and without hesitation is very important. According to Thornbury (2000), speaking fluency involves connecting words together without stopping. On the other hand, accuracy is "using the language correctly relative to the target form" (Cameron, 2001, p.194).

Fluency means that the speaker should be able to use natural language when he or she has a meaningful interaction and keeps comprehensible communication in spite of limitations in his or her communicative competence. Accuracy is using the correct vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. The student's fluency can be improved by creating classroom activities that students must negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misapprehensions, and work to avoid communication breakdowns (Richards, 2006, p. 14).

According to Richards (2006, pp. 13-14) activities focusing on fluency are:

1. Reveal natural use of language
2. Focus on getting communication
3. Involve meaningful use of language
4. Entail the use of communication strategies
5. Produce unpredictable language

6. Seek to link language use to context

He also stated that activities focusing on accuracy are:

1. Reflect classroom use of language
2. Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
3. Practice language out of context
4. Practice small samples of language
5. Do not require meaningful communication
6. Control choice of language

In addition, Nunan (1999) stated that fluency means that when speakers speak unexpectedly, it is necessary for them to be able to continue without hesitation. However, it does not mean that the speakers speak so fast because sometimes pausing is important. That pause is an aspect of fluency which may be long but not numerous. Besides, when speakers speak fluently, they should be able to acquire the message without regarding any grammatical and other mistakes. Otherwise, Nunan (1999) also emphasized that accuracy means that the speakers are able to use the correct vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. It uses correct example of language use.

Harmer (2001) suggested giving feedback to students. When the performance emphasizes accuracy, it is the teacher's function to recognize and correct the students' mistakes. So, there are several ways to give feedback during accuracy work that comes down:

1. Repeating the errors or mistakes made
2. Making statement or question
3. Finding a quick way of helping students to activate rules they already know
4. Giving a facial expression or gesture demonstrating there is something wrong with the performance
5. Reformulating the sentence

Harmer also said that when students do communicative activities and they involve themselves in fluency, teachers should not interrupt students to point out a grammatical, lexical, or pronunciation error, because it can stop the communication. Harmer (2001) noted down that from the communicative point of view, speaking has many different characteristics including two major categories– "accuracy, involving the correct use of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation practiced through controlled and guided activities; and, fluency, considered to be 'the ability to keep going when speaking spontaneously'" (pp. 104-109). Harmer (2007) exposed that there is a main distinction between accuracy and fluency. It is necessary to notice whether a classroom activity is for emphasizing on accuracy or fluency.

If students are supposed to have complete accuracy, some exercises such as grammar pronunciation or vocabulary work is essential. There should be a distinctive difference between communicative and non communicative activities. In non communicative activities, correctness of the mistakes is very important; meanwhile communicative activities are designed to improve fluency.

Harmer (2007) also stated that when speakers attempt to speak fluently in English, they need to be able to pronounce phonemes correctly, use suitable stress and intonation patterns. They will have to be able to speak in a range of different genres and situations, and they will have to be able to use a range of conversational and conversational repair strategies. They will need to be able to survive in typical functional exchanges, too.

Pinter (2006) declared that one of the complicate parts for language learners is producing the language fluently and accurately like native speaker. This is become a problem because the language learners have to practice a lot and also they have to think and speak the target language together. Speaking practice starts with practicing, drilling, and repeating models.

Thornbury (2000) pointed out the criteria for assessing fluency:

1. Students speak smoothly, at a natural speech. They do not hesitate long and it is easy to follow what they are saying.
2. Students can put ideas together to form a message or an argument. They can make not only the simplest of sentence patterns but also complex ones to complete the task.

3. Students are able to express their ideas in a number of ways, keep talking and ask questions, etc. to keep the conversation going.

It is distinct that speaking ability engages the ability to produce speech both accurately and fluently. In a communicative context, grammatical accuracy can be in second position if the message is understood. However students need a grammatical base in order to generate their own language instead of reproducing set phrases of others (Pachler & Field, 2001).

"The mastery of speaking skill in English is a priority for many second-language or foreign language learners. Consequently, learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the basis of how much they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency" (Richards, 2008, p.19).

Asher (2003) summarizes the basic characteristic of his approach as follows: It is based on the principle that people acquire a language in a particular sequence. The sequence is visible from observations of how children acquire their first language. So, the sequence should be that understanding comes before speaking. Understanding is probably a necessary condition for speech to appear. The students achieve understanding by presenting the language through the imperative. When the child has internalized enough of the language code to be perceptually ready, speech will appear spontaneously (Asher, 2003, pp. 2-3).

According to Richards and Rodgers (2002) Total Physical Response (TPR) is a good method. The students felt fun. They could move physically and spoke to their friends. Total Physical Response (TPR) is a language teaching strategy coordinated speech in action; it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. As stated by Richards and Rodgers, the main purpose of Total Physical Response (TPR) can be stated as "to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level" by relying on "meaning interpreted through movement" (Richards & Rodgers, 2002, p. 91).

Thornbury and Slade said that "primarily interactional language is primarily listener-oriented, whereas primarily transactional language is primarily message-oriented" (Thornbury & Slade 2007, p. 20). Interactional view that beliefs, "language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individual," (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 23).

Talk as a transaction refers to situations where the focus is on what is said or done. The central focus is on the message and making oneself understood and the participants and how they interact socially with each other are not considered. There may be frequent questions, repetitions, comprehension checks, negotiation, and digression. While the speakers are talking to get some information or obtaining goods or services, they utilize a range of skills such as explaining a need or intention; asking questions, clarifications, opinions; making suggestions and etc (Richards, 2008, p.26).

A test of speaking was taken from O'Connell (2005, p. 183) which was based on IELTS Bands. The Speaking Module assesses whether candidates can communicate effectively in English. Candidate performance is rated using detailed performance descriptors. These describe spoken performance at the nine IELTS bands according to four different criteria: 1. Fluency and Coherence, 2. Lexical resources, 3. Grammatical Range and Accuracy, 4. Pronunciation. All criteria have equal weighting. The final speaking score is reported as a whole band. They saw the experimental group improved in their strategy use and in speaking ability after the instruction when compared with their pretests in comparison with the control group.

Zahedi and Tabatabaei (2012) aimed at investigating the effect of collaborative learning on oral skill performance and motivation of Iranian EFL Learners. The participants were 72 adult students out of whom 50 were selected based on their performance on a general English placement test (Interchange Objective Placement Test) at the intermediate level in Shahreza Nahid Foruzan Art and Cultural Institute. A pretest-posttest control group design was used. The participants were divided into two groups; the experimental group was taught in collaborative learning for one semester using the techniques such as Learning Together and Pair Talk; the control group was taught in the conventional method. The data included: 1) the results of the two oral tasks, and 2) the results of the motivational questionnaire. The independent samples *t*-test and paired samples *t*-test were used to determine whether there were

significant inter and intra-group differences. The results provided evidence that collaborative learning helps to enhance significantly the adult EFL learners' oral skill performance and their motivation toward learning English.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the above argument, this study addresses the following research questions: (1) Do transactional and interactional speaking strategies affect EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency at senior high school level? (2) Do transactional and interactional speaking strategies differ in developing EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency at senior high school level?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The present study was conducted with the help of 60 students. All of them were the students of the first grade of senior high school including only females from Farzanegan school of Gachsaran. Through their performance on a placement test designed by Richards (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 three groups based on the scores of the test. The first group was taught via transactional strategy using Total Physical Response (TPR) method (Interchange 1), the second group was taught based on the interactional strategy using Audio Lingual Method (ALM) (Interchange 1) and the last group, control group, receives some placebo. Every group included 20 participants.

Instrumentation

A homogeneity test, (Richards, 2008) was administered to the participants. All groups were required to take the same proficiency tests. It was an interview in 2 minutes for every participant. Two scores were given by two raters and at last the reliability coefficient of the proficiency test in this research was calculated by Pearson correlation coefficient as ($r=0.982$).

The learners whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean would be the research sample. They were divided in two experimental and one control group randomly. The participants were given a pre-test on speaking and would be scored through a speaking check list proposed by Chastain (1988, pp. 397-400). Experimental group received transactional and interactional strategies for speaking fluency and accuracy. The control group received some placebos.

Finally, a post-test was done to determine the effects of using transactional and interactional strategies on accuracy and fluency in speaking skill. *Moreover, the post-test includes the same questions in pre-test.* The reliability values of pre and post tests were calculated through *One-Way ANOVA* formula too. Then, all of the components were calculated together to discover the speaking score of each participant.

Materials

Considering 10 sessions for classes at school, the researcher was able to select three lessons of Interchange 1 book. The time of each class was 45 minutes. The selected lessons had to meet some criteria. They were accuracy and fluency in speaking through audio lingual and Total Physical Response (TPR) methods. Therefore, the researcher decided to select Interchange 1 which was more appropriate and fun to the students. This book was suitable for using in classes to discover their effects on speaking skill. The lessons were selected based on the participants' pre-test scores and the consultant received by two instructors. They assigned that the level of Interchange 1 book was appropriate for teaching students based on the results of pre-test.

Procedure

This study was conducted in Farzanegan high school of Gachsaran. The first step was to make sure of the students' homogeneity. To do so, a week before the instruction, the researcher administered a test (Richards, 2008) to 100 participants in order to select 60 participants. Those participants whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected and randomly divided into three groups in three different classes. Every group has 20 participants. 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 student should have an interview

in 2 minutes. After introducing themselves, students speak about their favorite season, its weather, clothes of this season and finally they speak about their weekend routine. Each oral interview was recorded by mp3 player and then was scored according to the checklist the recordings were evaluated by two raters. After selecting and dividing the participants on random judgment sampling, the instruction phase started. One class was required to learn through interactional strategy by using Audio Lingual Method (ALM), while the other one learn the same lessons through transactional strategy by using Total Physical Response (TPR) method and the last group is the control group who receives some placebo.

The treatment lasted ten sessions, 45 minutes a session, three times a week. During the treatment in the experimental groups, in each session, the researcher devoted same time to teach the lessons, practicing speaking through interactional and transactional strategies. One of these experimental groups uses transactional strategy by Total Physical Response (TPR) method. The researcher paid attention to fluency and students learn English language by doing actions. The other one learn English by Audio Lingual Method (ALM) according to interactional strategy. The researcher paid attention to accuracy so students should learn language by different drills. Then, the investigator worked on that part of the lesson. Moreover, after the treatment period, a post-test of speaking achievement covered all the materials were administered to these groups. The post test is exactly the same as the pretest. Finally, the results of the tests were compared to each other to know the importance of these strategies and to find out which one works better in teaching speaking skill.

Data Analysis

In order to determine the effect of transactional and interactional strategies on Iranian intermediate EFL learners speaking skill, once the scores of the pre-test and post-test are obtained, the mean and standard deviation of the scores were calculated. Then, One-way ANOVA was run in order to find out whether the differences between groups were statistically significant or not. To find out the most efficient strategies among the 3 groups the Post-hoc Scheffe was run and the result show that transactional strategy was the most effective speaking strategy in the post test phase.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data were collected from all groups in pre-test and post-test, then the results of each group were separately submitted to descriptive statistics and one way ANOVA to find out whether these strategies had any impact on the participants' speaking skill. Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Transactional	20	18.2000	5.02206	1.12297	15.8496	20.5504	11.00	30.00
Interactional	20	18.5000	4.28584	.95834	16.4942	20.5058	10.00	25.00
Control	20	16.8500	4.15838	.92984	14.9038	18.7962	8.00	24.00
Total	60	17.8500	4.48661	.57922	16.6910	19.0090	8.00	30.00

Table 1 provides the descriptive statistics of the three transactional, interactional and control groups before using these strategies in terms of the number of items and number of participants (n), maximum scores, minimum scores, means, standard deviations (SD), standard error, lower and upper bounds. As shown in the Table 1, 60 students participated in this research that are 20 transactional, 20 interactional and 20 control students. The transactional group scores ranged from 11 to 30 out of 30. The mean score for this group was 18.2 and the standard deviation was 5.02. The interactional group scores ranged from 10 to 25 out of 30. The mean score was 18.5 and the standard deviation was 2. Furthermore the control group scores ranged from 8 to 24 out of 30. The mean score was 16.8 and the standard deviation was 1. There is not much difference between the mean of transactional and interactional strategies but the mean of control group is less.

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

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	30.900	2	15.450	.761	.472
Within Groups	1156.750	57	20.294		
Total	1187.650	59			

As it is shown in Table 1, the mean square between groups was calculated 15.45 at the df 2 and within groups is 20.29 at the df 2/57. Since the critical F ($F_c=3.17$) is greater than observed F ($F_o=.761$), there is not a significant difference between the groups. Therefore, the difference among these three groups is not significant because these three groups were homogeneous before using these strategies. In other words, as a result of homogeneity among groups the second null hypothesis was rejected in this part.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (Post-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Transactional	20	22.050	3.605	.80614	20.3627	23.7373	15.00	30.00
Interactional	20	20.000	4.013	.89736	18.1218	21.8782	14.00	26.00
Control	20	18.700	4.910	1.09808	16.4017	20.9983	9.00	26.00
Total	60	20.250	4.367	.56380	19.1218	21.3782	9.00	30.00

Table 3 provides the descriptive statistics of the three transactional, interactional and control groups after using these strategies in terms of the number of items and number of participants (n), maximum scores, minimum scores, means, standard deviations (SD), standard error, lower and upper bounds. As shown in the table 4.1, 60 students participated in this research that are 20 transactional, 20 interactional and 20 control students. The transactional group scores ranged from 15 to 30 out of 30. The mean score for this group was 22.05 and the standard deviation was 3.60. The interactional group scores ranged from 14 to 26 out of 30. The mean score was 20 and the standard

deviation was 4.01. Furthermore the control group scores ranged from 9 to 26 out of 30. The mean score was 18.7 and the standard deviation was 4.3. The mean score in transactional strategy has a great increase. It shows that transactional strategy is a useful way for teaching speaking. The results of One-way ANOVA on the post-test are presented in Table 4.

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

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	114.100	2	57.050	3.216	.047
Within Groups	1011.150	57	17.739		
Total	1125.250	59			

As it is shown in Table 4, the mean square between groups was calculated 57.05 at the df 2/57 and within groups is 17.73 at the df 57. Since the critical F ($F_c=3.17$) is less than observed F ($F_o=3.216$), there is a significant difference between the groups. Therefore, the difference among these three groups was significant. It shows the difference of transactional strategy with two other strategies. So, it is understood that using transactional strategy is effective. It was significant so it had outperformance. But interactional and control groups did not have much difference.

The significance level is provided and we can decide to reject or retain the null hypothesis. Here the difference between transactional and control is significant ($p<0.05$). The mean difference is not negative, so it can be concluded that the mean in transactional group is more than control.

Table 5: Post-hoc Scheffe Test, Multiple Comparisons

(I) VAR3	(J) VAR3	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transactional	Interactional	2.05000	1.33190	.313	-1.2977	5.3977
	Control	3.35000*	1.33190	.050	.0023	6.6977
Interactional	Transactional	-2.05000	1.33190	.313	-5.3977	1.2977
	Control	1.30000	1.33190	.624	-2.0477	4.6477
Control	Transactional	-3.35000*	1.33190	.050	-6.6977	-.0023
	Interactional	-1.30000	1.33190	.624	-4.6477	2.0477

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

Discussion

The research questions will be brought up again here and based on the results obtained; the main issues will be discussed:

Do transactional and interactional speaking strategies differ in developing EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency at senior high school level?

Putting aside the pre-test, which was administered to the participants at the beginning of the treatment for the purpose of indicating their proficiency levels, post-test was administered to the participants after they finished the treatment to check their speaking skill. This test was a speaking test (Appendix C) asking about their favorite season and the clothes that they wear in that season and the reason of wearing these kinds of clothes and also about their schedule at weekends. The mean of post-test for transactional group was (22.50) and the SD (3.60) compared with the interactional and control group the mean in transactional group was more and it increased four marks to pre test.

Since descriptive statistics could not offer the researcher valid information to reject or sustain the null hypothesis, a One-way ANOVA was run to indicate the differences between these three groups. The results showed that the significance of the study was (.047) which is smaller than .05. So the difference among these three groups was significant. Therefore, the proposed null hypothesis concerned with the transactional and interactional speaking strategies difference in developing EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency was accepted at the significant level ($p < .05$) with the $df = 2$.

Therefore, the findings of the current study revealed that transactional group outperformed the control group and interactional group on the post-test. That is the students who received instruction on transactional strategies did better on the oral interview post-test. Of course all groups showed improvements in their speaking skills in comparison with their status at the beginning of the study. But there was a significant difference between the performances of the transactional group with interactional and control groups after the special treatment was given to the transactional group. So it was concluded that transactional strategy training had a crucial impact on promoting speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. It should be said that this kind of result is quite natural because these groups received a treatment of 10 sessions.

But in the main question of the current study is why transactional group outperformed the control and interactional groups on the post-test?

In order to answer this crucial question the characteristics of transactional instruction should be considered and we this kind of instruction should closely be probed to see what are the strong points, advantages, helpful facets and practical aspects in fostering EFL speaking.

In the transactional group, students need to be able to communicate information efficiently as Brown and Yule suggested in 1983. According to Nunan (2003), the purpose of transactional speech is communication to do something, like the exchange of goods or services. Furthermore they were taught speaking skill based on Total Physical Response (TPR) method in which according to Larsen Freeman (2000) the meaning of a word can be conveyed through action and learners' response memory is activated. Before developing speaking students tried to improve their listening and the understanding of the target language. The students could learn English language fast by the kinesthetic abilities. When students were noticed their success, they were enthusiasm to learn more and easily. The teacher did her best to correct students in an encouraging way. They started speaking when they were ready without any frustration. Transactional strategy techniques helped the learners to use evidence skillfully and impartially in their interactions with their classmates during the treatment. Such kind of techniques motivated the learners to organize their thoughts and to articulate them concisely and coherently in their oral productions.

In fact, Transactional strategy helps the learners consider all the characteristics of a good conversation when they were talking in the classroom. The students were totally attentive to what other students said and to what themselves wanted to say in the interactions. So the outperformance of the transactional group of learners on the post-test and after giving the special treatment in comparison with the control and interactional groups which didn't receive this kind of treatment can be justified by the strong characteristics of transactional instruction which could help the students develop their EFL speaking ability and which could motivate them to speak more and accordingly to learn more in the classroom. The other question was if transactional and interactional speaking strategies affect EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency at senior high school level.

To answer this question, on which the present study has concentrated, it would be necessary to take a look at the tests result in the following section:

Comparing the pre-test and post-test, which was administered to the participants at the beginning of the treatment for the purpose of indicating their proficiency levels and after they finishing the treatment, it is easy to check their speaking skill. The mean of pre-test for transactional group was (18.2) and the SD (5.02) whereas the mean of post-test for this group was (22.05) and the SD (3.60) compared with the interactional and control group the mean in transactional group was more and it increased four marks to pre test. Since descriptive statistics could not offer the researcher valid information to reject or sustain the null hypothesis, a One-way ANOVA was run to indicate the differences between these three groups. The results showed that the significance of the study was (.047) which is

smaller than .05. So the difference among these three groups was significant. Therefore, the proposed null hypothesis concerned with the effect of transactional and interactional speaking strategies on developing EFL learners' speaking accuracy and fluency was accepted at the significant level ($p < .05$) with the $df = 2$.

Therefore, the findings of the current study revealed that transactional group outperformed the control group and interactional group on the post-test. That is the students who received instruction on transactional strategies did better on the oral interview post-test. Of course all groups showed improvements in their speaking skills in comparison with their status at the beginning of the study. But there was a significant difference between the performances of the transactional group with interactional and control groups after the special treatment was given to the transactional group. So it was concluded that transactional strategy training had a crucial impact on promoting speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. It should be said that this kind of result is quite natural because these groups received a treatment of 10 sessions.

The students in the interactional did not enjoy the benefits of such powerful strategies, because they used Audio Lingual Method (ALM) which is accuracy based which is too tedious. As Harmer (2007) said Audio Lingual Method (ALM) relied on drills to reduce bad habits; but these habits caused little communicative function. Lightbrown and Spada (2006) said that the Audio Lingual Method (ALM) focused on oral approach. It is based on grammatical patterns. Although the method emphasizes speaking, it hardly ever allows students to speak freely because they can make mistakes and making mistakes result in bad habit formation. Fluency means that the speaker should be able to use natural language when he or she has a meaningful interaction and keeps comprehensible communication in spite of limitations in his or her communicative competence. Accuracy is using the correct vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. The student's fluency can be improved by creating classroom activities that students must negotiate meaning, use communication strategies, correct misapprehensions, and work to avoid communication breakdowns (Richards, 2006, p. 14).

According to Richards (2006, pp. 13-14), there are some activities focusing on fluency. He explained that it is important to reveal natural use of language, focus on getting communication, involve meaningful use of language, entail the use of communication strategies and seek to link language use to context

He also stated some activities focusing on accuracy that are reflecting classroom use of language, focusing on the formation of correct examples of language, practicing language out of context, practicing small samples of language and not requiring meaningful communication. So this question showed that transactional strategy had a great effect on fluency but interactional strategy did less on accuracy.

CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the role of transactional and interactional strategy in teaching speaking and fluency and accuracy of first grade of senior high school students. One-way ANOVA test analysis indicated that transactional group gained much better benefit rather than interactional and control groups. Transactional group outperformed in both fluency and accuracy in taking post-tests while interactional and control groups did not develop much in post-test. Statistics showed that there was high difference between pre-test and post-tests among transactional group, while there were only a slight difference between the two other groups in pre-test and post-test. Findings revealed the appropriate use of transactional strategy among senior high school learners. In short, transactional strategy could be used for EFL students in teaching speaking skill.

Many L2 learners see speaking second language very difficult, so they have a great deal of stress in speaking in front of others in the class. They would rather quiet than speak in English classes. But L2 researchers generally recognize the importance of speaking skill and are exploring more effective ways of promoting it. A lot of research has been done recently, to find new ways to help learners' speaking skill. One of the serious problems we are facing in English teaching in Iran is a diversity of students in their proficiency levels. Since most of the English classes in Iran are not based on proficiency levels, teachers see diverse students in the large mixed classes. Moreover, students meet once a week. In these situations, Transactional strategy is a good way for promoting their speaking skill. As a result transactional strategy was created to compensate for these shortcomings. This strategy gives the instructors the opportunity to include as much information as they feel necessary for the whole class and minimize the anxiety of students. Considering instructors role in the class, it should be mentioned that, their roles should be facilitator. They

should study the participants all the time and direct them to a correct path, rather than getting a group to the end and leaving the rest alone to find their way out.

This research was done on three groups, two experimental and one control group for intermediate level of students. It can be useful that researchers use these strategies for pre-intermediate and advance levels as well to understand the differences of promotion. On the other hand, this research was done for speaking skill and the effect of transactional and interactional strategy on speaking fluency and accuracy. It would also be useful to use these strategies for reading and vocabulary learning in reading.

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ABSTRACT

Considering the semantic-based criterion definition of classifiers proposed by Allan (1977, p. 285), classifiers have meanings, in the sense that a classifier denotes some salient perceived or imputed characteristic of the entity to which an associated noun refers (or may refer). Many authors conducted a number of studies to determine salient characteristic of the classifiers in their own language. This study aimed to analyze Persian classifiers semantically on the basis of Croft's (1994) framework. First, the Persian classifiers were divided into two major groups as mensural and sortal. Later on, the classification of animate and inanimate, human and non-human were considered within classifiers. The results of the study may facilitate teaching vocabulary and grammar through using first language. This could also help English language teachers find out the transferring problems of Iranian learners when they want to convert the Persian classifiers into English.

KEYWORDS: Classifier, Semantics, Countable and uncountable nouns

INTRODUCTION

Classifiers have been under the focus of many studies (Jones, 1970, Denny, 1976, Greenberg 1972). According to Allan (1977, p. 285), on the basis of two criteria, classifiers are defined: The first one considers the syntax of classifiers while the second is the semantic classifiers which are proposed in the present study. These semantic classifiers:

- 1) Occur as morphemes in surface structure under specifiable conditions.
- 2) Have meaning, in the sense that a classifier denotes some salient perceived or imputed characteristic of the entity to which an associated noun refers (or may refer).

Dixon (1986), pointed out that classifiers provide the means for "categorization of an object in terms of relevant parameters of worldview" (p. 108). Despite these definitions of classifiers provided by the mentioned researchers, for many, the reality of classifier as a linguistic item is not easily defined. Goral (1978, p. 1), claimed that classifiers are usually not clearly defined. Instead, a few examples are given, the grammatical category is assumed to exist, and various lexical forms are included or excluded from the set of classifiers of a given language. This point is also found in Greenberg (1972) which stated that it is not an easy task to define what classifiers are. This is probably due to these morphemes being used in different contexts and occurring with quantifiers, demonstratives, qualifying adjectives, or nouns in the absence of any modifiers.

Classifiers specify the characteristics of the nouns with which they combine in terms of animacy, shape, size, etc. As Jones (1970) stated the classifiers are usually introduced in the context of numeral phrases and are especially common in East and Southeast Asian languages where their presence is taken as a real linguistic feature (Aikenvald, 2000). These classifiers exist for the purpose of counting, which are known as 'Numeral Classifiers' because they appear next to a numeral or quantifier in expressions of quantity and most of the time, they are obligatory. They may characterize the referent of a noun in terms of its animacy, shape, size, function or use, and other inherent properties.

The study of classifier systems in specific languages needs a clear classification of the classifiers which provides a good source for further analytical work. Classifiers in Persian have not been studied substantially and there are not many references available on classifiers of Persian in English.

The purpose of this study is to analyze the Persian classifier system based on the Croft's (1994) framework. Because of the lack of data about classifiers in Persian, further studies have to rely too heavily on materials which are not based on a systematic classification of Persian classifiers and semantic analysis in English. Therefore, by considering the classifier system of Persian, this study makes attempt to provide an introductory source of analytical research of grammar in Persian.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical Framework

Different authors describe classifiers in different ways based on their point of view and different properties of classifiers and each description yield to a framework. Denny (1976) seeks to describe the specialized semantic and syntactic properties of classifiers and to demonstrate that the semantic function of classifiers is to express three kinds of human interactions with objects and the world. The three kinds of human interactions are: (1) physical interaction such as handling, (2) functional interaction such as using an object as a vehicle, and (3) social interaction such as interacting appropriately with a human compared to an animal, or a high status person compared to a low status one. According to Denny, the advantage of a semantically-based theory of classifiers is that it enables the essential commonalities of classifiers to be perceived across the variety of classifier systems in different languages.

Croft (1994) argues that if one distinguishes different types of classifier systems according to their grammatical and semantic-pragmatic function then it is possible to make regular cross-linguistic generalizations about these systems. He claims that there are "substantive universal implicational hierarchies governing the semantic distinctions found among particular types of classifiers" (Croft 1994, p 145). This means that there is a different hierarchy of semantic distinctions associated with each type of classifier system and these distinctions can be accounted for by the semantic/pragmatic function of the construction in which they are found. The different types of classifier systems and their functions are listed below (Croft, 1994, p. 147):

<i>Classifier Type</i>	<i>Semantic/Pragmatic Function</i>
Noun Class	Determination (Reference)
Numeral Classifier	Enumeration
Possessive Classifier	Possession
Predicate Classifier	Spatial Predication

For example, noun class systems perform the function of tracking and distinguishing different referents in discourse so they utilize the higher levels of the taxonomic hierarchy, of which the most important semantic properties are based on animacy, and humanness. Possessive classifiers are used in indicating "the ownership of an object by a person" and "the degree of control over how that object is to be used" (Croft, 1994, p. 164).

Hence, given the types of physical objects that a person owns, the most salient distinction is between those that are edible (food) and inedible (implement). Croft claims that the primary reasons for this are because food is fuel for the body while implements are not, food is consumed and not used again unlike implements, and food is ingested and is internal to human body whereas implements are external.

In addition, the semantic properties in Croft's taxonomy are listed briefly. With the above semantic properties, we can look at Croft's hierarchy of semantic distinctions which is the base framework of this study. For noun class systems, the human/non-human and male/female distinction, as well as the animate/inanimate distinction is used. In the human/animate class, gender is the primary distinction and in the non human/inanimate class, nature and individuation are the primary distinctions as seen below:

- a) Animacy (Human/Animate: Sex)
- b) Non-human/Inanimate: Nature, Individuation

For numeral classifiers, the animate/inanimate and human/non-human distinctions are used. Some languages also differentiate objects by orientation and rigidity. Secondary to shape, the distinction made is of nature or function.

Animacy

- a) Animate/Human: Kin/Status < Sex
- c) Inanimate/Non-human: Shape < Orientation, Rigidity < Nature/Function

For possessive classifiers, the primary distinction is between edible and other possessed items. The secondary distinction between edibles is based on manner of ingestion and state of food. For non-edibles, the distinction is based on value, and purpose or function.

Edibility

- a) Edible: Manner of Ingestion, State of Food
- b) Non-edible: Value, Purpose/Function

For predicate classifiers, the primary distinction is animate/inanimate. Secondary to the animate class is posture and to the inanimate class is shape or orientation. The inanimate class is further distinguished by individuation and rigidity.

Animacy

- a) Animate: Posture
- b) Inanimate: Shape/Orientation < Individuation, Rigidity

Experimental Studies

Different works focus on the semantic bases of classifiers (Becker, 1975; Denny, 1976; Adams, 1986; Croft, 1994). Adams (1986) concentrates on the detailed description of numerical classification in Austro-Asiatic languages which are “not generally well-described” (Adams 1986, p. 1). She also addresses the issue of the borrowing of classifiers in the Mon-Khmer, Nicobarese, and Aslian families by identifying the source of classifiers, either native or borrowed. In order to characterize native versus non-native aspects of the Austro-Asiatic classification system, Adams gives a detailed account and analysis of the semantic bases underlying numeral classifiers in the languages in these families. Adams shows recurring similarities in the types of classes that appear in different numeral classifier languages including Austro-Asiatic languages, for example, animacy versus inanimacy. Within the inanimate group, the classification of objects can be further distinguished by their shape, which essentially refers to the dimensionality of the object. Hence, objects are divided and classified accordingly to whether they are perceived as one-dimensional, two-dimensional, or three-dimensional.

METHODOLOGY

As mentioned earlier, this study aimed to analyze the classifiers of Persian language semantically within the broader framework developed by Croft (1994). Also, the issue of whether it is possible to classify languages according to the type of classifier constructions present in the language will be discussed. Finally, we will discuss the classifiers based on the noun categorization constructions, semantic bases, and functions of classifier systems in Persian languages. My data was collected among Persian participants.

Persian data were collected through using published sources, such as reference grammars and journal articles. The second source was the eliciting data from participants locally and through field study in Iran. Published sources raise problematic issues in their discussion of classifiers and suggest solutions to those issues. However, the data in published sources cannot be trusted completely. Therefore, the data were matched with the participants’ recording data and verified to arrive at the reliable sources for data analysis of modern Persian. This was crucial not only in order to control quality and analysis of the data but also to strengthen my analysis. Some of the data are elicited verbally by providing some situation with the participants to produce classifiers.

General theories of the semantics of numeral classifier systems focusing in particular on Croft (1994) will be reviewed before we examine Persian classifiers and the styles of classification of animates and inanimates in

Persian. There are several semantic properties that we will come across when we look at the styles of classification for entities in Persian culture. For example, the distinction [+animate] and [-animate] is salient, as well as, [+human] and [-human]. For inanimate items, the properties of shape or dimensionality, orientation, flexibility, nature, length, width and etc are important in the system of categorization. The source of classifiers and the characteristics of the individual categories will also be included.

General Semantic Properties of Noun Categorization Devices

Classifiers are particular morphological means to signal the semantic classes that noun instantiate. In this section, we look at the specific properties that tend to be encoded by classifiers to determine the meaning of the nouns they classify. A number of basic semantic parameters tend to be encoded in different types of classifiers and we shall look at them one by one. These parameters fall in the classes of **Animacy**, **Sex and Gender**, **Kinship**, **Social Status**, **Nature**, **Physical Properties**, and **Function**.

Animacy

All languages apparently make a distinction between animate and inanimate entities (Allan 1977, p. 299; Frawley, 1992, p. 89), making the animate/inanimate division primary and universal (Adams, 1986, p. 248). However, as Comrie (1989) pointed out, the distinction between humans and non-humans is more pervasive and this is reflected where encoding preference is from left to right:

Human > Animal > Inanimate

As Croft (1994) pointed, a word for a body part is frequently used to encode the whole class of animates, especially of animals. Within the human category, further distinctions are made in terms of sex, age, social status and kin relation. At times, certain humans and animals are more likely to be treated (morphologically) as more animate than other humans. This is usually a function of additional semantic properties. Humans or animals that are specific, proximal, and of high social status are usually more animate (Croft, 1994).

Data analysis

As stated before different sources have been used for gathering data. After gathering data, first some of the assumption about the Croft's (1994) framework on classifiers in Persian will be mentioned. After that, based on the framework the classifiers will be analyzed semantically. It is hoped that by doing this semantic analysis, a systematic source for further studies will be provided.

Mensural and Sortal Classifiers

Croft (1994: 162) distinguish two kinds of classifiers **Mensural and sortal** . He proposed that the purpose of mensural classifiers is to **create** the unit to be counted whereas sortal classifiers **actualize** the semantic boundaries which already belong to the concept of a given noun.

Lyons (1977, p. 463) defined Mensural classifiers as a type of classifier that "individuates in terms of quantity" whereas a sortal classifier "individuates whatever it refers to in terms of the kind of entity that it is". Mensural classifiers are used for measuring units of both uncountable and count nouns and are a fairly large open class. They correspond to the measure terms of non-classifier languages like 'a *pound* of meat', 'a *cup* of water', 'a *sheet* of paper', etc. Bisang (1999, p. 120) proposed that the operation of measuring puts a given entity into a unit of measure which makes it countable or enumerable i.e. discrete." The process of measuring is obligatory for the quantification of semantically unbounded uncountable nouns like water, sugar, salt, etc. because these entities cannot be enumerated directly by a numeral as they possess the properties of being homogenous, continuous and expandable. However, semantically bounded count nouns like books and men can also take mensural classifiers e.g. a *stack* of books and a *group* of *men* to show the arrangement of books and the distribution of men to be counted. The semantic boundaries of these count nouns are re-created by the use of mensural classifiers such that 'a stack of books' becomes an individuated entity which we can enumerate e.g. two stacks of books, three groups of men. However, mensural classifiers are optional for count nouns whereas they are obligatory for uncountable nouns.

Craig (1992, pp. 280-1), claimed that Sortal classifiers do not have a direct equivalent in non-classifier languages. They are morphemes that individuate units (not quantity) by designating their semantic boundaries such as animacy, shape, and consistency, so that the referent of the head noun can be counted and they can also be used in contexts other than enumeration.

Mensural and Sortal Classifiers in Persian

In Persian, there are both mensural and sortal classifiers. Uncountable nouns commonly appear with mensural classifiers or with quantifiers, while countable nouns occur with all kinds of numerators, including quantifiers, plural markers, numerals and classifiers:

a) Uncountable noun:

se livan shir

‘three glasses of milk’

b) countable noun:

Se takhteh farsh

Three (CL) carpet

As can be seen in the above examples, mensural classifier is obligatory for uncountable nouns. *Livan* is a mensural classifier and is obligatory in *se livan shir* and leaving it out will lead to an ungrammatical construction in Persian. On the other hand, *takhte* seems to be different from *Livan* in that *takhte* is not obligatory to be used to count a noun but *livan* is applied to a count noun specifically and individuate a mass noun.

From the above discussion, we can see that the uncountable/count noun distinction is important in helping us to evaluate if a classifier is a mensural or sortal classifier. Additionally, some semantic analysis of mensural and sortal classifiers based on Croft (1994) is given as:

a) Measures – [+exact, -entity]

Measure words like ‘litres’ and ‘metres’ where the measure is exact even though they refer to no discrete physical entity.

b) Kind – [-exact, -entity]

Words like ‘goneh’, ‘no?’ , ‘dast’ and ‘goroh’ that characterizes mainly abstract nouns where the measure is neither exact nor does it refer to a discrete physical entity. Sortal classifiers refer to the [+exact, +entity].

In this study, the focus is more on sortal classifiers since they are unique to classifier languages in general and Persian in particular.

In addition, the numeral classifiers in Persian irrespective being mensural and sortal will be explained in details then a semantically analysis is provided.

Persian (numeral) classifiers – basic features

The general numeral classifier in Persian is *ta* which is used for countable items. This numeral classifier is optional. This can be shown in the following example:

1a) se (ta) gorbe

three (CL) cat

‘three cats’

However, there is at least one syntactic context in Persian in which the classifier is required, partitives.

*(2a) pænʃ ta æzpesær-ha dirresid-aend / (2b) *pænʃæzpesær-ha...*

five CL of boy-PL late arrived-3P / five of boy-PL

‘Five of the boys arrived late’

Semantics of Numeral Classifiers

Since the choice of a numeral classifier is predominantly semantic, the classifier that is employed depends on how the entity is perceived. We mentioned that classification by function is culture-specific. Similarly, for other types of classification, we depend on the speakers’ perception of the object being classified. Croft (1994) suggests that there is a different hierarchy of semantic distinctions associated with each type of classifier system and these distinctions can be accounted for by the function of the construction in which they are found. For numeral classifiers, the

animate/inanimate and human/non human distinction is used. Further distinctions in the animate/human class are based primarily on age, sex, social status, and kinship relations (Adams, 1986). In the inanimate/non-human class, the primary distinction is shape, which is closely related to dimensionality. Shape and dimensionality should not be taken to mean the same thing because in some languages, there is a divergence between shape and dimensionality. It appears that all numeral classifier systems that utilize dimensionality make a three-way distinction: one-dimensional (long or stick-like), two-dimensional (flat) and three dimensional (round). When talking about shape and dimensionality, some languages also differentiate objects by orientation or direction (vertical vs. horizontal). Secondary to shape, we have consistency (rigid vs. flexible) and finally, the distinction made is of nature or function.

Animate/Human

Animacy (?Kin/Status < Sex)

Inanimate/Non-human (Shape < Orientation, Rigidity < Nature/Function)

Aikhenvald (2000, p. 306) lists the typical semantics of numeral classifiers where the properties of animacy, social status, kinship, directionality and orientation, physical properties, nature, quantity, arrangement, and functional properties are always important. Having reviewed in detail the basic features and theory of the semantics of numeral classifiers, we will look at the various modes of classification of animates and inanimates in Persian and the source of classifiers used.

Modes of Classification of Animates in Persian

As we can see from Table A, animates and inanimates are distinctively classified into different categories in Persian with the exception of a few problematic categories which we will elaborate on later. Under animates, there is a further distinction between humans and non-humans. Humans are usually classified by *nafar* and *tan*. However, *nafar* was also used for camels in the past. Therefore, in Persian the classifiers *afar* and *tan* can be used to distinguish animate from inanimate and human from non human as illustrated below:

nafar [+animate, +human] *tan* [+animate, +human]

se *næfær moællem*

Three (CL) Teacher

Some non-human classifiers in Persian are "*ræ?s*", "*qæladeh*" and "*ædad*". "*ræ?s*" is used for domestic animals like cows, sheep and goats and ... "*qæladeh*" could be used for wild animals like tigers, lions, hound and etc. for birds the classifier "*ædad*" is used. The semantic features of each classifier are illustrated below:

"*ræ?s*" [+animate, - human, + mammal, - wild, -feather]

Haft "*ræ?s*" *goosfand*

Seven (CL) Sheep

"*qæladeh*" [+animate, - human, + mammal, +wild, -feather]

do "*qæladeh*" *babr*

Two (CL) Tiger

"*ædad*". [+animate, - human, - mammal, +feather]

Pæn *jædad* *kæbutær*

Five (CL) pigeon

The number and varieties of inanimate classifiers are tremendous. Depending on the shape, size, dimension, length, width and other attributes of objects, a number of different inanimate classifiers are used. Some of them will be mentioned as follows:

The classifier "*halqeh*" is used for round things like tire, necklace.

Se *halqeh* *lastic*

Three (CL) Tyre

For long and flexible thread-like items like belts, strands of hair, mountain and chain, "*reshteh*" is used.

se "*reshteh*" *kooh*

Three (CL) mountain

For objects like airplane, missiles, rocket, jet and etc "*færvænd*" is used.

Se "*færvænd*" *hævapeyma*

Discussion

From the semantic analysis has been done in this study, it can be claimed that the Persian classifier system has the following properties:

(I) both mensural and sortal classifiers exist in Persian where mensural classifiers are obligatory for counting and used for uncountable items but sortal ones are optional and used for countable things.

(II) There is an animate/inanimate classification in which animates divides into human and non human.

(I II) The classificatory principles for most animates and inanimates are based on

Their physical characteristics like shape, size, length and etc.

CONCLUSION

In this study first two kinds of classifiers were distinguished as mensural and sortal. It was argued that both of them are used in Persian for counting. However, mensural classifiers are obligatory to individuate mass nouns while sortal ones are optional. In addition, based on the Croft's (1994) framework, a semantically analysis of classifiers in Persian has been done. It is hoped that by doing this analysis further researchers have a good source about classifiers in Persian. Despite the worthwhile analysis this study yielded, there are some limitations within this study. The first limitation concerns with the size of data used in this study. Eliciting classifiers especially when they are not obligatory in the sentences is really formidable and problematic. Next, this study analyzes the classifiers from just a semantic point of view and does not consider the syntax, pragmatic and discourse of classifiers. Further studies can be done to take these aspects of classifiers into consideration. A contrastive analysis of classifiers, using this study as reference, between English and Persian can also be done to find out the transferring problems of Iranian learners when they want to convert the Persian classifiers into English.

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THE IMPACT OF CALL-BASED COLLABORATIVE LEARNING APPROACH ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' WRITING PROFICIENCY

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at investigating the impact of Computer Assisted Language Learning, CALL-based collaborative learning approach on EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners' writing proficiency. To this end, thirty intermediate EFL learners were divided into two groups: the experimental group, which was taught writing by CALL collaboratively, and the control group, which was taught the same skill through traditional paper and pencil procedure. The instruments and materials used to collect the data were Oxford placement test, Interchange series (Intro and One), writing assignments, Microsoft Office Word 2007, Yahoo Mail and forum. The findings of Independent-samples T-test revealed that there were statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups in terms of their overall writing score and their score across each of the writing assignments (except the first writing task). The members of the experimental group, which was taught writing by CALL collaboratively, outperformed their counterparts in the control group. Finally, it was concluded that the use of the CALL-based collaborative learning approach is an effective procedure for teaching writing and improving learners' writing proficiency.

KEYWORDS: CALL, Collaborative Learning, Writing Proficiency, EFL

INTRODUCTION

The last two decades of the twentieth century saw an explosive growth of articles, books and conferences on the application of technology in language teaching and learning. Technology over the past decades has changed the way foreign languages are taught. In supporting and enhancing language learning, technology can play a significant role. Instructional technologies such as Internet, CALL-related software, Websites, e-mail and electronic books have been thought to aid and influence language learning. According to Newell (n.d.), "instructional technology teaches students to use data and information in order to think critically, work collaboratively to solve problems, evaluate, modify, reapply, and work through the entire process again and again until the word product has meaning, relevance, and will stand up to scrutiny" (p.3). In addition, in a study by Ward and Mulholland (2006), the role of universities and public schools in providing the resources and training needed to effectively incorporate CALL technology for supporting students' language learning in instructional programs is highlighted. Some tools of technology such as e-mail and CALL enable teachers to expand language-learning opportunities to all students regardless of the place they live. Developments in technologies continue to give chances for designing advanced learning systems. The use of technology should never be the goal itself, but as a tool for facilitating language learning and teaching. In sum, technology continues to grow as a tool to assist teachers of foreign languages in facilitating language learning for their learners. It is for some decades that computers have found their way in educational settings. Information and Communications Technology (ICT) development has not simply changed the ways of teaching the traditional reading and writing; but they have become a new type of literacy, producing a rapid change in learning environment and making a major challenge to learners, teacher and researchers. In a classroom learning environment, students and teachers interact with each other and use a variety of tools and information resources. A pedagogy which interests many researchers is computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Over the past decade, a lot has been written about the importance of CALL in teaching and learning; because there is no doubt that computer-based instruction will play a more important role in second language classroom in the future.

CALL is a wide-ranging term. Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) defined CALL "as the use of the computer in the teaching or learning of a second or foreign language" (p.73). In addition, Allum (2002) defined CALL as a mediator between individuals and the social environment. The basis of CALL is the interaction between individual members of society and their environment. In fact, CALL is not limited to a specific time or place. It can be utilized in a

variety of locations such as home, school and community locations. The formation of communities online for learning raises the subject of the nature of the differences between virtual and face-to-face learning communities.

Classroom instruction tools can be divided into different forms such as group or individual forms. A smaller group has more opportunities to engage in the learning process. Groups of two or three may be best to complete a team task. Collaborative learning approach has been one of the most important and successful methods of instruction in group or team. Some studies on collaborative learning (Abuseileek, 2011; Fong, 2012; Kaufman, Sutow & Dunn, 1997; Storch, 2011 among others) suggest that teacher selected groups work best, because in group works teachers had many decisions to make. Moreover, there are several advantages for collaborative learning. They include increasing student speech, increasing different talks, increasing motivation, negotiation and comprehensible input in more comfortable atmosphere. In general, CALL-based instruction promotes students' participation and aids collaborative learning process, because learners generally enjoy working in pairs.

Warschauer and Liaw (2011) argue that collaborative writing tools are valuable for improving writing fluency and help learners promote their confident identity as English writers. Therefore, in second/foreign language pedagogy, creating interactive learning environments in which learners are able to communicate with each other collaboratively is very significant. This study attempts to investigate learners' writing proficiency by using CALL-based collaborative learning as a tool.

A Historical Overview of CALL

Applying CALL-based collaborative approach empowers learners to achieve success in second language learning. Based on Yunus, Salehi and Nordin (2012), CALL can be referred to "as a range of technologies such as electronic mail, websites, online dictionaries, blogs, and computer software which are employed for language teaching and learning" (p.139). According to Warschauer and Healey (1998), "computers have been used for language teaching since the 1960s" (p.57). It indicates that computers have been used for language teaching purposes for more than 30 years.

The first steps of CALL go back to the 1960s. It was in the USA that the first CALL software was developed. Warschauer and Healey (1998) argue that the development of CALL can be divided into three main stages: behavioristic CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL. Behaviorist CALL was planned in the 1950s and implemented in the 1960s and 1970s. In this model, the computer was viewed as a 'mechanical tutor' that never allows students to work individually. This model featured repetitive drills, referred to drill and practice (drill-and-kill). Mainframe was the technology of behavioristic CALL. The second stage, communicative CALL, conceived in the late 1970s and early 1980s, while behavioristic CALL was being refused both pedagogically and theoretically. At this time, teachers tended to focus on pedagogical implication, i.e., meaning was stressed over form. In addition, grammar teaching shifted to implicit instruction, in contrast to explicit instruction which was the previous norm. Communicative CALL stressed that learning is a process of expressions; discovery and development are related to cognitive theories. For the proponents of communicative CALL, what students did with each other while working at the computer was focused on rather than what they did with the machine. The technology of this model was personal computers (PC). Although communicative CALL was advanced over behavioristic CALL, it started to be under criticism which caused moving away of many teachers from a cognitive view of communicative teaching to a socio-cognitive view, because it placed greater emphasis on language use in authentic social contexts. Using and integrating various skills of language learning led to a new perspective of language learning which has been called integrative CALL, the third stage of CALL. This third stage began from the late 1980s and early 1990s. It focuses more on using forms than forms themselves. Students usually prefer teaching grammar indirectly rather than directly, generating original utterances rather than manipulating prefabricated language. This stage seeks both to integrate different skills and also use more technology into the language learning. In integrative CALL, students use various technological tools in language learning process, rather than doing isolated exercises in computer lab once a week. The multimedia networked computer is the technology of integrative CALL. The multimedia networked computer both provides possibilities for using much more integrated technology and advanced essential use of computers, which are vital features of modern life in the developed world. According to Chapelle (2001), during the late 1990s, the question of technology use gradually changed from "Should the computer be used in second language teaching?" to "How can the computer best be used in language teaching?" (p.1). This shift implied that technology was not optional in language classrooms any more.

Pedagogical Benefits of CALL

Today, the majority of studies in CALL have focused on the advantages or possibilities of using computer applications in language classrooms. For instance, based on Warschauer's (1999) ethnographic research, students acquired both language and skills of technology at the same time. He highlighted that students viewed technology as a critical tool that is valuable for language education not as an optional or secondary tool. Another study by Khamkhien (2012) highlighted the use of CALL in English classrooms with an overview of the development of using computers. Advantages and disadvantages of integrating CALL in English teaching are presented too, then different sorts of learning activities by applying computer technology for learning and teaching English in the Thai context are discussed. CALL as a tool is suggested for pedagogical English teaching in this study.

The findings of the study by Abuseileek (2007) showed that an effective method for learning and teaching oral skills is the co-operative computer-mediated technique. In addition, students' attitudes toward implementing CALL approach and techniques of teaching and learning oral skills were investigated. Ewing (2000) stated that learners find opportunities to develop four language skills in a CALL environment which are not available in traditional classrooms meaning that learners receive instant feedback on their errors from their peers and the system through CALL. Cubillos (1998) reports further benefits of CALL including: Facilitating vocabulary learning; increasing students' awareness of language structure by more complicated error feedback programs; supporting development of reading and writing; helping teachers have information about students' processing of language; facilitating students' discovery of the target culture; and enhancing motivation.

CALL-Based Collaborative Approach

Increasing rate of the development of new technologies brought about an intensive interest in using these technologies in educational area and it was argued in numerous studies how they might affect the language learners' abilities. Recent advances in computer technology, through having access to the internet and e-mail, are significantly influencing the language teachers' way in applying the information technology to improve the language skills of their students. Warschauer and Healey (1998) stated that the role of computers in instructing language has become an important subject confronting large numbers of language teachers throughout the world through the event of multimedia and Internet. As Internet has come in to more widespread use for learning, online collaborative learning has become more accepted as an effective strategy that is now made possible by the technology. "Online education allows for both place-independent and time-independent learning and collaborations" (Graham & Scarborough, 1999, p.20). Bernard and Cayrol (2001) claimed that the computer-based instruction is in two forms: the individualized computer-based learning which is individualized instruction and computer-based group learning which is as a communication device that is related to collaborative learning. Collaborative learning is a learning strategy that has arisen from constructivism and socio-culturalism which both draw from behaviorism and cognitivism, in which the context that learning occurs is added (Simone, Schmid, & McEwen, 2001). Jehng (1997) also mentioned that "collaborative learning involves social interaction between participants, and the psycho-social processes underlining collaborative interactions could be an important factor that impacts learning" (p.22). Palloff and Pratt (2005) also highlighted four phases for effective collaborative activity which are: create environment, model the process, guide the process, and evaluate the process. Additionally, collaborative learning diverges from cooperative learning which is its counterpart and supports group members' different dialogs and thoughtful discussions (Abrami et al., 1995; Kagan, 1992). Furthermore, it has enhanced more productivity and achievement than individual or competitive learning structure (Simone, Schmid, & McEwen, 2001). Participation of learner's own intrinsic motivation in learning with others is something that advocates collaborative learning attempt to capitalize it; therefore, collaborative learning for adults is viewed more appropriate (Bernard & Cayrol, 2001). Collaborative or group learning is based on a learner-centred model based on which the learner is an active participant who translates knowledge from a widespread range of experiences, sources of information and interaction with others (Harasim, 1990). Several researchers have attempted to explain the relationship between collaborative learning and CALL-based instruction. For example, Davis and Ye-ling (1994) in a study reported that after eight weeks of teleconference and telecommunication program, student-to-student personal interaction by microcomputers, classrooms and labs at first and then by accessing a mainframe computer conferencing program in two different institutes, worked in small groups to create the reports and posted them to the class conference, their students' reading and writing began to change as well. Hiltz (1994) referred to students' anywhere-anytime flexibility and highlighted electronic conferencing as the ideal place for self-paced and collaborative learning. Warschauer (2000) suggested using computers in the classroom by allowing and encouraging students to perform the most real tasks and taking advantage of the power of modern information and communication technologies to change the world which is suitable for the interests of humankind and students' own values. Abuseileek (2011)

found that the computer-based environment enabled the participants to hide their characteristics and decrease their anxiety from face-to-face discussion that was very helpful in developing their communication skills. The result of a study by Bataineh and BaniHani (2010) revealed experimental group's significant difference in achievement, and both students and teachers were found to have positive attitudes towards computer use. Moreover, there were significant differences in scientific stream of students' study. Warschauer and Liaw (2011) showed that emerging technologies such as blogs provide means for students to discuss their personal and professional interests by creating public blogs.

Collaborative Writing

Collaborative writing reveals a full-length writing assignment which can be completed in pairs or small groups. Collaborative writing assignments transform solitary work of writing into a group activity. By these activities instructors give students the opportunities to practice writing and editing with others. Collaborative components include the production of a document by more than one author, then pre-draft discussion and arguments as well as post-draft analyses and debates. Warschauer and Liaw (2011) added "collaborative writing tools are valuable for promoting writing fluency and strategies and for helping students develop a more confident identity as English writers" (p.3). When students find an authentic audience beyond the teacher and participate in peer editing, writing becomes a communicative act between the reader and the writer. In a recent study conducted by Rahmany, Sadeghi, and Faramarzi (2013), the effect of blogging on vocabulary enhancement and structural accuracy in an EFL context was investigated. They reported that after five weeks of instruction not only students' recommendations of new words to each other significantly increased, but also their grammatical errors decreased when they sent their writing assignments online on their weblogs. Based on Al-Menei (2008), some recent studies suggest that the most positive effect of the computer-assisted composition instruction involves students' collaboration in writing tasks. For example, in a study conducted by Al-Jarf (2006), a group of Saudi students shared their online writing course with a group of Ukrainian and Russian students. The aims of the project were students' writing skills, their awareness of local and global cultural development, and also improvement of students' communication ability. Students' responses to the post questionnaire showed positive attitude among learners. Hayati and Ziyaeimehr (2011) in their study about writing proficiency reported that there was a significant difference between the learners who receive joint construction instruction and the control group. In another study, Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2012) found that the posttest scores of experimental group that had the opportunity to use cooperative writing strategies significantly outperformed the control group which worked individually on their final writings. ShiriAminloo (2013) presented the effect of collaborative writing and group work on learners' writing ability at elementary level. The result showed that both treatment group that wrote their writing collaboratively and control group that wrote their writing individually improved at the end of instruction. The result of the study by Ekawat (2010) demonstrated significant differences for both traditional individualistic learning method and the cooperative learning method after t-test; however, differences of students' progressive cooperative learning was considered more efficient than individualistic learning. Moreover, Youhanaee, RahimiTehrani and Piri (2012) in a study which was about collaborative writing in a foreign language context reported the positive effect of pair work on structural and morphological accuracy; however, there was no effect on spelling.

Using CALL to Enhance Writing Skill

According to Al- Haq and Al- Sobh (2010), writing is "an important communicative language skill" (p.189). In their view, "it is an activity that requires a mental effort to 'think out' the sentences and the ways of joining them to be meaningful and communicative" (p.189). In fact, "writing development involves changes that occur in children's strategic behavior, knowledge, and motivation" (Harris, Graham & Mason, 2006, p.295). This ability is usually taught with the goal of assisting students to use writing in higher education or at work. "There is no doubt that writing is the most difficult skill for second language learners to master" (Aminzadeh&Molaesmaeli, 2009, p.59). Additionally, based on Yunus, Salehi and Nordin (2012), "of all the four language skills, ESL learners often find writing a daunting task owing to its complexity" (p.138). This is due to that writing not simply asks learners to put memorizing written symbols on paper. Al- Haq and Al- Sobh (2010) also mentioned that "writing should not be thought of as only a productive skill. It is rather a three-stage process (pre-writing, writing, and rewriting)" (p.190). According to Rankin-Brown (2006), learners are not interested in writing because of class homework or not having enough interesting writing to present. Moreover, their difficulty in organization relates to unfamiliarity with academic writing or teacher's inability to organize and advance learners' writing because of feedback or disinterest due to having unsupportive teachers or not well-trained teachers (Rankin-Brown, 2006). Also, "since effective

writing instruction involves providing individual feedback on multiple drafts per student, it is extraordinary time-consuming” (Warschauer & Ware, 2006, p.2). But according to Whiteman (1981), “students are weak in writing because teachers concentrate on teaching grammar, spelling drills, and punctuation rather than involving students in writing practice” (cited in Al-Haq & Al-Sobh, 2010, p.190). In developing countries the use of computers in education has become inevitable, as a result of quick development of informational and communicational technology (Serin, 2011). The advantages of computers in writing instruction are identified by the public and supported by the availability of computers in home and at school for children. For instance, Belden, Russonello, and Stwarts (2007) in a survey examined American public opinion on the writing importance that revealed that the public believes in positive impact of computers and new technologies on teaching writing to children. Applying computers and word processing software are part of writing instruction that seems as a tool to have positive impact on students’ writing and they are likely to perform better on online writing in comparison with paper-and-pencil writing (Way, Davis & Seymour, 2008). In addition, “as computer-assisted language learning gain popularity, word processing is becoming standard in foreign language classrooms” (Chikmatsu, 2008, p.1). In addition, Rankin-Brown (2006) recommends that we need to “have students work collaboratively on writing so they feel they aren’t the only person being judged on what is being turned in (they share the grade and burden)” (p.6). Jafarian, Soori, and Kafipour (2012) revealed that CALL users’ achievement in EFL writing was significantly higher than nonusers. It means that students’ grammatical/mechanical accuracy influenced their writing positively compared with those attending just traditional classes. Aminzade and Molaesmaeli (2009) reported through e-mail learners’ writing skill would improve if they got involved in collaborative learning. Kargozari and Ghaeme (2010) also claimed that after using online courses which was provided for their experimental group through website in their study, T-test results showed significant differences between writing ability of two groups. Experimental group as a result of web-based instruction made more gains. Biria and Jafari (2013) also reported that there was a considerable improvement in the experimental group working in pair in comparison with the control group working individually; however, the fluency of written tests was not important in comparison with the fluency of essay produced by individuals. Furthermore, it also revealed that overall quality of the learners’ writing improved by participating in pairs although the written fluency did not change significantly.

THE PRESENT STUDY

CALL has recently become a significant part of teaching aid, especially for researchers who believe that computers are an effective tool for teaching. Because collaborative learning has a significant role in educational curriculum, the findings of this study can be both theoretically and empirically important. This study attempts to investigate the effectiveness of CALL-based instruction. On the other hand, it reveals specific plans for teachers, policy makers, and syllabus designers who prefer to use CALL-based writing instruction in their classes, policies and curriculum. In addition, finding the impact of CALL-based collaborative instruction on learners’ writing proficiency can provide us with opportunities to look differently at the curriculum.

RESEARCH QUESTION

This study presents CALL as a supportive method in teaching writing which allows EFL learners to practice their writing collaboratively. More specifically, the study is conducted to answer the following question:

- Does CALL-based collaborative instruction have any impact on EFL learners’ writing proficiency?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Thirty intermediate EFL learners (24 males and 6 females) participated in this study. They were all adult EFL learners, ranging in age from 25 to 45 learning English at Institute of Energy and Hydro Technology, affiliated with University of Applied Science and Technology, Rasht, Iran. (See Table 1)

All participants were native speakers of Persian who were receiving 90-minute sessions of English instruction weekly. Their participation in the study was based on their performance after the administration of Oxford quick placement test. In order to ascertain the homogeneity of the participants in the study, the students whose scores fell between one unit of standard deviation and the mean score were taken into account.

Table1: Participants

Group	N	Male	Female
Experimental	15	13	2
Control	15	11	4
All participants	30	24	6

Instruments

Oxford quick placement test (version 1)

Oxford quick placement test administrated as a criterion to assess the proficiency level of the participants. In fact, it is administered to see whether or not the participants had the same level of proficiency in English.

Textbook

The textbook **Interchange series (Intro and Book One)** by Richards, Hull and Proctor (2005) and the accompanying CDs were used in the study. Both experimental and control groups used the same textbook. Based on this textbook, both groups were taught similar basics of paragraph writing, for instance, topic sentence, developing ideas for writing paragraphs, supporting and concluding sentences, but each through a different method of instruction.

Writing assignments

In order to analyse the learners' progress during the study, five different writing assignments were required. The writing assignments were taken from books Intro and one "Interchange series" (Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2005). The participants in both groups were given five writing assignments requiring them to write paragraphs. Moreover, they completed each of the five assignments three times: one individually, one in pairs or group in forum, and another one again individually. The process writing approach was employed for both groups (experimental and control).

Instructional Software

Microsoft Office Word 2007 was used in this study to check grammar, and spelling errors. It was also used to present other word processing skills, like editing. It assists users to write correct words and sentences in an interactive and enjoyable way during or after class. An effective facility tool in word processor 'comment' was used for giving feedback and editing text for the experimental group by the teacher during study. In addition, members of the experimental group specifically used the Word processor for checking grammar automatically. When students typed their paragraph, wavy green underlines indicated grammatical errors. In addition, when automatic spelling checker is turned on, Word 2007 checks and corrects misspell words automatically. Students referred to wavy red underlines to notice possible spelling problems. In this way, the writer right-clicks the underlined word and selects the alternative correct spelling as one writes. Finally, students used blue wavy underlined words to indicate grammatically misspell words.

Yahoo Mail

The e-mail service used in this study was Yahoo Mail, a free program available for public use which allows the participants were enabled to have an interaction with others via the Intern

Forum

As a virtual class, the participants used a forum .It was held every other week so that the participants could work on their weekly subjects to write collaboratively.

Procedure

Initially, to homogenize the participants, Oxford quick placement test (version1) was administrated to the participants. Based on the findings of the test, the participants of the study were chosen. The initial number of participants was 50. Fifteen participants were excluded because their proficiency level did not match that of other participants according to Oxford quick placement test. Another five participants were excluded because of not taking part in the weekly classes. After that, the participants were assigned to into two groups (experimental group and control group) randomly. The instructor presented five subjects and asked all the participants to write complete coherent paragraphs during ten weeks (two weeks for each subject). The participants in the experimental group were

taken to a computer laboratory to check their performance and given directions on how to best use the Word 2007, forum and e-mail service. The participants in the experimental group utilized the forum facility to discuss different errors and exchange their points of view collaboratively a week before writing individually. In addition, a week later, the experimental group sent their individual writings to the instructor and she scored and e-mailed them to the learners. In addition, she checked their problems by giving comments on their paragraphs. They analysed their pre-final writing with each other, in which the weaker learners benefited from their classmates. After that, the participants seemed to do better while writing. In the following week, the learners sent their individual written works to instructor via e-mail. The writing paragraphs were corrected by the instructor, and then the instructor sent them their five scores during ten weeks via e-mail. On the other hand, the control group was taught through the traditional method of writing instruction which included composition techniques of writing words on the blackboard, diagrams, drafts, tables and charts. The participants in the control group were provided with the corresponding materials and experienced the paper and pencil mode of writing. In addition, the instructor applied other techniques such as brainstorming, problem solving and thinking. In the first week, all members of control group brought their ideas to the class and discussed them collaboratively. At the end of the class, each of them decided what and how to write. A week later, they submitted their writing to the course instructor on paper and the instructor scored and corrected them on paper. At the end of the week ten, all scores for both groups were analysed to find the impact of CALL-based collaborative learning approach on learners' writing proficiency. The corrected papers were scored by two independent instructors after scoring the papers in order to ensure the reliability of the scorer.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 below shows the students' overall achievement at the end of the experiment.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

GROUPS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	15	16.00	1.58	.408
Experimental	15	17.50	1.00	.259

As shown in Table 2, the mean score of the experimental group was 17.50, whereas the mean score in the control group was 16. The mean scores of the two groups showed that the participants of the experimental group which used CALL approach collaboratively during the study achieved higher scores in writing than their counterparts of the control group which was instructed traditionally, which means that experimental group did better than control group. Thus, there are differences between the mean scores of the two groups the significance of which needs to be statistically checked.

Table 3: Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.207	.149	-3.113	28	.004	-1.50667	.48398	-2.49805	-.51528
Equal variances not assumed			-3.113	23.721	.005	-1.50667	.48398	-2.50617	-.50716

As it is given in the table3, the Sig. value is less than .05; this means that the difference between the mean scores of writing proficiency of the experimental and control groups over five tasks overall are statistically significant, ($t(28) = -3.113$, $p < .05$). As a result, it can be concluded that the CALL-based collaborative instruction has a statistically significant impact on EFL learners' writing proficiency as far as the overall mean of the scores is concerned.

To provide further evidence, writing activities were also examined separately. Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics including the mean scores and standard deviation of five paragraph-writing activities that the participants of the two groups were assigned to complete. In fact, the means of participants' scores and standard deviations of their achievements in those five texts are given separately. In Table 4, the experimental group (CALL-based collaborative approach) achieved a little higher mean score than the control group did in the first writing activity. The mean score was 15.27 for the experimental group, while it was 14.47 for the control group. The table below also shows considerable differences in the mean scores of experimental and control groups after the first writing activity. In other words, in subsequent writing activities, the mean of the experimental group were increasingly higher than that of the control group, which might be indicative of gradual improvement of the writing proficiency of the experimental group after receiving treatment in several sessions.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics (Five Writing Assignments)

Groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
TEXT 1	Cont.	15	14.47	2.134	.551
	Exp.	15	15.27	1.387	.358
TEXT 2	Cont.	15	15.47	1.598	.413
	Exp.	15	16.80	1.265	.327
TEXT3	Cont.	15	17.80	1.568	.405
	Exp.	15	19.07	1.163	.300
TEXT4	Cont.	15	16.80	2.042	.527
	Exp.	15	18.40	1.056	.273
TEXT5	Cont.	15	15.47	1.727	.446
	Exp.	15	18.00	1.309	.338

Table 5: Independent Samples T- Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Dif.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TEXT 1	Equal variances assumed	2.664	.114	-1.218	28	.234	-.800	.657	-2.146	.546
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.218	24.040	.235	-.800	.657	-2.156	.556
TEXT 2	Equal variances assumed	.338	.566	-2.534	28	.017	-1.333	.526	-2.411	-.256
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.534	26.601	.017	-1.333	.526	-2.414	-.253
TEXT3	Equal variances assumed	1.223	.278	-2.513	28	.018	-1.267	.504	-2.299	-.234
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.513	25.828	.019	-1.267	.504	-2.303	-.230
TEXT4	Equal variances assumed	3.997	.055	-2.695	28	.012	-1.600	.594	-2.816	-.384
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.695	20.981	.014	-1.600	.594	-2.835	-.365
TEXT5	Equal variances assumed	1.534	.226	-4.528	28	.000	-2.533	.559	-3.679	-1.387
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.528	26.100	.000	-2.533	.559	-3.683	-1.384

Independent-samples T-tests were also utilized to check the differences between the means of the experimental and control groups across five writing activities. In Table 5, the results of the independent-samples t-tests are given for each writing activity separately. As it is given in the table 5, the Sig. value is less than .05 for all writing activities except the first one.; this means that the difference between the mean scores of writing proficiency of the experimental and control groups across each writing task is statistically significant,[Text One 1, $t(28) = -1.218$, $p \geq .05$; Text Two, $t(28) = -2.534$, $p < .05$; Text Three, $t(28) = -2.513$, $p < .05$; Text Four, $t(28) = -2.695$, $p < .05$; $t(28) = -4.528$, $p < .05$].

Concerning the first writing task, the difference was not found to be statistically significant. Based on the above-mentioned information, it can be concluded that the CALL-based collaborative instruction has a statistically significant impact on EFL learners' writing proficiency. This is confirmed as far as the overall mean of the scores and the performance on each writing activity is concerned (except the first one).

Discussion

To answer the research question, independent-samples t-test was utilized to check the difference between the control group, which was taught traditionally, and the experimental group, which was taught based on collaborative CALL-based approach (see Table 3). Based on the findings, the difference between the mean scores of writing proficiency of the experimental and control groups over five tasks overall were found to be statistically significant. The finding revealed that the CALL-based collaborative instruction has a statistically significant effect on the overall writing proficiency of the EFL learners. Writing activities were also examined separately. To this end, independent-samples T-tests were run to check the statistical significance of the differences between the means of experimental and control groups across five writing activities (see Table 5). Except the first writing task, it could be concluded that the CALL-based collaborative instruction has a statistically significant impact on EFL learners' writing proficiency in terms of the performance on each writing activity. The findings of several studies confirm those of the present study as far as the role of collaboration in enhancing the writing skill is concerned.

For example, in a research done by Ekawat (2010), 19 third-year English majors participated in this study as a traditional individualistic learning and the cooperative leaning group. T-test was used to find the differences between the mean scores of the two tests. The findings indicated statistically significant differences for both learning methods. However, the comparison of the students' progress revealed that the cooperative learning method was considered more effective than individualistic learning. In an Iranian research carried out by Meihami, Meihami and Varmaghani (2013), in which the effect of collaborative writing on EFL students' grammatical accuracy in their writing was investigated, the results stated that collaborative writing with the aim of allowing EFL learners to make gains in grammatical accuracy is beneficial.

CONCLUSION

Pedagogical Implications

The overall aim of this study was to advance an understanding of the potential of CALL-based collaborative instruction to facilitate EFL learners' writing proficiency. Based on the findings, there were statistically significant differences between the overall scores of the experimental group (CALL-based collaborative approach) and the control group (traditional paper-pencil group) and the scores of the two groups across each written assignment except the first one. The experimental group, which utilized computer-assisted language learning (CALL), achieved higher scores in writing than the control group. That is, students who were taught writing through CALL collaboratively, corrected more errors and were faster than the students of the control group. This provides the answer to the question of the study: CALL has a statistically significant impact on the students' writing proficiency.

It is undeniable that CALL technology is able to provide a very enjoyable and fruitful collaborative learning environment for EFL learners. Besides, it would be conceivable for CALL to replace the typical language writing classroom. In other words, this technology can be as an aid for classroom collaborative instruction and interaction.

In order to reap the benefits of this technology, EFL learners are strongly suggested to use CALL collaboratively, because the results of this study indicate that it can tackle the greatest challenges faced by foreign language education collaboratively. CALL could bring a positive change in collaborative writing environment. Using word processor via CALL made a great difference on the level of writing skills of the members of the experimental group. The findings of this study would be useful for instructors in utilizing CALL-based collaborative learning strategies as an alternative procedure in teaching writing. Teachers can ask students to write collaboratively in their classes by CALL. In addition, they can use the findings of this study to improve their learners' writing ability.

Policy makers should provide computerized discourse programs with plenty of opportunities and guidance for both teachers and students to be more responsible towards their teaching and learning by CALL-based collaborative approach, because learners may benefit more from studying writing with the help of CALL. In addition, the Ministry of Science, Education, and Technology should train both teachers and students to use CALL in writing classes in an effective manner. Moreover, university students can benefit more from the practice of learning by CALL. The results of this study can give promising insights to syllabus designers and material developers. This study like other studies certainly has limitations. The most important limitation related to the limited number of participants of the study. In addition, convenience sampling was also used which can limit the generalizability of the findings.

Suggestions for Further Studies

Various types of CALL-based collaborative approach and programs could be investigated further to shed light on the effectiveness of different CALL-based procedures. More studies should be conducted to investigate the role of CALL in developing other language skills (listening, speaking, and reading) and language components (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) and teaching in other fields of study.

It would be beneficial to conduct the same study over a longer period of time. Longitudinal studies might provide us with more in-depth findings. Future research should assess teachers' characteristics and their teaching styles which utilize CALL in their writing class.

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TECHNOLOGY-INTEGRATED INSTRUCTION: IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS OF
USING WEB 2.0 TOOLS IN LANGUAGE CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

Since the advent of Web 2.0 tools, technology has well found its way into language classes in the last few years. The present study is an investigation of the extent to which Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students have the tendency and confidence to use the Internet in general, and Web 2.0 tools in particular, for language learning purposes. For this purpose, 156 university students were selected. After being instructed for three and a half months in a hybrid language learning course, they participated in a semi-structured interview. The qualitative analysis of the participants' responses revealed the fact that almost all of them were interested in the integration of Web 2.0 tools in their language classes. The results also indicated that many of the participants had a strong tendency to use the Internet for their future language learning.

KEYWORDS: blended learning, Internet-integrated instruction, Web 2.0 tools, foreign language learning

INTRODUCTION

Computers and the Internet have taken a strong position in language classes since 2000 (Wright, 2000). Recently a new line of thought has emerged to facilitate learning in language classes: integrating face-to-face classroom instruction with online activities so that the learners can take the advantage of both e-learning and face-to-face instruction. This is the philosophy of what is known as blended or hybrid learning (Can, 2009). It can be viewed as an approach that combines the usefulness of opportunities offered in traditional classrooms and active learning through technologically-empowered online environment (Garrison & Vaughan, 2008).

While some believe that blended learning is not a new concept, and it means the synthesis of approaches and methods to make best out of one's language teaching, others use the term blended learning more restrictively stating that it is the combination of 'real world plus in-world' as the teacher delivers a lesson face-to-face and then gives the follow-up activities through virtual environments (Claypole, 2010).

The use of the Web can be divided into three eras. In 2004, the term Web 2.0 began its rise in popularity when the first Web 2.0 conference was held, and it was defined as a 'platform'. It was argued that users could generate Web contents in many forms such as ideas, texts, videos, and pictures. Web 2.0 is often contrasted with Web 1.0. Web 2.0 websites allow users to do more than just retrieving information. The remarkable feature of the Web 2.0 tools is that users can provide the data on a Web 2.0 site and exercise some control over it. Web 2.0 is in fact an interactive network which joins communities (Li, Looi, & Zhong, 2006; Cochrane, 2007; Kaehr, 2009).

Web 2.0 technologies can be utilized in enhancing language learning development in a blended world. Using Web 2.0 applications in the language classroom has implications for social constructivist pedagogy based on integrating skills including listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Warschauer & Liaw, 2010). The problem raised in this study is related to language learners' general reactions toward using the Web tools as out-of-class activities to enhance in-class instruction. As Eidswick (2007) reported, the result of a survey exploring the learners' opinions in using Weblogs for collaborative activities showed that students perceived the activity as enjoyable and useful. Thus, the point is what the learners' reactions towards Web 2.0 tools are, and whether one can conclude that Web 2.0 tools raise the students' interests and motivation to use them in improving their reading comprehension and writing skill;

and if Web 2.0 tools develop the students' learning outcome so much that they feel confident at the end of the instruction to use their technical expertise to look after new ways on the Web to learn a foreign language later.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A large number of studies have been done so far on the factors contributing to learning effectiveness including the efficacy of learning environments (Stracke, 2007; Yu, Choy, Chan & Lo, 2008). As hybrid learning has the potential of enjoying both classical and virtual worlds, it needs much more extensive assessment and research.

Examining learners' attitudes toward an e-learning program, Dziuban and Moskal (2001), Dennis, El-Gayar, and Zhou (2002) as well as Wu and Hiltz (2004) confirmed that hybrid learning increases student satisfaction from learning process. DeLacey and Leonard (2002, cited in Brace-Govan & Gabbott, 2004) reported that students not only learned more when online sessions were added to traditional courses, but their interaction and satisfaction improved as well. Regarding learner's attitude, Stracke (2004) had an investigation into the reactions of 190 students who attended a survey and were interviewed to a blended language learning program. The results showed that the students had an overall favorable attitude toward blended language learning. The results also indicated that teachers' experiences focused on the issue of change, and their willingness to accept substantial changes to their role in the classroom.

In their study, El-Gayar and Dennis (2005) assessed the learning effectiveness of students in a hybrid learning environment and learners' feelings toward the program. The findings showed that learners did not experience any feelings of anxiety and isolation. However, the results did not show any significant difference in satisfaction with the learning process between pure e-learning and hybrid learning (El-Gayar & Dennis, 2005). Bhatti, Tubaisahat, and El-Quawasmeh (2005) examined the perceptions of female students considering hybrid learning and found out that student satisfaction increased with mixed mode learning while the students' dependency on the instructor for assistance decreased. Rivera, McAlister, and Rice (2002), also surveyed student satisfaction among the three modes of learning -- face-to-face, fully online, and hybrid -- and found that student satisfaction was at its maximum rate with the hybrid learning model (Buzzetto-More & Sweat-Guy, 2006).

As there was a shift in technology from Web 1.0 to Web 2.0, a great number of research was done to answer the questions concerning the applicability of Web 2.0 tools in language learning. In a survey study, Berk and Cebeci (2005) explored the students' opinions concerning the use of podcasts in education, and they found that the instruction as a recorded audio file should not be longer than 15 minutes. Regarding podcasts as a Web 2.0 tool to improve language proficiency, research has shown that students are unlikely or unwilling to spend a lot of the time to listen to an entire lecture via podcast (Frydenberg, 2006).

Putman (2008) argued that with the current popularity of podcasting as Web 2.0 tools, educators need to begin to examine how this form of digital media can be utilized as a tool to enhance instruction and learning. Preliminary results of his qualitative data analysis revealed the students agreed that podcasts motivated them and assisted them in learning vocabulary.

Lavin (2006) explored WBI and Web 2.0 tools especially weblogs and wikis as useful synchronous computer-mediated communication tools in language education. Tseng (2008) studied the role of blogs in language learning and teaching in Taiwan and found that students formed positive attitudes toward using blogs in English classes. Considering Web 2.0 tools, Majhi and Maharana (2010) stated that Web 2.0 tools such as wikis, blogs, social bookmarking, podcasting, and vodcasting are suitable for educational and lifelong learning purposes because the world has been built to a large degree on digital environments, and educational practices must foster a creative and collaborative engagement of learners with this digital environment in the learning process. Drigas, Vrettaros, Tagoulis, and Kouremenos (2010) designed a language course for the deaf based on e-materials, vodcasting and web 2.0 tools such as social networking and blog. The result of using the design for an instructional period offered an enhancement in learning process and helping the deaf achieving more effective learning results. Luján-Mora and Juana Espinosa's study (n.d.) revealed that even though most students had not used a blog before, they confirmed being motivated and considered this tool as an enhancer of their learning processes.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on this notion, the following research question was posed:

To what extent can Web 2.0 technologies increase Iranian EFL students' interest and confidence so that they will use them for their present and future language learning processes without their teachers' involvement?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the present study were 156 male and female sophomore students majoring in English translation and literature at Islamic Azad Universities, Abadeh and Shiraz Branches and the Zand Institute of Higher Education in Shiraz, Iran. They were all Iranian students who studied English as a foreign language and were at an average age range of 20 to 27 years old.

Instrumentation

The qualitative data was gathered based on an online interview held at the end of the instruction. The interview was a semi-structured one, with a set of pre-determined questions. It was carried out to:

- (1) identify the students' opinions on the usefulness of the Web and their tendencies to use it for language learning,
- (2) determine the Web 2.0 tools' positive impact on learners' language studies,
- (3) find out if the participants preferred to have online instruction and/or assignments,
- (4) determine if they felt confident and experienced enough to use the net for their language learning in future independent of a teacher.

Procedure

In order to answer the research question, the following procedure was followed. First, to observe ethical considerations, sophomore EFL male and female students at Islamic Azad University, Shiraz and Abadeh Branch and the Zand Institute of Higher Education in Iran were informed of the purpose of the study, and asked to take part voluntarily in the study. Out of all available students, 156 sophomore male and female students were selected. During the instruction, which lasted two and a half months, two hours a week, all learners took language lessons in the classroom in the form of traditional face-to-face instruction, and for their out-of class assignments, they were involved in different Web-based activities.

After the treatment, the participants took part in an online semi-structured interview through *yahoo messenger* to express their personal ideas about using the Internet for language instructional purposes, the tools being used during the instruction; whether they would find them both interesting and useful; if they would use them for their future language learning without an instructor's help; and the experience, language improvement and technical knowledge they gained during the learning process.

Out of all questions asked from the students, four questions which were more directly related to the research question were selected. Then, the participants' answers to these questions were coded. Each answer was marked with an identification number. Then, the coding was done through converting the answers to the questions into three categories: agree, disagree and undecided. *Agree* showed that a positive answer was given to the question, and it was in favor of the research question. A negative answer to the question was represented by *disagree* implying that it was against the research question. There were some cases in which students could not give a certain "Yes" or "No" answer to the question. They either did not say anything or answered so conservatively that the researcher could not decide if they agreed or disagreed. Such answers were coded as *undecided*. Then, for each question, the number of agree, disagree, and undecided answers was counted. Answers were rated as one. For example, on the rating scale, the answers were recorded as 1A, 2D, 3U and so on, implying that the answer to Question One was Agree, Question Two was Disagree, and Question Three was Undecided. They were then represented in percentages and shown on graphs.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

With regard to the first question on the students' tendency to use the Web for language learning purposes, responses similar to the following were obtained:

Coded as "agree":

"I am now much more interested than before!" (A male student)

"Internet gives me a better chance to learn English." (A female student)

Coded as "disagree":

"It takes a lot of time; I am sometimes distracted [me] from my lessons." (A female student)

Coded as "undecided":

"Maybe."

"It depends."

Based on the students' comments, the frequency of the participants' positive, negative, and uncertain answers to the first question was recorded and then the related percentages were calculated. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Tendency to Use Web 2.0 in Percentages

Question codes		male	female	Total
Agree	1.00 count	25	108	133
		83.3%	85.7%	85.26%
Disagree	2.00 count	2	6	8
		6.7%	4.8%	5.13%
Undecided	3.00 count	3	12	15
		10%	9.5%	9.61%
Total	count	30	126	156
				100.0%

As the table indicates, while 85.26% of the students preferred to use the Web, only 5.13% disagreed with using it. Among all, 9.61% of the students were uncertain about having the desire to use the Web in general. On the other hand, from all male students, 83.3% gave a positive answer, 6.7% a negative, and 10% an uncertain answer to the first question. Likewise, out of 126 female students, 85.7% gave a positive answer, 4.8% a negative, and 9.5% an uncertain answer to the first question. Figure 1 represents the distribution of the participants' responses in a pie graph.

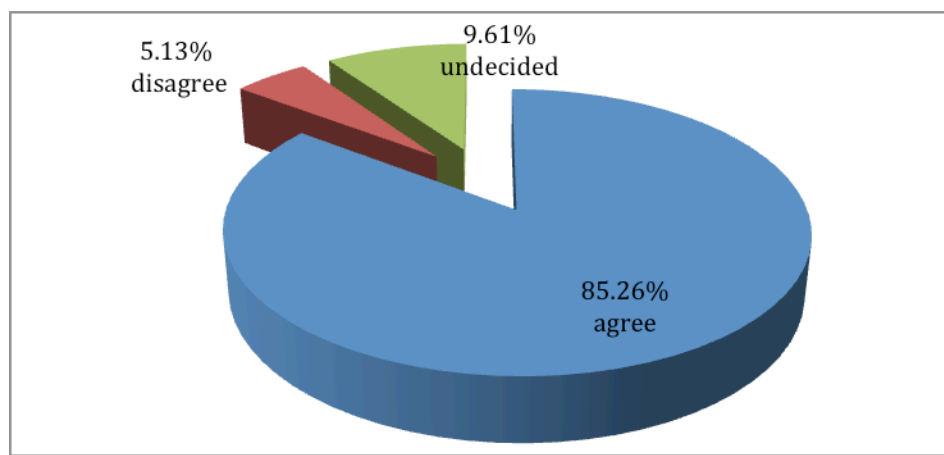


Figure 1: The Participants' Tendency to Use the Web for Language Learning

Regarding the impact of the Web on language studies, students gave different responses. Some of them are as follows:

Coded as "agree":

"It has helped me with my reading a lot." (A female student)

"Certainly. It has enriched my vocabulary knowledge." (A male student)

Coded as "undecided":

"I like it, but my grades have not improved." (A female student)

"It depends on the way I use it." (A male student)

Coded as "disagree":

"No, my English is still poor. I thought it will[sic] do a miracle for my language learning!" (A female student)

Examining the students' answers to this question indicated that most of the students believed the net can help them foster their language skills. Some referred to special language skills. For example, a student said that chatting with others on the net, though non-native speakers of English, has increased his communication skills. He said that he is not afraid of making grammatical mistakes in his speaking as he used to be, and he is now more active in conversation classes.

As the number of agree, disagree, and undecided answers to the second question were counted, the following results were obtained.

Table 2. Web 2.0 Influence on Language Study

Question codes		male	female	Total
Agree	1.00 count	23	102	125
		76.7%	81%	80.13%
Disagree	2.00 count	5	15	20
		16.7%	12%	12.82%
Undecided	3.00 count	2	9	11
		6.6%	7%	7.05%
Total	count	30	126	156
				100.0%

As Table 2 indicates, 7.05% of all students were uncertain about the positive influence of the Web on their language studies. On the other hand, 12.82% believed that the positive impact of the Web on their language studies was low, which means that they disagreed with using the Web for their language learning. However, 80.13% of the students strongly believed that the Web could help them improve in their language studies. Considering male's and female's answers to the second question, 76.6% of males answered positively, 16.7% answered negatively and 6.6% were uncertain in their response to the second question. From all female students, 81% answered positively, 12% answered negatively, and 7% gave uncertain answers to the second question. The following figure represents the distribution of responses to Question 2.

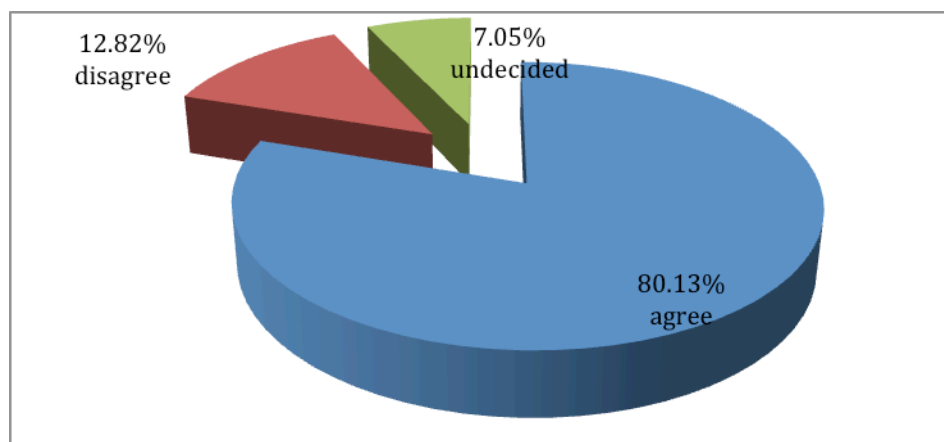


Figure 2: Influence of Web 2.0 tools on the Participants' Language Studies

As for the third question concerning the preference to have online instruction/assignment along with classroom attendance, the students provided responses similar to the following:

Coded as "agree":

"Working online was a fabulous experience; I wish it hadn't finished." (A female student)

"Yes, I like to be in touch with my language teacher out of the class, too." (A male student)

Coded as "disagree":

"I don't have access to the Internet, so I prefer in-class instruction." (A male student)

Coded as "undecided":

"When the net was dead, I went mad because I couldn't do my assignments." (A female student)

When students were asked about their willingness to use either online instruction or supplementary activities, they were mostly willing to do their activities online. Students say that when they find their friends online, they start having discussions, and this helps them improve their communication skills. Some students, however, disagreed with having online instruction or activities. They said because the speed for a dial-up connection is low, they have to spend a lot of time to do something which can easily be done in paper and pencil form.

Counting the number of agree, disagree and undecided answers to the third question, the researcher came up with the percentages. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Using the Web for Instruction/Assignments with Classroom Attendance

Question codes		male	female	Total
Agree	1.00 count	27	115	142
		90%	91.3%	91.02%
Disagree	2.00 count	2	5	7
		6.7%	4%	4.49%
Undecided	3.00 count	1	6	7
		3.3%	4.7%	4.49%
Total	count	30	126	156
				100.0%

As can be seen in Table 3, 4.49% of the students did not have any special ideas on having online instruction and/or assignments in their language studies. However, 91.02% were highly eager to have online instruction and/or assignments, whereas 4.49% did not prefer to have online instruction and/or assignments. From all males, 90% gave positive answers, 6.7% gave negative answers, and 3.3% gave uncertain answers to the third question. On the other hand, 91.3% of females gave positive answers, 4% of females gave negative answers and 4.7% of females gave uncertain answers to the third question. Figure 3 shows the distribution of answers in a pie graph.

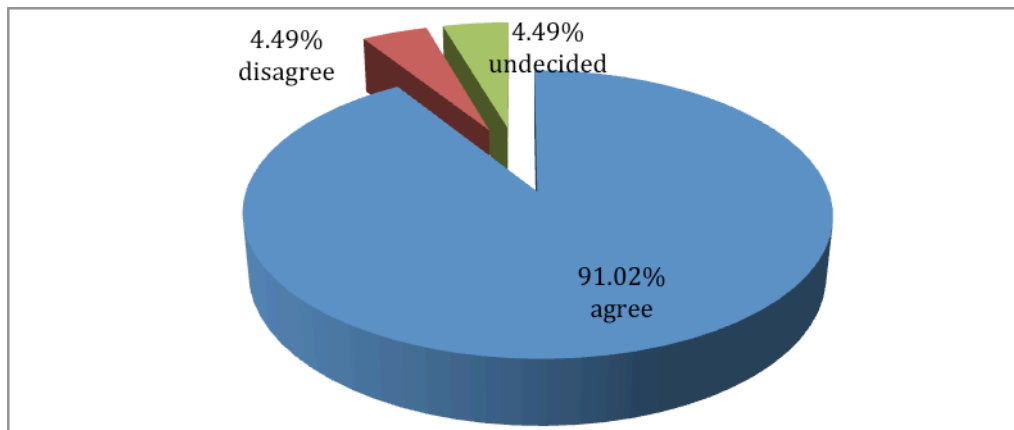


Figure 3: Online Instruction/Assignments along with Classroom Attendance

In the fourth question, the students were asked whether they had enough experience and confidence to use the Web for their future language learning. Students answered in the following way:

Coded as "agree":

"Yes, I know I can learn English even without attending any classes." (A male student)

"You [the teacher] did a great deal... I can work on my own now." (A female student)

Coded as "disagree":

"I think one semester is not enough."

"No, I am too dependent on teachers when it comes to my learning!"

Coded as "undecided":

"I am not sure."

"Perhaps I try it... I don't know."

The fourth question was most directly related to the research question. The students generally showed that they were satisfied with the trend and decisively talked about their future use of the Web to improve their language skills.

Students who gave a negative answer to this question described the Web as too broad to use for language learning. They said that they simply got lost whenever they were connected. It is like a big forest, they commented.

Students who had no idea of using the Web for their future learning said it depends on how much other courses require them to use the Web. Their preference to make use of the net was not merely for language learning, but it was determined by the requirements of the course. Of course, the number of these students was few. Most students wanted to learn the language for its own sake not as a major to study at the university. Table 4 shows the students' answers to the fourth question in both in frequencies and percentages.

Table 4: Using the Web for Future Language Learning

Question codes		male	female	Total
Agree	1.00 count	26	117	143
		86.7%	93%	91.67%
Disagree	2.00 count	1	4	5
		3.3%	3.1%	3.20%

Undecided	3.00 count	3	5	8
		10%	3.9%	5.13%
Total	count	30	126	156
				100.0%

According to percentages and frequencies presented in Table 4, 91.67% believed that taking part in this study and working with Web 2.0 tools, they gained enough experience and confidence to use the Web for their future language learning. As it can be implied from the table, the total number of students who gave a positive answer to the fourth question of the interview was one hundred and forty three out of a hundred and fifty six. 3.20% disagreed with the first group, stating that they are not confident and experienced enough to use the Web in their future language learning. Only 5.13% did not have any special ideas about this question. From all male students, 86.7% answered positively, 3.3% answered negatively, and 10% of males gave uncertain answers to the fourth question. 93%, 3.1%, and 3.9% of females gave positive, negative, and uncertain questions to the fourth question. Figure 4 depicts the frequencies related to the fourth questions.

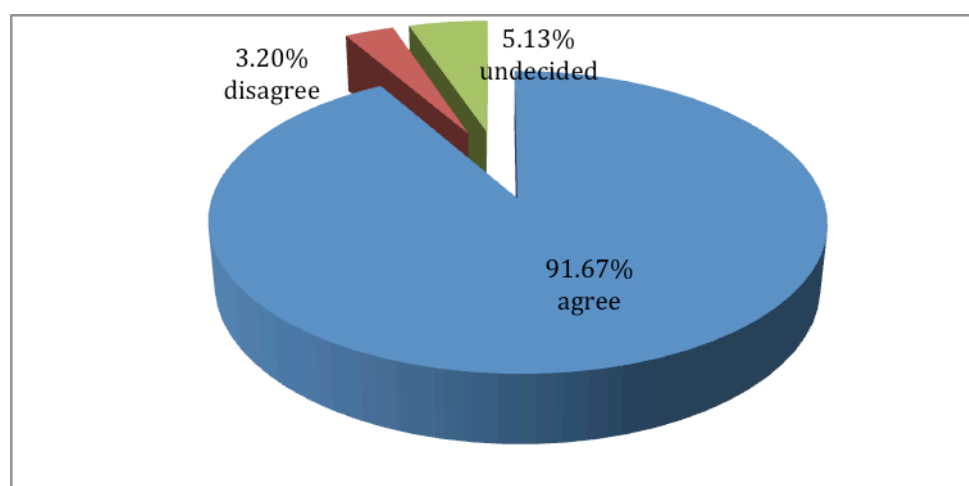


Figure 4: Experience and Confidence to Use the Web for Future Language Learning

Most students found the Web as a tool to enhance their language learning effective and useful. Their feedback was positive and included the following comments:

"Now, my insight about the net has changed."

"I can use it to improve my language skills."

"I learned how to be cooperative and competitive."

"I am more careful with my writing as I know others will also see my work."

All in all, the findings confirmed the students' interests in using the Web in general and Web 2.0 tools in particular for their studies. Though female students obtained higher percentages compared to males, they both showed being both confident and experienced to use Web 2.0 tools in their future language learning career. They indicated that they are now aware of the potential of Web tools and are intended to use them regularly after the program. Thus, back to the last research question, "Can Web2.0 technologies increase the Iranian EFL students' interest and confidence so that they will use them for their present and future language learning process without teachers' involvement?" one can claim that since it was positively answered by both male and female learners, the research null hypothesis is rejected.

The analysis of the students' answers to the related questions in the interview showed that their attitude toward using technology for language learning purposes was quite positive. Most of the students were satisfied with the program and truly appreciated the use of technology for their language learning. They commented in the following way:

"I am going to find some websites to learn English better."

"The experience gave me enough knowledge to work on my own now."

"I loved the course... I wish it had not finished. Can we take other online courses at the university?"

"I intend to use this way for improving my other language skills, too."

There were, of course, a few students who did not show much interest in the program, and that was mostly due to problems they had with the Internet connections. Overall, the students' encouraging remarks point to the conclusion that they are both confident and experienced to use the Internet for their future language studies. This supported the results of Sanders and Morrison's (2003) study as he cited the importance of student attitudes toward technology to be a significant determining factor in the educational benefits of online learning resources and experiences. Rivera, McAlister, and Rice (2002) also surveyed student satisfaction among the three modes of learning (face-to-face, fully online, and hybrid) and found that student satisfaction was the highest with the hybrid learning model in which technology was added to classroom instruction.

The findings of the present study also support Tan, Ow, and Tan (2006) who did a qualitative study on the learners' reactions and feedback toward the environment for learning Chinese language oral communication skills mediated by blogs. The focus group interview conducted to collect qualitative data after the implementation of the blogs in improving learners' oral skills showed that students were quite satisfied with the program and they called Web 2.0 tools especially blogs as platforms for their voices to be heard by other members.

To sum up, the results of this study are in line with similar qualitative studies done by Stracke (2004), El-Gayar and Dennis (2005), Tan, Ow, and Tan (2006) who all assessed learners' attitudes and feelings toward using technology in language classes and concluded that most learners are willing to integrate the use of technology in their language program.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of the present study was an investigation to the EFL students' reactions towards a hybrid learning language program. This study supported Lai, Yeh, and Ho's (2005) study in which students' satisfaction with having online instruction and activities along with classroom instruction was reported. The findings of the present study also supported Rivera, McAlister, and Rice (2002), Stracke (2004), El-Gayar and Dennis (2005), Tan, Ow, and Tan (2006) who indicated that learners have positive attitudes and feelings towards using technology in their language learning process. The present study showed that technology-assisted learners are positive toward the use of the Web and intend to use Web 2.0 tools in their future language studies as they are both confident and experienced to use them independently.

Based on the results of this study, language teachers can be assured of the positive role of technology in enhancing their students' language learning. They can design their course instruction in a way that students are encouraged and required to use the Internet for their better language learning. Having helped their students to be technology-wise and explain the advantages of using online sources for their language improvement, they will be assured of their students' engagement in the process and will enjoy to see how they follow their own learning autonomously. Students can even find better gates for their language learning through the net and improve their language skills.

Limitations of the Study & Suggestions for Further Research

1. The participants of this study were all sophomore students of English. It might be interesting to do the same research with students at different levels of their language studies.
2. Due to the limitations, the random selection of participants to be assigned in different groups was from all available sophomore EFL students at the Islamic Azad University, Shiraz and Abadeh Branch and the Zand Institute of Higher Education in Iran in one semester. Other studies can be done on students who are majoring in other fields of study and interested in learning English. A wider population can also be selected for easier generalizations.
3. As the number of male students in language classes in Iran is usually less than females, this study was conducted on an unequal number of males and females; this was so because the number of male and female EFL students is

usually unbalanced and females make a much larger population in language learning classes. Other studies can be done on equal number of male and female participants at different age ranges. The participants' age range in this study was from 21 to 26 years old. Other studies done on another group of participants with a different age range may show different results .

4. For a qualitative research, observation and diaries are also used for data collection. If researchers do an in depth exploration of learners' responses to a technology-assisted learning program, it will provide them a wider insight toward the issue.

5. Instead of a semi-structured interview conducted with a quite large number of participants, a 'focus group interview' could have been done to save time. Compared to other types of interview, this type uses collective experience of group brainstorming and is, thus, more economical .

6. The period of instruction took two and a half months. A new line of research can be done on an extended time lapse .

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**A CORPUS-BASED STUDY ON THE TRANSLATION OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES WITH
EMPHASIS ON ADDRESS TERMS**

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ABSTRACT

With the rapid development of intercultural communication research, the concept of politeness has received considerable attention. This study attempted to investigate politeness strategies in English and Persian with special emphasis on address terms. In this study, politeness strategies were studied from a new perspective, that was, translation. The study was based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) framework in which politeness strategies are delineated in full detail. Charles Dickens novel "Oliver Twist" was used as the text in which politeness strategies appeared. The researcher analyzed the dialogues based on positive and negative politeness strategies with emphasis on address terms. The results showed that there is a direct relation between using address terms and politeness strategies. The translation of different categories of address terms with different positive and negative politeness strategies by two different translators, Gharib and Shakibapoor, indicated that literal translation and deletion were the two translation procedures which were used mostly by two translators, respectively. Cultural equivalent and transcription were the two other translation procedures which were used by them. These translations were categorized according to Vinay and Darbelnet's and Newmark's translation procedures.

KEYWORDS: Politeness, Positive Strategy, Negative Strategy, Address Term, Translation procedure

INTRODUCTION

The study of communication across cultures is an area of investigation which is very important for language learners and teachers. It can also be helpful for translators to have an appropriate translation. In this regard, many studies within the field of pragmatics and sociolinguistics have tried to show the similarities and differences between the people of different speech communities. Yu (2003) states that "although the core ideas in the previous politeness theories are claimed as universal, it is not necessarily the case that the conception of politeness and the degree of politeness are the same among different cultures" (p. 5). With rapid development of intercultural communication research, the concept of politeness in cross-cultural communication has received considerable attention and there is now a new interest in studies on politeness. The present study attempts to investigate politeness strategies of the two languages and cultures (English and Persian) with special emphasis on address terms. In this study, politeness strategies were studied from a new perspective, that is, translation. The study is based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) framework in which politeness strategies are delineated in full detail. One crucial factor that makes Brown and Levinson's (1987) model a reliable source for analyzing politeness strategies is its universality. Another significant feature of this model is its emphasis on recognizing the target cultures based on the three social variables that provoke FTAs (Face- Threatening Acts) in any interaction: the social distance between participants, their relative power, and the ranking of imposition in any specific culture. Analyzing culture in this model is facilitated by focusing on the amount of positive and negative strategies and weighing them against one another in each culture to find out the similarities and differences between the two languages in terms of the use of politeness principles and strategies.

According to Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness (1987, p. 61), 'face' is the public self-image that every member of society wants to claim for himself and it consists of two related aspects; positive and negative. These two basic face needs are satisfied by politeness strategies. There are some positive strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson in order to avoid threatening positive face. There are also some strategies listed by them in order to avoid threatening negative face. It seems that there is a close relationship between the use of address terms and politeness strategies. The present study is significant in terms of providing evidence of the realization of positive and negative

politeness strategies in relation to address terms in both English and Persian contexts. The present study is significant from two perspectives: theoretical and practical. From theoretical point of view, it will investigate the universality of Brown and Levinson's theory. Secondly, it will be shown whether the same linguistic contexts in English and Persian speech cultures have the same or different levels of imposition. From the practical point of view, the finding of this study may reveal whether translators are successful in transferring different address terms usage in formal and informal situations with appropriate politeness strategies. The results are likely to contribute to the clarification of the effect of observing "politeness aspect" in the task of translation. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of politeness strategies on the use of address terms and to analyze the use of these strategies by two different translators of the English novel (*Oliver Twist*), Gharib and Shakibapoor. It also intends to throw lights on the applicability of Vinay and Darbelnet and Newmark's model on the translation of address terms. This study aims at investigating the translation of English address terms into Persian in order to (1) find out the relation of the use of different address terms categories with positive and negative politeness strategies. (2) Compare and contrast two cultures based on usage of these politeness strategies and (3) investigate translation strategies employed for using address terms in relation to politeness strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the theoretical aspects of the study including politeness theory as delineated by Brown & Levinson (1987), approaches to translation as well as address terms are introduced. Furthermore, a summary of research findings in this field is provided

Politeness Theory

The politeness theory was developed by Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson (1978/1987) which was based on the data from different languages (e.g., Tzeltal; Tamil). This theory was based on face and face needs. Goffman introduced the term face-work, which refers to a mechanism which is responsible for people's actions being consistent with face. People are expected to keep face of others during interaction. This face-keeping can be done in two kinds. On the one hand, there is a need for independence and not to be bothered by others; on the other hand, they feel the need to be respected and appreciated by others (Goffman, 1967, cited in Coppock, 2005). Based on Brown and Levinson's view, the term 'face', which has been defined as "public self-image", has two aspects: *negative face* and *positive face* (1987, p. 61). *Positive face* is defined as every person's wanted to have his/her public self-image appreciated, understood, liked, approved of and ratified by others. On the other hand, *negative face* is seen as every person's wanted to be free from imposition, to have his/her territory, and not to be impeded by others. While positive and negative politeness does exist in every person and every society, different speech communities may emphasize on one of these aspects of face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). They also introduced the concept of *face-threatening act* (FTA), which is the result of the violation of every person's positive or negative face. The speaker chooses appropriate politeness strategies based on the weight of the FTA. The speaker should first decide whether he/she should do FTA or not. If the threat of the act is too much, the speaker may *avoid* the FTA.

Research Findings on Politeness Strategies

In order to establish the ways in which patterns of politeness differ from one language to another, we need to establish how different intra-cultural sources of variability (situational and individual) account for actual use in each language. There are a great number of empirical studies done on various aspects of politeness strategies in varieties of languages in the world. Some of these studies will be reviewed since they are considered relevant to this study. There are many studies whose findings support Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. They confirm that "Politeness strategies are universal and speakers of each language, in general, and of each variety of English, in particular, make use of similar strategies to express a wide range of attitudinal functions, among which politeness" (Ouafeu, 2006, p. 536).

The realization of politeness principles in Persian was investigated by Akbari (2002). This study extracted and categorized the range of politeness strategies (positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record politeness) used by Persian mono-lingual speakers in certain situations and compared and contrasted them with those employed in English, based on the model proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). It focused on identifying cultural differences. Ning (2003) studied the difference of English and Chinese norms of politeness and translation. The study elaborates on the content of politeness from the perspective of western pragmatics and social science as well as the connotation of politeness in traditional Chinese culture.

In another study by Alizadeh, (2008), differences between Iranian male and females in the use of politeness strategies was investigated. However, the question of the differences between male and female speakers has been explored by many researchers without arriving at any general agreement.

The effect of positive politeness strategies in business letters has been investigated by Jansen and Janssen (2010). According to this study, Brown and Levinson's (1987) typology of politeness strategies, derived from the basic wants of a model person, leaves the question unanswered as to what extent these strategies are perceived and evaluated as contributions to the quality of communication. In this paper, the researchers discuss the effects of adding and combining positive politeness strategies to letters denying claims to policy holders.

Pishghadam and Navari (2012) studied the universality of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. They assert that one crucial factor that makes Brown and Levinson's (1987) model as a reliable source for analyzing politeness strategies may be its universality and the fact that almost all of our daily interactions are under their impact. Another significant point of this model is its emphasis on recognizing the target cultures based on the three social variables that provoke FTAs in any interaction: the social distance between participants, their relative power, and the ranking of imposition in any specific culture. Analyzing culture in this model is facilitated by focusing on the amount of positive and negative strategies and weighing against one another in each culture to find out in which one solidarity or imposition rule more.

The effect of politeness-related instruction on medial tutoring was studied by Bromme, et al. (2012). They assert that tutors often fail to address learners' misconceptions. Although this may indicate a failure to grasp these misconceptions, it may simply be due to a wish to be polite and save the learners' face. In this study, the researchers examined whether instructing tutors about the pitfalls of politeness could increase the clarity and precision of their tutorial communication.

The comparison of the application of politeness strategies in different languages was studied by Aliakbari and Changizi (2012). This study investigated the use of refusal by Persian and Kurdish speakers as well as the frequency and shift of semantic formulas with regard to types of eliciting acts and status of the interlocutors.

Another study based on politeness theory was conducted by Elmianvari and Kheirabadi (2013). This study was carried out to see if the politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) was applicable to data elicited from EFL students attending a language institute in Iran. Students were asked to e-mail their teacher as a class activity and make a request in an appropriate and polite form. Different viewpoints regarding the status of request politeness perspective and also student-teacher relation in language classrooms in Iran were discussed.

Another study by Dickel Dun (2011) addresses the application of politeness theory in Japanese business etiquette training. This article analyzes the concepts of politeness that are manifest in Japanese business etiquette training in relation to the politeness theories of Brown and Levinson (1987) and Ide (1989, 2006). According to this study, honorifics, in the sense of grammatically encoded expressions of deference, have long been central to the conceptualization of politeness in Japanese. The data illustrated the need for greater attention to the interaction of these two forms of politeness, in speech practice as well as perspective discourses. It was concluded that positive politeness strategies differ dramatically in effectiveness.

The relation between gender and politeness strategies has been studied by Agis (2012). She observed the use of the politeness strategies suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987) in the popular Turkish series "Avrupa Yakasi" (European side). The aim of this study was to analyze the negative politeness, positive politeness, bald on-record, and bald-off record strategies of Brown and Levinson (1987) employed in the Turkish series. She concludes that women and men employ different politeness strategies in the same places and circumstances, talking to the same people.

The application of politeness theory in different aspects of different languages is inevitable. One of these important aspects is translation. A cross-cultural study of politeness strategies applied in translations of English requests as face-threatening acts into Persian was carried out by Yaqubi and Afghari (2011). The purpose of this study was to investigate the problems associated with translation of requests made by sub-strategies of negative and off-record politeness and to analyze the students' translations in order to find the most frequently used politeness sub-strategies and to know how to unmask and reveal implicit and hidden meanings behind requests. It also sheds light on the

applicability of Newmark's strategies on the translation of FTAs and by doing so, it will help the researcher to find the most frequent translation strategy for transferring the intended meaning of FTAs especially indirect requests.

Address Terms and Politeness Theory

Positive face requires that the individual's positive self-image be respected in every interaction with others. In order to achieve this, Brown and Levinson claim that conversational participants often work to minimize the social distance between them. According to Eelen, (2001, p. 38), "one of the most common positive politeness, in-group identity markers such as nicknames, falls under the banner of terms of address, which are traditionally one of the central topics in politeness research" (cited in O'keefe, et al. 2011, p. 67).

Address Terms and Translation Process

Translation, as Catford (1965) defines it, is "an act of transference, in which a text from the source language is replaced by its equivalent in the target language" (p. 20). Newmark's (1988b, p. 5) more modern version of the term is "often, though not by any means always, rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text." One of the problematic areas of translation is finding natural and proper equivalents for address terms in translation between English and Persian. However, because of crucial role of address terms in communication and social relationships between the members of a unique society and also between different societies, it is necessary for them to be studied in all languages and cultures. As culture is a determining factor for choosing address terms according to sociocultural relationship of speech community, translation as a communicative process, should reflect these variations of culture. In this study, the translation of address terms from English into Persian has been investigated. In order to analyze the strategies and procedures used, models present in descriptive translation studies are used as the theoretical framework of the study. One of such models is proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet who identified different translation 'procedures', (Munday, 2008, p. 56-58).

Vinay and Darbelnet's Model

According to Munday (2008), "since the 1950's, there has been a variety of linguistic approaches to the analysis of translation that have proposed detailed lists or taxonomies in an effort to categorize the translation process" (p. 56). One of such models is proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet who carried out a comparative stylistic analysis of French and English.

Each of these procedures is defined below:

Borrowing: It happens when the source language word is transferred directly to the target language.

Calque: It is "a special kind of borrowing" where the source language expression or structure is transferred literally.

Literal translation: It is "word-for-word" translation and is common between languages of the same family and culture.

Transposition: It happens when one part of speech changes for another without changing the sense.

Modulation: It changes the point of view and semantics of the source language.

Equivalence: This is used when "languages describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means" especially in translating proverbs and idioms.

Adaptation: Where a situation in the source culture does not exist in the target culture, adaptation happens by changing the cultural reference (Munday, 2008, pp.56-58).

Newmark's Communicative and Semantic Translation

Newmark believes that the concepts of communicative and semantic translation are representative of his main contribution to general translation theory and he tries to return to them to modify and clarify both concepts (1988a, p. 62). He asserts that semantic translation is a faithful, literal translation with bias to source language while communicative translation is an idiomatic, free translation with bias to target language (ibid. p. 39). There are some translation procedures proposed by Newmark. Some of these procedures which were used in this study are among the mentioned procedures below:

Transcription (adoption, transfer, 'loan-words')

Literal translation: A 'coincidental' procedure when the SL term is transparent and semantically motivated and is in standardized language.

Through-translation ('loan-translation', calque)

Cultural equivalent: The SL word is replaced with the TL cultural word.

Translation label: An approximate equivalent or a new term, usually a collocation, for a feature peculiar to the SL.

Translation couplets: The transcription of an institutional term followed by its translation in brackets.

Translation triplets: A politically colored term may require a literal translation, a transcription, and the denotation.

Deletion: A term of little importance in the TL culture may be deleted in translation, provided it is marginal to the text, and some indication of function given where required.

Naturalization: The process of 'anglicizing' foreign names by supplying them with English suffixes (Newmark, 1988a, pp.75-77).

Address Terms Subdivisions

The relation between politeness strategies and use of address terms has been shown by many categories. According to Eelen (2001), address terms can generally be subdivided into seven semantic categories (cited in O'Keefe,etal. 2011, p. 67)

In this categorization, address terms falls under seven parts. **Endearments** (*honey, baby, love*), **family terms** (*Mammy, daddy, Son*), **family names familiarized** (*mate, man, folks*), **first names familiarized** (*Brad, Jen*), **full first names** (*Bradley, Jennifer*), **title and surname** (*Mr Holmes, Dr Watson, Professor Moriarty*), and **honorifics** (*sir, ma'm, your honour*). These address terms are categorized according to their level of formality. He believes that as the address terms changes from informal to formal, the politeness strategies also changes from positive to negative. (ibid, pp. 67-68). Address terms in Persian have been studied too. In one study conducted by Aliakbari and Toni (2008), ten categories for address terms were proposed. They include: personal names, titles, religious-oriented terms, occupation-bound terms, kinship or family/relative terms, honorifics and terms of formality, terms of intimacy, personal pronouns, descriptive phrases, and zero address terms.

History of Research on Address Terms

Terms of address are "words and phrases used for addressing" (Braun, 1988, p. 7). They show the kind of relations that exist between the addresser and the addressee. These are culture- specific elements which are worth studying cross-culturally. As Daher (1984, p. 144) mentions, "terms of address are the best example of the interaction between language and society and the more we understand them, the more we understand language". According to Esmae'li (2011, p. 183), "terms of address are words or expressions used to indicate certain relations between people, or to show the difference in identity, position and social status. As a result, address terms as well as other language practices can mirror the thoughts and attitudes that speakers wish or wish not to express".

Different languages use different systems of terms of address; therefore, the translation of these items has caused difficulties for translators. The translator should be aware of such differences between the two languages involved in order to show the kind of relationship exist between interlocutors as precisely as possible.

The study of address terms can be investigated from different points of view. According to Brown and Yule (1989):

Address terms have long been of interest to sociolinguists, anthropologists, and social psychologists, since they reflect the social relationships between members of a specific speech community. Moreover, address terms are not static but vary according to the social context occasion and situation of communication (cited in, Khani and Yousefi, 2010, p. 2).

In the past decades, address terms have been investigated from sociolinguistic point of view in different languages. Translation of address terms has been examined by many researchers. In one study, Shehab (2005) investigated the problems that exist in the translation of terms of address between Arabic and English. In order to do so, she studied difficult honorifics in a novel. Her study showed that relational terms of address are more difficult to translate than absolute ones. Methven (2006) studied the difficulties in translating kinship address terms and honorific pronouns in Chinese and English. He reported that since there are large lexical gaps in translating Chinese family terms of address and honorifics into English, the only way for their translation is through the pragmatic translation of address terms into its simple deictic equivalent. (p. 3)

Ngo (2006) conducted a study of the strategies adapted in translation of Vietnamese terms of address and reference into English in four short stories. He investigated the degree to which these strategies are effective in conveying the rich nuances of the terms. The application of politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987) can be seen in a study

by Yuka (2009). In this study, positive politeness strategies in oral communication I textbooks with focus on terms of address was investigated. It was asserted by the researcher that "the politeness theory by Brown and Levisohn is widely accepted and utilized as the basis for research by the researchers in the field of not only sociolinguistics but of psychology, business, and so on"(p. 59).

In a study by Salifu (2010), it has been suggested that the linguistic forms used by speaker to address or refer to each other also send different social and cultural meanings such as the type of relationships between speaker and addressee, or the attitude of speaker towards addressee.

There are also some studies related to the translation of address terms between English and Persian. In one study conducted by Aliakbari and Toni (2008), ten categories for address terms were proposed. They include "personal names, titles, religious-oriented terms, occupation-bound terms, kinship or family/relative terms, honorifics and terms of formality, terms of intimacy, personal pronouns, descriptive phrases, and zero address terms". They suggested that "the abundance and frequency of the application of honorifics in Persian language reveal the importance of courtesy in this language". They also illustrated that family relations are strong in Persian and this is important in using kinship terms for nonrelatives.

Afzali (2011) investigated different terms of address spouse's use in different social strata in Iran. Her findings showed that power and solidarity play an important role in the way spouses address each other in upper-middle, middle and lower-middle classes in Iran.

Finally, in a study by Lotfollahi and Dabbaghi (2012, p.332), the translation of terms of address from English into Persian was investigated. The translation strategies and procedures used by translators in the translation of address terms from English into Persian was the main focus of this study. The comparison of terms of address in three short stories, with their translations showed that there is a difference between the system of terms of address in English and Persian. In order to fill this gap, translators have used different strategies.

Cross-Cultural Studies

Since the introduction of politeness theory by Brown & Levinson (1978/1987), a lot of studies have been conducted by different researchers. A great number of these studies are cross-cultural in which the researchers have tried to find useful data to support or reject Brown & Levinson's claim about the universality of their theory

As mentioned before, most of the studies on politeness have compared politeness strategies in two or more cultures. For example, Xiang (2007) carried out a study to identify the similarities and differences of apology strategies produced by the native British speakers, Chinese graduate students and ESL learners. Similarly, the study by Ahangar (2004) shows that "there are cross-cultural similarities and differences in using negative politeness strategies in different languages and cultures" (p. 1). In a comprehensive study, Akbari (2002) collected a list of Persian examples and compared them with some English examples based upon Brown & Levinson's model. The results of this study show that there are a number of parallels between the two languages in the expression of politeness concerning Brown and Levinson's theory. Nevertheless, she points out that "the application and linguistic realization of politeness principles differ systematically across cultures and within cultures, categories and groups" (p. 14). Ahangar (2004) investigated negative politeness strategies employed by Persian speakers in some situations such as apology, request, and invitations. The finding of this study showed that Iranian people use hierarchy of politeness strategies to deal with various social interactions. Different social variables and contexts were considered as the most influential factors in selecting politeness strategies. Ahangar and Akbari (2007) found that Persian native speakers like English native speakers used negative politeness strategies more than other strategies.

Considering politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987), the aim of this study is to find the relation between politeness strategies with regard to kind of address terms which are used with proper positive and negative strategies. Then, the different translation strategies proposed by Newmark (1988a) and Vinay and Darbelnet (cited in Munday, 2008), which are used by two translators will be discussed. The corpus of this study is Charles Dickens's novel, 'Oliver Twist' and its two translations by Gharib and Shakibapoor.

METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

This study is a mixed method research, using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The data were collected from an English novel, “Oliver Twist” and two Persian translations of the novel. Comparisons between address terms in the source and the two target texts were made to find the differences between English and Persian. For finding the answer to the first and second research question, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. However, the research project was mainly qualitative since the data gained are the dialogues of the different characters within the novel that take the form of words and sentences rather than numbers. However, for obtaining more accurate and reliable results, the quantitative aspects were also taken into account to give a rather thorough analysis of the data.

The corpus of the study

Literary works, especially novels, are good and reliable sources to use for pragmatic and discourse studies of translation and politeness theory. Biber and Finegau (1992) clearly mentioned that “written materials of speech-based genres” could provide good data for the analysis of pragmatic issues such as politeness and speech acts (cited in Xueyu, 2005, p.15). This is because novels yield rich data required for these studies specifically in the form of dialogues and lengthy discourse units. Hence, *Oliver Twist*, a literary masterpiece by Charles Dickens, was selected as the corpus of the study. Two translations of this novel, one by Yousef Gharib and the other by Enayatollah Shakibapoor were selected for analysis for this study. The dialogues were selected with regard to different positive and negative politeness strategies suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987). Politeness strategies can be encountered in any context of conversation. The present study uses dialogues of these texts in which the politeness strategies occur. Charles Dickens novel, particularly “*Oliver Twist*” is an interesting text to be analyzed in the sense that there are different characters with various social classes who engage in complicated social relationships. The dialogues between these different characters contain many address terms which can be used as the data for this research. Thus, 194 dialogues were selected that include positive and negative politeness strategies. 421 address terms were selected from the early part of the novel (chapter 1-13) to be compared with their corresponding parts in Persian translations. The address terms used in these different dialogues were investigated. Different terms of address were selected from these dialogues. They were categorized into ten parts according to Khani and Yousefi (2010) and Aliakbari and Toni (2008). Moreover, the categories proposed by O’keefe et al. (2011) were also employed in this study. These categories were referred to in review of the literature above. For examples “endearments” were used by O’keefe et al. and “terms of intimacy” were used by Aliakbari and Toni. These two terms were used in one category. “Occupation-bound terms” and “personal pronouns” and “descriptive phrases” were used in Aliakbari and Toni categorization. In this study, the merged categorization of these two models was taken into account which covered the analysis of the obtained data in a useful and beneficial term.

Instrumentation

This study used an English novel and its two Persian translations. Textual analysis of English novel and comparative analysis of coupled pairs of address terms were made. English address terms were compared with their corresponding Persian translators to find the strategies used in translating them.

The concept of politeness in pragmatics has been mainly defined by Brown and Levinson (1987, 1987). This model was used as the main theory in this study. In this study, 13 chapters of “*Oliver Twist*” were covered. 15 subcategories of positive politeness and 10 subcategories of negative politeness were considered as the framework for finding the samples within the corpus. These sample sentences were chosen among those samples which contained different categories of address terms. For categorization of address terms, the categories proposed by O’keefe et al. (2011) and Aliakbari and Toni (2008) were used as the framework. These different address terms were analyzed in term of their translation procedures used by two translators (Gharib & Shakibapoor). The framework for translation procedures was obtained from Vinay and Darbelnet and Newmark’s proposed translation procedures. These models were described above. Furthermore, after selecting the appropriate samples, to make sure that the selected parts are exact positive and negative politeness strategies, they were given to two linguists and also one of the researcher’s colleagues to read and confirm the selection of the samples. For analyzing the obtained data, the popular quantitative data analysis software, SPSS version 16 (Software Package for Statistics and Simulation) was used to handle the data statistically.

Procedure

The selected dialogues from the beginning part (chapters 1-13) of the novel, 'Oliver Twist' were categorized according to positive and negative politeness strategies. These different politeness strategies were chosen with different address terms that were categorized in ten part based on Aliakbari and Toni (2008) and O'Keefe et al. (2011) categorizations. Full first names, title terms, family terms, terms of intimacy, familiarizers, occupation-bound terms, honorifics, personal pronouns, personal pronouns and descriptive phrases, and descriptive phrases are different categories of address terms which were used in this study. In order to compare and contrast the politeness strategies found in the study, some sentences with different categories of address terms along with different positive and negative politeness strategies were selected from the Charles Dickens's novel, "Oliver twist" and its two Persian translations by Gharib and Shakibapoor. For analysis, the samples of the study were subjected to the SPSS software version 16. For comparing address terms with their translations, Newmark, and Vinay and Darbelnet translation procedures were considered as the framework. Furthermore, to make sure that the selected part is certainly address terms, this study used Khani and Yousefi (2010) and Aliakbari and Toni (2008)'s categorization of address terms categories. In data collection, the researcher at first divided the novel into its plots. Three plots can be find in a novel, the beginning, the middle, and the end. To begin with, the text was carefully read in order to identify the part of the novel which represents the whole character of the novel. Detecting the main idea of the novel helped the researcher to find the part of the novel that represents it. The next step accomplished was recording the dialogues on notes including the address terms used with proper positive and negative politeness strategies according to Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

For analyzing the data of this study both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. In data analysis, the dialogues were categorized on the basis of different politeness strategies. This was done in order to make the data more effectively and systematically analyzed. Next, the researcher identified the politeness strategies used in the dialogues of the characters based on the theory of politeness strategies. The address terms used in these dialogues were also considered as a main factor. Finally, the politeness strategies found in the novel were categorized into the types of different politeness strategies with proper address terms. These different positive and negative politeness strategies categorized and codified according to Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness. The following table showed the sample of the procedures of the present study used by two translators.

Table 1: Samples of different address terms with two translations and translation procedures used by two translators

Source Language	Translator1 (Gharib)	Translator2 (shakibapoor)	Politeness Strategy	Translation procedure1 (Gharib)	Translation Procedure2 (shakibapoor)
Full First Names: Oliver	□□□□□□	اولیور	P2	Transcription	Transcription
Title Terms: Mr. Bumble	آقای بمبل	آقای بامبل	N1	Literal Translation	Literal Translation
Family Terms: The child	بچه	بچه	P10	Literal Translation	Literal Translation
Terms of Intimacy: My love	عمر من		P10	Cultural Equivalent	Deletion
Familiarizers: My good man	آقای عزیز		P2	Cultural Equivalent	Deletion
Occupation- Bound Terms: Officer	□□□□□□	جناب وکیل باشی	P5	Cultural Equivalent	Cultural Equivalent

Honorifics: Sir	آقا	آقا	N6	Literal Translation	Literal Translation
Personal Pronouns:you	شما	شما	N6	Literal Translation	Literal Translation
Personal Pronouns and Descriptive Phrases: You Queer Soul	تافلا	بامزه	P4	Cultural Equivalent	Cultural Equivalent

P= Positive N= Negative

Research Question One

The first research question which was posed in this study was the following:

1. Is there any significant relation between the use of address terms in “Oliver Twist” and politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson?

This section tries to find the answer to the question posed above on the basis of the data. To test the first null hypothesis, there is no relation between using address terms and politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). A Chi- Square test was used to analyze the data obtained from the Table below:

Table 2: Frequency of different categories of Address Terms and positive and negative Politeness Strategies

Address Terms	Positive Politeness Strategy	Negative Politeness Strategy	Total
Full first names (personal names)	26	9	35
Title terms (title and surnames)	25	12	37
Family terms (kinship or family/ relative terms)	18	16	34
Terms of intimacy/ endearments	27	3	30
Familiarizers	9	5	14
Occupation-bound terms	5	11	16
Honorifics or terms formality	26	32	58
Personal pronouns	98	39	137
Personal pronouns and descriptive phrases	32	28	60
Total	266	155	421

As indicated in Table 3, the Pearson Chi-Square value of 34.998 exceeds the value of $\chi^2=15.51$, which leads to the rejection of the first null hypothesis. This result shows that there is a significant relation between the uses of different categories of address terms with respect to politeness strategies ($p<0.05$).

Table.3: The Chi-square Test

	Value	df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	34.998(a)	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	36.836	8	.000
N of Valid Cases	421		

As it can be easily seen in the table 2, all the positive politeness strategies, with the exception of number 8, joking, were employed by the characters of the novel and in the dialogues which were communicated by the persons in the novel or used by the novelist for describing the characters and their situations. This fact draws our attention to the significance of these politeness strategies in the communication between members of the society as well as their importance for linguistic analysis of texts.

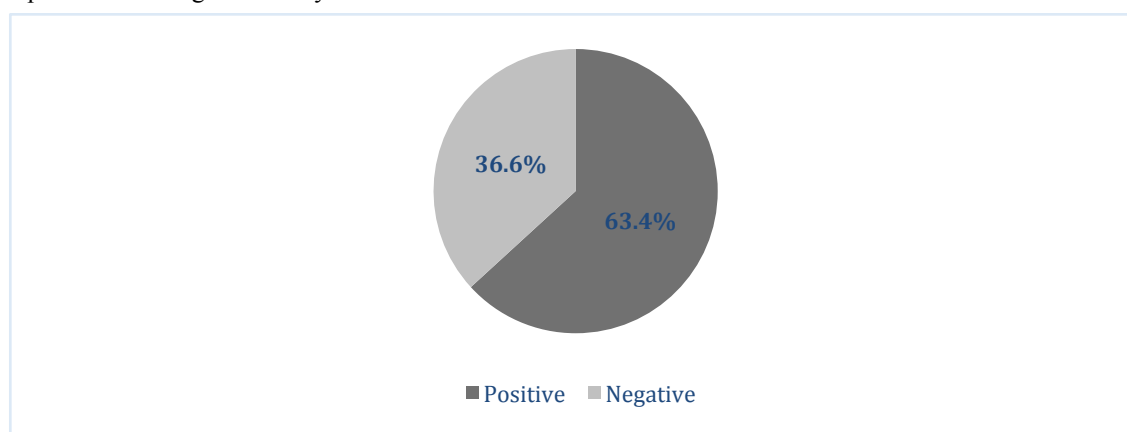


Figure 1: The Percentage of Positive and Negative Politeness Strategies in "Oliver Twist"

According to the figure above, the characters used positive strategies more than negative strategies in their communication. It is culture-bound. Research in sociolinguistics shows that different cultures use politeness principles differently, some societies emphasize more on positive politeness and some on negative politeness.

Table 4: The Frequency and Percentage of the use of Positive and Negative Politeness Strategies in each Category of Address Terms in "Oliver Twist"

Address Terms	Positive Politeness Strategy	Negative Politeness Strategy	Total
Full first names (personal names)	26 (74.3%)	9 (25.7%)	35 (100%)
Title terms (title and surnames)	25 (67.6%)	12 (32.4%)	37 (100%)
Family terms (kinship or family/ relative terms)	18 (52.9%)	16 (47.1%)	34 (100%)
Terms of intimacy/ endearments	27 (90 %)	3 (10%)	30 (100%)
Familiarizers	9 (64.3%)	5 (35.7%)	14 (100%)
Occupation-bound terms	5 (31.2%)	11 (68.8%)	16 (100%)
Honorifics or terms formality	26 (44.8%)	32 (55.2%)	58 (100%)

Personal pronouns	98 (71.5%)	39 (28.5%)	137 (100%)
Personal pronouns and descriptive phrases	32 (53.3%)	28 (46.7%)	60 (100%)
Total	266	155	421

*The percentage indicated above shows the use of positive and negative Politeness Strategies in each category of Address Terms in “Oliver Twist”

The results of table 4, shows that terms of intimacy (90 %), full first names (74.3%), and personal pronouns (71.5%) have the most occurrences in positive politeness strategies and occupation-bound terms (68.8%) and honorifics or terms formality (55.2%) and family terms (47.1%) have the most occurrences in negative politeness strategies in “Oliver Twist”.

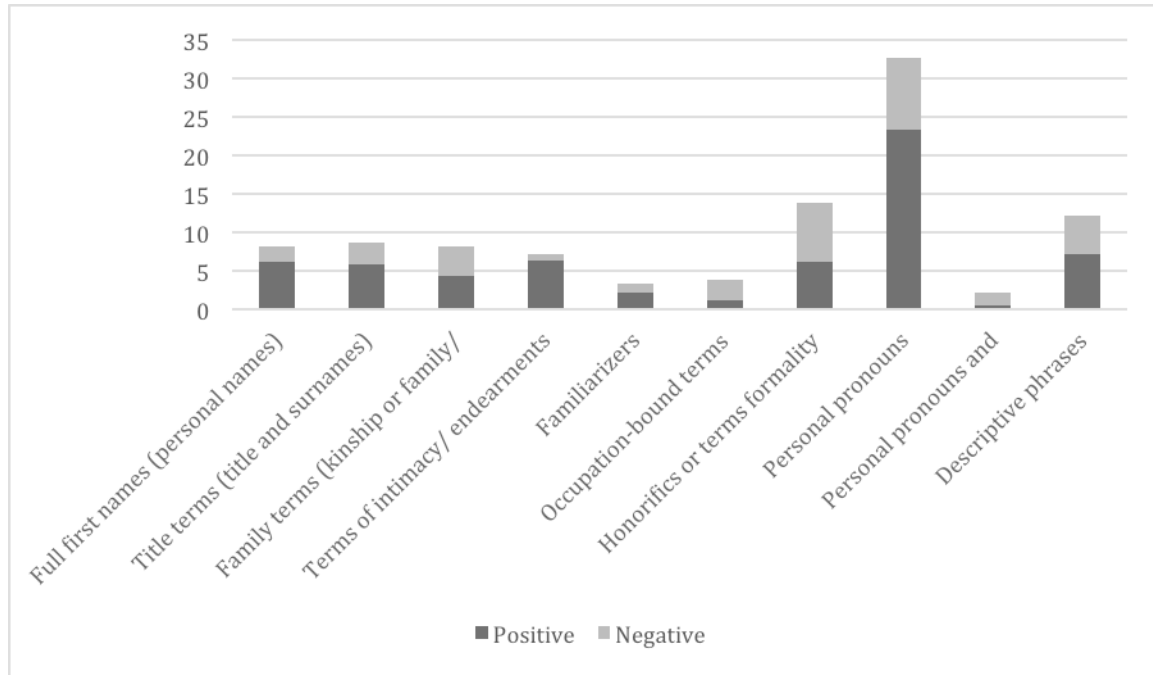


Figure 2: The Percentage (% of Total) of Address Terms used with Different Politeness Strategies in “Oliver Twist”

In figure 2, personal pronouns show the highest category of address terms used. They are mostly used with positive politeness strategies. Honorifics and terms formality function as the second category which are mostly used with negative politeness strategies.

Research Question Two

As mentioned before, the second research question was, ‘Is there any significant difference in the use of translation strategies by different translators in translating address terms in relation to politeness strategies? The findings of the study are used to see if there is any difference between translators in terms of translating address terms with regard to politeness principles.

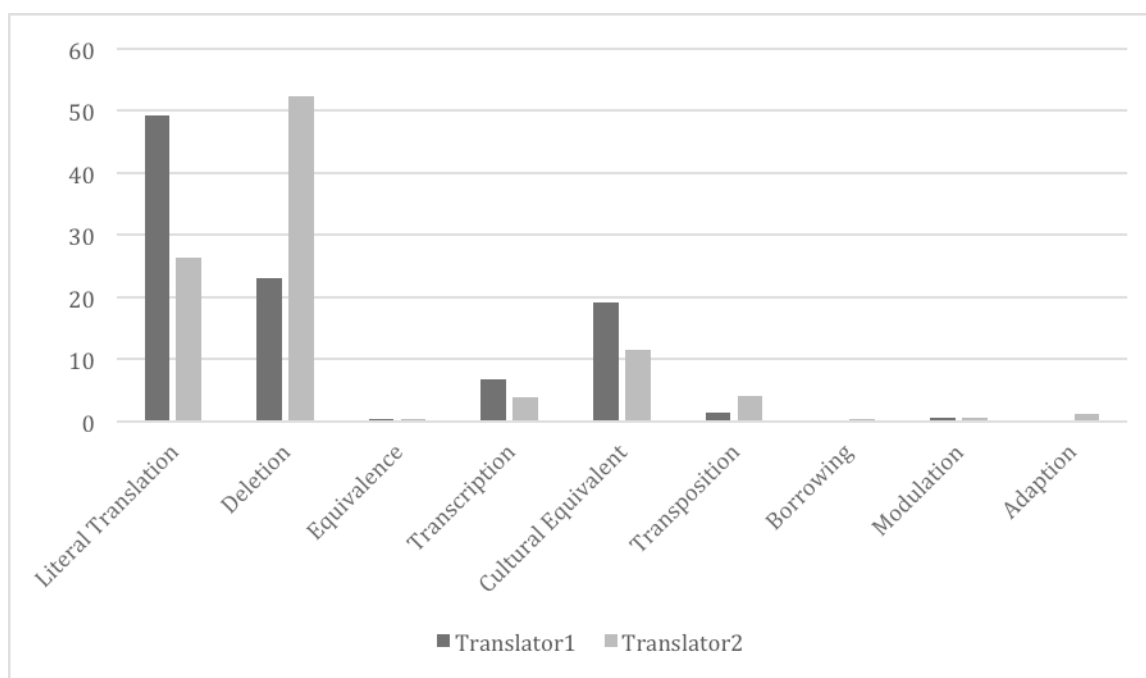


Figure 3: The Percentage of Translation Procedures used by two Translators in “Oliver Twist”
Translator 1= Gharib, Translator 2= Shakibapoor

In figure 3, literal translation, deletion, cultural equivalent, and transposition are the translation procedures used by two translators. Meanwhile, translator 1 (Gharib) mostly used literal translation while deletion was used mostly by translator 2 (Shakibapoor).

In the following section, the relation between translation procedures used by each translator and positive and negative politeness strategies are shown.

Table 5: Frequency of different Translation Procedures used by Translator1 (Gharib) and positive and negative Politeness Strategies

Translation Procedure	Positive Politeness Strategy	Negative Politeness Strategy	Total
Literal translation	120	72	192
Deletion	70	26	96
Transcription	17	8	25
Cultural equivalent	35	41	76
Total	242	147	389

As indicated in table 6:, the Pearson Chi-Square value=13.484 is more than the value of $\chi^2=7.81$ which leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis. This result shows that there is a significant difference between different translation procedures used by Translator1 (Gharib) and positive and negative Politeness Strategies ($p<0.05$)

Table 6: The Chi-square Test

	Value	df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.484(a)	3	.004
Likelihood Ratio	13.419	3	.004
N of Valid Cases	389		

Table 7: Frequency of different Translation Procedures used by Translator 2 (Shakibapoor) and positive and negative Politeness Strategies

Translation Procedure	Positive Politeness Strategy	Negative Politeness Strategy	Total
Literal translation	68	42	110
Deletion	139	77	216
Transcription	10	6	16
Cultural equivalent	25	22	47
Total	242	147	389

As indicated in table 8, the Pearson Chi-Square value=2.055, is less than the value of $\chi^2=7.81$, which leads to the retaining of the null hypothesis. This result shows that there is no significant difference between different Translation Procedures used by Translator2 (Shakibapoor) and positive and negative Politeness Strategies ($p>0.05$)

Table 8: The Chi-square Test

	Value	df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.055(a)	3	.561
Likelihood Ratio	2.019	3	.569
N of Valid Cases	389		

To test the second null hypothesis, a Chi- Square was run to the data obtained from the Table below:

Table 9: The frequency and percentage of same and different Translation Strategies used by two translators in respect to different Politeness Strategies

Politeness Strategy	Translation Strategy (used by two different translators)		Total
	Same	Different	
P1	12 (80%)	3 (20%)	15 (100%)
P2	13 (62%)	9 (38%)	22 (100%)
P3	21 (58%)	15 (42%)	36 (100%)
P4	13 (50%)	13 (50%)	26 (100%)
P5	12 (63%)	7 (37%)	19 (100%)
P6	10 (67%)	5 (33%)	15 (100%)
P7	7 (50%)	7 (50%)	14 (100%)
P8	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (100%)
P9	8 (53%)	7 (47%)	15 (100%)
P10	10 (43%)	13 (57%)	23 (100%)
P11	11 (44%)	14 (56%)	25 (100%)
P12	9 (45%)	11 (55%)	20 (100%)
P13	14 (82%)	3 (18%)	17 (100%)
P14	2 (29%)	5 (71%)	7 (100%)
P15	6 (50%)	6 (50%)	12 (100%)
N1	8 (80%)	2 (20%)	10 (100%)
N2	7 (35%)	13 (65%)	20 (100%)
N3	4 (31%)	9 (69%)	13 (100%)

N4	11 (65%)	6 (35%)	17 (100%)
N5	8 (50%)	8 (50%)	16 (100%)
N6	14 (70%)	6 (30%)	20 (100%)
N7	14(74%)	5 (26%)	19 (100%)
N8	8(42%)	11 (58%)	19 (100%)
N9	4 (33%)	8 (67%)	12 (100%)
N10	4 (44%)	5 (56%)	9 (100%)
Total	230 (55%)	191 (45%)	421

*The percentage indicated above shows the similarity and difference of translation procedures used by two translators in each subdivisions of politeness strategies

As it can be seen in table 9, the highest degree of similarity of the use of translation procedures by two translators is in positive strategy 13, (82%) and the highest degree of difference of the use of translation procedures by two translators is in negative strategy 3, (69%).

As indicated in table 10, the Pearson Chi-Square value=35.4, is more than the value of $\chi^2=35.1$, which leads to the rejection of the null hypothesis. This result shows that there is a very low significant difference between the different translation procedures used by two translators with respect to subdivisions of politeness strategies ($p=0.048$, $p<0.05$)

Table 10: The Chi-square Test

	Value	df	Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	35.367(a)	23	.048
Likelihood Ratio	36.836	23	.034
N of Valid Cases	421		

CONCLUSION

According to the findings of the study, it can be concluded that (1) Positive politeness strategies, along with proper address terms, are used in the context in which the speaker tries to minimize the distance between his/her interest in the hearer's need to be respected in order to get closer to hearer. (2) Negative politeness strategies are used in some situations in which speaker's main focus is that he/she may impose and intrude on hearer's face. It can be said that speaker attempts to minimize the imposition on the hearer's negative face.

It can be concluded that there is a direct relationship between the forms of address terms and politeness strategy. As the categories of address terms move from the more informal such as terms of intimacy or endearments to the more formal such as honorifics, the politeness strategy changes from positive to negative politeness. Positive politeness strategies are dominantly used in comparison with negative politeness strategies. (See Table 4)

The comparison of terms of address in "Oliver Twist", with their translations shows that there is no significant difference between the strategies which are used by two different translators. But it can be mentioned that there is a difference between the system of terms of address in English and Persian. To fill this gap, different translators have used four strategies like transcription, deletion, literal translation and cultural equivalent. The most common translation strategy which was used by the two translators of the study was literal translation.

Suggestions for Further Research

Since the focus of this study was on the usage of politeness strategies with address terms used in Charles Dickens novel "Oliver Twist", this study contributed to the improvement of understanding studies especially on politeness strategies related to literary works with direct contribution to the linguistics. Other studies in this field can be beneficial for research in the field of translation of address terms. This study can also lead some other researchers to conduct the same or similar field of research as the reference or comparison that might be relevant to the researched subject. It can be also suggested that in field of translation of politeness strategies some other aspects of this field can be investigated from English into Persian.

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POSTMETHOD ERA: AMALGAMATION OF METHODS,
A REAL EXAMPLE

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ABSTRACT

English language teaching (ELT) practitioners no longer favor one method to the other specifically after the introduction of the postmethod era by Kumaravadivelu. (2003). Nowadays, the teachers and pedagogues borrow one technique from one approach and one from the other according to their classes' needs, the context of teaching, institution policies and many other criteria. In other words, we deal with teacher-produced, contextualized curricula. This paper aims at analyzing the researcher's own version of teaching method according to Kumaravadivelu's three parameters: particularity, practicality and possibility. It turns out that following these parameters is fruitful enough and it calls for more teacher and student autonomy. Indubitably, there is still more room for further research and triangulation.

KEYWORDS: postmethod, amalgamation methods, era

INTRODUCTION

Throughout English teaching history, several times it has been claimed that only one method works for teaching English. The examples are numerous including Audiolingualism, Direct method, Grammar translation, Suggestopedia, Community language learning, Task-based language learning, to name a few. We all unanimously agree that there is some truth in every method and each one has something valuable to offer to the realm of pedagogy. Every method has had its ups and downs, proponents and opponents. There has been a time when they reached their peak having their golden days and then there was the downward movement (Brown, 2000).

The methods notion was attacked mainly due to the fact that the teachers seemed not to have any voice in what to teach and how to teach it. And this is equally true about the roles of teachers and learners (Crandall, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Pennycook, 1989; Richards and Rodgers, 2002). Widdowson also highlights the teacher's role in pedagogy stating that in this era "it is teachers who have to act as mediators between theory and practice, between the domain of disciplinary research and pedagogy" (Widdowson, 1990, p. 22).

Opting for a particular method continued until when Kumaravadivelu introduced the "Postmethod era". Kumaravadivelu (2003, 2001, 1994) states that the postmethod pedagogy helps us to move beyond methods. He (2006) describes it as :

The postmethod condition is a sustainable state of affairs that compels us to fundamentally restructure our view of language teaching and teacher education. It urges us to review the character and content of classroom teaching in all its pedagogical and ideological perspectives. It drives us to streamline our teacher education by refiguring the reified relationship between theory and practice.

To implement it, three parameters are essential which are particularity, practicality and possibility.

Considering the particularity dimension, it is meant to deal with situational understanding (Elliotte, 1993). That is to say according to the specific situation, particular learners, special learning context, the teacher needs to analyze and reanalyze everything to come to a method, something which works for that group of learners in that institution. In other words, it is concerned with localized pedagogy. We need to take into account all the local linguistic, sociocultural, and political particularities. Becker (1986) states that particularity is something to be achieved. It means that we test and retest various techniques to see what works and what doesn't. To put it in a different phraseology, Prabhu (1990) states that there should be a relationship between the teaching context and the applied methodology.

Regarding practicality, it encourages and enables teachers themselves to theorize from their practice and practice what they theorize (Kumaravadivelu, 1999 b). Theory and practice continually and mutually inform and reinform each other. It also calls for reflective teaching and action research .i.e. trying to improve practice rather than producing knowledge. Pedagogical thoughtfulness in another term which is related to the practicality parameter (Manen, 1991). Practicality also calls for teacher autonomy. All teachers have their own perception of what good teaching is and they often have difficulty explaining it. In the words of Kumaravadivelu (2006):

[t]he parameter of practicality, then, focuses on teachers' reflection and action, which are also based on their insights and intuition. Through prior and ongoing experience with learning and teaching, teachers gather an unexplained and sometimes explainable awareness of what constitutes good teaching (p.173).

To end with, the last parameter Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2003) mentions is possibility, which means that the method should be appropriate socially, culturally, and politically. It is related to identity formation and social transformation.

Despite the pedagogical barriers and ideological barriers stated by Kumaravadivelu (2005) in actualizing postmethod in the classroom, this paper aims at sharing one example of such practice.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Is it possible to actualize postmethod parameters in the real classroom environments? What implications does it have?

METHODOLOGY

My postmethod

When I first started teaching I was only eighteen years old. I had my teacher training course and as I remember the emphasis was on communicative language teaching and learning. Truth be told, I began my career sticking to all the principles I was taught and even minute changes seemed like disloyalty to the approach, through my lens. Some years went by until I started to realize through practice in the classroom environment that each class, each learning situation, each group was completely dissimilar to the other and demanded certain care and attention. Although I was within the constraints of a particular institution at that time I made some changes and eureka they worked. After that I tried various techniques together borrowing each from different methods.

It all continued until three years ago when I started my private classes. With all the experience I had gathered and after reading Kumaravadivelu's (2001, 2003) ideas about postmethod era I decided to devise my personalized techniques. In general, I tried to apply all I had used and all that theory was suggesting, testing and retesting all. Below, I am going to discuss all I use to get better results and actually I have got them.

Participants

On the whole, the learners we have are of two types, the ones who desire to get a scholarship and need international English degrees such as IELTS or TOEFL and the ones who wish to immigrate to other countries and need to be fluent in the language. We usually group them into four to eight members. We have also had classes with one, two or three students. Students are free to choose the number of the students they want to have per class and even to select their partners provided that they are in similar levels of English proficiency. They are also grouped according to their purpose of learning the language. They are mainly aged between 20 to 40 years old. The research was carried out in Tabriz, Iran in lantern Language Institute.

Process of teaching and learning

After the grouping, students of each class should take part in an introductory session. In this session everything is clarified for the learners, that is to say how the class will go on and what the focus will be on. We usually explain the philosophy behind our classes which mainly centers around speaking skill. Experience and research proves that proficient speakers are better at other skills as well. We highlight that no matter the input in the class, the output will be some sort of producing the language by speaking. Also, some other techniques are explained including shadowing, recording and paraphrasing. Each one will be clarified respectively:

Shadowing

Lambert (1992) defined shadowing as a paced, parrot-style auditory tracking task, conducted with headphones. Rather than a passive activity, however, shadowing is an active and highly cognitive activity in which learners track the heard speech and vocalize it as clearly as possible while simultaneously listening (Tamai, 1997). This process of repeating incoming speech and monitoring the shadowed material engages many areas of the learners' brains, especially the language centers (Kadota, 2007).

One of the main principles of our teaching is this shadowing technique. We ask our learners to shadow whatever they can get their hands on. Of course, we don't mean mere repetition of the words or phrases. What is actually intended is conscious repetition .i.e. repeating and thinking about it at the same time. The rational behind it is to lead to native-like thinking. We provide them with listenings of a particular book ,True To Life, elementary to Advanced, both the recordings and the transcription. They are asked to listen to each piece once or twice to get the gist of the listening. Afterwards, they shall play each sentence and pause after that. They are supposed to do some tasks here. Firstly, they try to get the SVO of the sentence, think about it and repeat it. The same happens for the second sentence and then they repeat one and two together. After that one and two and three and so on until the end of the recording. When they reach the end they try to give a summary to themselves which we call 'mirror technique'. At this stage ,they are allowed to bring the pamphlet, the transcriptions, and listen to it once more reading through it, they may highlight the parts they have difficulty with and then check them with their dictionary, or with a friend or on the Internet and with the teacher eventually.

This is the whole explanation on shadowing technique used in our classes and we start with listening due to the fact that children learning their first language also do the same and indubitably there are some similarities between the first and second/foreign language acquisition. The technique can later be extended to readings, writings and others' speaking.

Generally, this is a multi-purpose way of learning as it includes listening, vocabulary learning and review, and speaking as well.

We emphasize that in order to get better results ,they need to practice it on a daily basis and consistently. Indeed, the learners sticking to this for a considerable amount of time prove to have acquired the language much better and in a shorter period of time .In addition, being exposed to language continuously leads to think in the language and higher proficiency levels.

Recording

The other activity which is prevalent is recoding. In this technique the students record their voice and send to us after each session. They have different sources for this recording. Firstly, they can record the whole class, listen to it later and take notes. Secondly, they may get words ,phrases and statements from the Internet. Thirdly, they can look for words in their CD dictionary which is Longman Contemporary Dictionary for our class. These sources and any other ones can be used to gather data about the question asked at the end of each session. I advise them to have a piece of paper, write the question on the top, collect all the information on it and then start speaking and recording their voice. At this stage they are allowed to look at their notes. After recording, they listen to it, edit it ,delete some parts, add others, etc. For the final recording which will be sent to me ,they are not allowed to use any notes. They put everything aside and record their voice and send it to me.

After I receive the recordings via email, I listen to them and I send them highlighted corrections. I emphasize the pronunciation mistakes, grammatical errors and also give them suggestions of more advanced language instead of simple sentences. They get the feedback, listen to their own voice again and try to understand where their weaknesses lie. For the next recordings they try not to make the same mistakes any more. It is like a from-focused sort of correction which turns out to be fruitful in majority of the cases. This personal method of giving feedback is absolutely popular and learners do welcome it.

Paraphrasing

Restructuring or paraphrasing is the other technique fostered in our classes. The hope philosophy behind is that after some stages of learning the language, simple sentences need to be replaced with more advanced ones. I ask them to practice it everyday. They are asked to open a Microsoft office Word document, write a simple sentence or choose from various sources and try to state it differently using other vocabularies and grammatical structures. The example

I usually use is this one: “ Tehran is more beautiful than Tabriz.” → “ Through my lens, metropolises are far more picturesque in comparison to smaller towns.”

Practicing this technique continuously helps them make more advanced statements both in terms of vocabulary range and grammatical structures. This is absolutely effective for the writing skill, especially for IELTS and TOEFL writing tasks.

Longman Dictionary

Last but not least, I would like to talk about the dictionary utilized in our classes. We suggest Longman Contemporary CD Dictionary as it is really comprehensive and is a great complement for the techniques we have. The learners are asked to shadow the pronunciation of each word along with some of the examples which are also read by the software. They can also use it to find words, phrases and sentences for the recording part and it is a wonderful source to find synonyms and collocation to employ in the paraphrasing stage.

Instruments

The instruments for this research is mainly teacher observation and experience accumulated throughout years plus the feedback gathered from the learners at the end of the teaching program and interviews carried out by the individuals present in our classes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to the results we have got throughout these years in the International exams such as IELTS and TOEFL and also the gradual improvement of our learners in their proficiency level , it turns out that our version of postmethod has been promising and fruitful. That is to say, the majority of our learners have got great results and scores in both IELTS and TOEFL and not surprisingly they believed that their success was due to the effective teaching techniques they had in the class and the usefulness of shadowing, recording and paraphrasing. Their satisfaction was stated in the end-of-the-program feedback we have for all of our students when their training terminates. Considering the general English proficiency, when we compare learners' first week recordings with the fifth week for instance ,there is a great difference in terms of fluency, accuracy and complexity as well. They usually state in the interviews that they feel much more comfortable with the language as the time passes. Our method is a living example of teacher autonomy. We have arrived to this point by trial and error, years of practical teaching, testing and retesting several approaches.

Learner autonomy is followed as well in that after the general techniques are taught and practiced, they are invited to come up with their personalized version of learning and improving their language-related skills and abilities. That is to say, after the passage of time, the students themselves realize what works for them individually and what doesn't.

The three parameters are followed in the classroom. We choose the material and the techniques and approaches according to our learners' needs and desires from an English class. This is related to the particularity phase. Then, we practice them in the class and narrow them down for each group of learners in order to activate practicality and regarding the possibility parameter, we try to personalize the tasks in the class and relate them to their everyday experiences and try not to threaten the identities they bring to the class setting.

CONCLUSION

In this article, I attempted to provide the reader with an authentic actualization of postmethod but still it is in its infancy and needs more research and practice and I believe this is a summoning for all the other practitioners to share their personalized versions of their pedagogy and their trip on this path. It is crystal clear that we will not come to a final framework or something ready to be chewed by others but to add blocks to the ESL, EFL teaching realm.

Limitations of the study

All studies and research have their own limitations and this one is no exception. It merely represented what actually happens in a classroom in one corner of the world. It is a summoning for the learner, teacher and teacher trainer autonomy. It is also requesting all the EFL/ESL teachers to share their experiences, to be inspirations for others. Last but not least, this is the observation of a teacher/researcher and more comprehensive studies are needed for a broader picture of the postmethod realization in classes.

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NOMINAL GROUP MODIFICATION IN MO/DEG LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the modification of nominal groups in Mo/Deg by a very simple methodology. Using purposeful sampling, the study sampled thirty (30) people who could speak and write fluently well in both English and Mo/Deg. Short simple English sentences containing nominal group NG modifiers were given to them to translate into Mo/Deg. The translated versions were then collected as data and analysed using the systemic grammar concept of the NG structure. The results showed that some determiner groups and the nominal groups are the only linguistic items which can occupy the modifier slot in the NG structure of Mo/Deg. The study comes to the conclusion that the positions of these modifying items – determiners and nominals in relation to the nominal group head are fixed.

KEYWORDS: nominal, Mo/Deg, modifier, gur, GILLBT, determiners, structure, group

INTRODUCTION

The Mo/Deg language, according to Osei (2006: p 1), is a member of the Gur language family and spoken in some parts of Northern Ghana in Bamboi, Jama, Kapenta, Jugboi, and Tasilima, in the Bole District. It is also spoken in the Brong-Ahafo Region around Busuama, Kandige, Manchala, Longoro, Yaara, Tarbang, Mantukwa, in the Kintampo North District. Also, patches of it are spoken in places such as Adadiem, Dokachina and Bonakire in the Jaman North District of the Brong-Ahafo region and also in places like Dwoboi, Wireke, and Zagala in La Cote d'Ivoire. The language is Deg which means "grow" or "multiply" and the people who speak it are called Dega. The language has a number of dialects, but the one chosen for this study is the Longorodialect which is the most aboriginal of all the other dialects.

The language is one of the minority languages in Ghana and has not seen enthusiastic research interest like the major Ghanaian languages such as Twi, Ga, Ewe, Fante, and Dagbani. Although the Ghana Institute of Linguistics, Literacy and Bible Translation (GILLBT) is making some effort to establish the basic grammar in the Mo/Deg language, no research study has been carried out in the syntax of the noun in the language. Therefore, this study on the nominal group modification in Mo/Deg will not only be helpful to GILLBT and other linguist, but a timely and good step to opening the language to research interest.

The study, therefore, is primarily concerned with the modification of the nominal group in the Mo/Deg language. Thus, it is set out to investigate the grammatical elements which occupy the modifying (pre-modifying) slot in the nominal group structure in the Mo/Deg language.

In syntax, modification is a pre-head concept, and, so, nominal modification is a pre-noun-head element in the structure of the noun. As characteristic of members of the Gur language family, the Mo/Deg nominal group head largely has post-head elements, and as a result, it is hard to think of the existence of any modification, though. Like the English language, the Mo/Deg has some nominal modification, hence, the subject of the study.

BACKGROUND

Structure, according to systemic grammar, is the arrangement of elements which are ordered in places. This is to say that the structure of a unit "has a number of places which can be filled by the next smaller units", Thakur (1998: p 148). Thakur (1998) continues that the group has a place for a headword, a place for a modifier and a place for a

qualifier. It does not mean that all these places must be occupied by elements every time. The headword which Morley (1985: p 12) says is “the main or focal element of the group on which all other elements in the group depend syntactically” must be filled. The modifier and the qualifier places are optional and “exist at the level of potentials which may or may not be realized”. Presenting the structure of the nominal group (NG) in accordance with the systemic grammar model, Tarni(2008: p 106) presents it as Modifier + Head + Qualifier. However, since M and Q may have more than one exponent, the proponents of systemic grammar suggest that the formula for describing groups, thus, the NG, should be rewritten as (M.....n) H (Q.....n) so that “.....n” represents the “possibility of an infinite progression”, Thakur (1998) and Verma and Krishnaswamy (1989: p 300 – 302).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study is conducted to seek answers to the following questions:

- (a). What grammatical elements occupy the modifying slot in Mo/Deg nominal group structure?
- (b). Are these elements the same as those in the English nominal group structure?

METHODOLOGY

The population for this study was purposefully sampled. This was to identify people who could read and write perfectly well in both English and Mo/Deg. Therefore, thirty (30) people were selected and, of the thirty people, twenty (20) were selected from four indigenous towns namely: Busuama, Longoro, Mantukwa and Manchala. Five people were selected from each town. This was to cover a large area of where indigenous Mo/Deg is spoken and also to have possibly different but acceptable presentations of the NG modifying elements. Again, ten (10) people were selected from among the staff of the Mo/Deg project of GILLBT. This was to ensure that more accurate information was obtained. Short simple English sentences which had NG modifying elements were given to them to provide their Mo/Deg versions. The Mo/Deg versions were then analysed syntactically using the Systemic Grammar concept of group structure, particularly the NG.

Abbreviations and symbol(s) used

For the purpose of this study the following abbreviations and symbol(s) are used.

ABS/Abs = abstract noun
Adj = adjective
Card = cardinal
Cent = central determiner
Coll = collective noun
COM/Com = common noun
Dem = demonstrative
DET/Det = determiner
Fra = fraction
GEN/Gen = genitive
H = headword
INTER/Inter = interrogative
m = modifier
MAT/Mat = materialnoun
Mult = multiplier
N = noun
NAT/Nat = nationalitynoun
NG = nominal group
Nom = nominal
NP = noun phrase
Num = numeral
Ord = ordinal
PL = plural
POSS/Poss = possessive
Postd = post-determiner

Pred = predeterminer
 Prof = noun of profession
 PROP/Prop = proper noun
 Pro = pronoun
 Q/q = qualifier
 Quant = quantifier
 Rel = noun of religion
 1stPL = first person plural
 2ndSG = second person singular
 3rdSG = third person singular
 * = not acceptable

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Discussing the structure of the nominal group, Wiredu (1999: p 70 – 77) and Greenbaum, Quirk, Leech, and Svartvik, (1990: p 364) explain modification as all the linguistic items placed before the headword. According to systemic grammar model of analysis, the NG is presented as:

(m) + H + (q)

where “m” is the modifier. Anto (2010: p 71) identifies two main modifying elements in Mo/Deg – determiners and nominals.

Determiners

The determiners which occupy the modification position within the NG structure in Mo/Deg are found in the following examples:

i. *N dam*

1st SG. POSS friend
 m | H |
 My friend

ii. *Omemaalo?*

INTER rice
 m | H |
 Whose rice

iii. *Kofi kpanyogo*

Kofi-GEN property
 m | H |
 Kofi's property

In the examples above, the Mo/Deg determiners are: *N* (my), *Ome* (whose), and *Kofi* (Kofi's).

It is important to mention that there are two main determiners in the Mo/Deg language. There are those determiners which occur at the modifier positions and those which occur at the qualifier or post-head positions. Example:

i. *Ba nya*

3rd PL POSS mother

m		H	
Det		N	
Pro			

Their mother

ii. *Ton la.*

book DET

H	m		
N	Det		
	Art		

Book the

The book

In the examples above, '*Ba*' modifies the noun, '*nya*', and '*la*' qualifies the noun, '*ton*'. Since we are concerned with modification, we will discuss only those determiners which occur at the modifying position in Mo/Deg which are the central determiners.

Central determiners

In Mo/Deg, the determiners which can occupy the modifying position within the NG are some of the central determiners which are possessives, the genitives, and some interrogatives. The possessives are *N* (my), *Ya* (our), *He* (your), *O* (its/his/her), and *Ba* (their). When they occur with headwords in the modification position, they express possession or ownership. Examples of their use are:

i. *He kaa*

2nd SG POSS car

m		H	
---	--	---	--

Your car

ii. *O dem*

3SG POSS house

m		H	
---	--	---	--

Her/his house

The possessives in Mo/Deg can occur with count or non-count nouns as in the following examples:

(iii). *O kane*

3SG POSS chairs

m		H	
---	--	---	--

His chairs

iv. *Yasugasweem*

m			H	
---	--	--	---	--

3PL POSS gold

Their gold

In the examples above, (iii) illustrates the occurrence of the possessive pronoun, ‘*O*’ with a count noun while (iv) exemplifies the modification of a non-count noun by the possessive, ‘*Ya*’.
The genitives are simply nouns or quantifier pronouns. Example:

i. *Peter ton*

Peter-GEN book

m | H |

Peter’s book

ii. *Nomel tone*

somebody-GEN books

m | H |

Somebody’s books

Like the possessives, the genitives can occur with count or non-count nouns. For example:

i. *Kwame dem*

Kwame-GEN house

m | H |

Kwame’s house

ii. *Nomelbatakaane*

someone-GEN shirt-PL

m | H |

Someone’s shirts

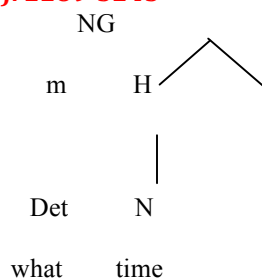
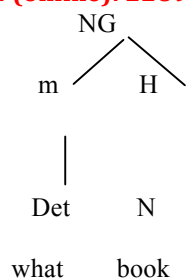
Examples (i) and (ii) exemplify the occurrence of the genitive with a non-count noun and a count noun respectively. The interrogatives which can occur with the NG head as modifiers are: *Ome*(whose), *Bokwa* (what) and *Bewe* (when/what). However, the interrogative, *Biso* (which) cannot occur as a modifier in the language. Examples of their use are:

(a) *Bokwa ton?*

INTER book

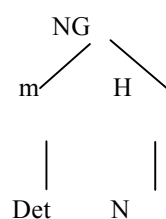
(b). *Bewe sang*

INTER time



(c) *Ome maalo?*

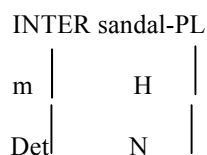
INTER rice



Whose rice

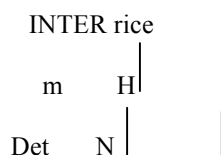
Again, like the possessives and the genitives, the interrogatives can occur with count or non-count nouns as in the following:

Ome nangaware?



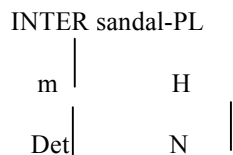
Whose sandals?

Ome maalo?



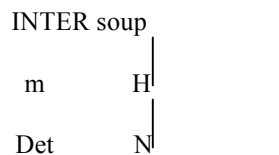
Whose rice?

Bokwa nangaware?



What sandals?

Bokwa dor?



What soup?

From the above examples, '*Ome*,' occurs with the count noun, '*nangaware*,' and the non-count noun, '*maalo*' while '*bokwa*,' with the count noun, '*nangaware*' and the non-count noun, '*dor*'. It must be pointed out that with the exception of the interrogative, *bewe*, the other interrogatives and the possessives can occur together within the same NG as in the following examples:

i. <i>Ome ya nya?</i>	ii. <i>He bokwa koo?</i>
<div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> </div>	<div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> <div></div> </div>
INTER 1 st PL POSS mother	2 nd SG INTER farm
<div> <div> <div>m</div> <div>m</div> <div>H</div> </div> <div> <div>Det</div> <div>Det</div> <div>N</div> </div> <div> <div>Inter</div> <div>Poss</div> <div></div> </div> </div>	<div> <div> <div>m</div> <div>m</div> <div>H</div> </div> <div> <div>Det</div> <div>Det</div> <div>N</div> </div> <div> <div>Poss</div> <div>Inter</div> <div></div> </div> </div>
Who our mother	Your what farm
Who is our mother?	Which is your farm?

In example (i), the interrogative, *ome*, occurs before the possessive, *ya*, which also occurs before the NG, *nya*. In (ii), the possessive, *he*, occurs before the interrogative, *bokwa*, which also occurs before the NG, *koo*.

It is also possible in Mo/Deg to have the interrogatives (except *bewe*), the possessives, and the genitives occurring in that order within the same NG. However, a reverse of the order or any other order is not an acceptable structure in the language. Example:

iii. <i>Ome he Yao nya?</i>	iv. <i>Bokwabanimedem?</i>																																	
INTER 2 nd SGPOSS Yao-GEN mother	INTER 3 rd PL POSS brother-GEN house																																	
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Det	Det	Det	N																															
Inter	Poss	Gen																																
m	m	m	H																															
Det	Det	Det	N																															
Inter	Poss	Gen																																
Who your Yao's mother	what their brother's house																																	
Who is Yao's mother?	What about their brother's house?																																	

In example (iii) above, we notice that the interrogative, *ome*, occurs before the possessive, *he*, which in turn occurs before the genitive, *Yao*, which also comes before the NG, *nya*. In (iv), we have the same order, thus, the interrogative, *bokwa*, and then the possessive, *ba*, which is followed by the genitive, *nime* and then the NG, *dem*. It is therefore wrong to have the following order:

- * *He ome Yao nya?*
- * *Nimebabokwadem?*

Again, the possessives and the genitives can occur within the same NG in the Mo/Deg language. However, the order must be possessives first before genitives and not the other way round. Example:

v. <i>Ya meeh koo</i>	vi. <i>Ba dam dem</i>																												
1 st PL POSS father-GEN farm	3 rd PL POSS friend-GEN house																												
<table> <tr> <td>m</td> <td> </td> <td>m</td> <td> </td> <td>H</td> <td> </td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Det</td> <td> </td> <td>Det</td> <td> </td> <td>N</td> <td> </td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	m		m		H			Det		Det		N			<table> <tr> <td>m</td> <td>m</td> <td> </td> <td>H</td> <td> </td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Det</td> <td>Det</td> <td> </td> <td>N</td> <td> </td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </table>	m	m		H				Det	Det		N			
m		m		H																									
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Det	Det		N																										

Poss Gen

Poss Gen

Our farther's farm

Our friend's house

In examples (v) and (vi), the possessives, 'ya' and 'ba' come before the genitives 'meeh' and 'dam' which in turn come before the nouns 'koo' and 'dem' respectively.

It may be concluded that the following order of the central determiners in Mo/Deg is not both semantically and syntactically acceptable:

(a) Genitive + Possessive. Example:

* KwasiN ton-Kwasi my book

(b) Genitive + Interrogative. Example:

* Yao omedem- Yao whose house

Nominals

In Mo/Deg, many nouns including common nouns such as: *da* (tree), *dea* (house / building), *kara* (chair / stool), proper nouns: *Yao*, *Kumasi*, *Kintampo*, collective nouns: *dom* (crowd), *dea* (family), abstract nouns: *pjla* (lust), *nyina* (love), *nyundua* (heaven), as well as material nouns: *sugasweem* (gold), *teera* (sand), *bwaala* (rain), nationality nouns: Ghana, Nigeria, Gambia, etc, nouns of profession: *paa* (farmer), *ticha* (teacher), *scfo* (pastor / priest), and nouns of religion: *asore* (church), *sog* (moslem), can occur in the modifier position. We have examples in the following:

(a). *yunevesiti kaa*

m H

Nom N

Com

University bus

(c). *bihaah bechala*

m H

Nom N

com

girl child

(b) *Kumasihaah*

PROP woman

m H

Nom N

Prop

Kumasi woman

(e). *Sugasweemwoochere*

MAT watches

m H

Nom N

Mat

Gold watches

(d) *Nyina wobol*

ABS talk

m H

Nom N

Abs

Love talk

(f). *Nigeria pur*

NAT bag

m H

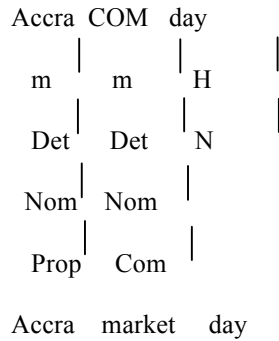
Nom N

Nat

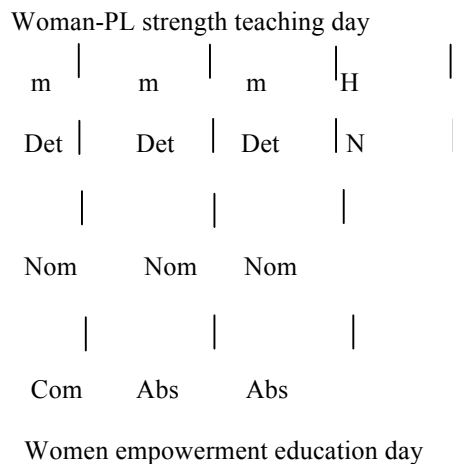
Nigerian bag

From the examples above, we note the occurrence of nominals within an NG at modifier positions. Examples (a) and (c) illustrate common nouns at the modifying position, while (b), (d), (e), and (f), illustrate the modifying occurrence of a proper noun, an abstract noun, a material noun, and a noun of nationality, respectively with some other nouns. It is possible in the Mo/Deg language to have a sequence of two or more nominals within the same NG. Example:

i. *Nkran yawa topere* .



ii. *Haahna bokpega wechagla topere*



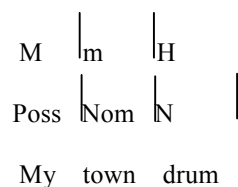
In example (i) above, we have the occurrence of two nominals: *Nkrannandyawa*, before the headword, *topere* and in (ii), we have three nominals occurring before the headword, *topere*.

It is possible in the language to have the nominals occurring with any one of the three central determiners. Example:

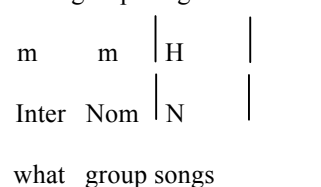
iii. *N bwee gbong*

iv. *Bokwa kuo yela*

1st SG POSS town drum

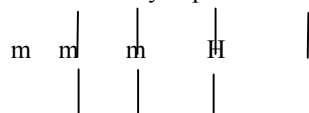


INTER group songs



v. *Kento lola topere wobol*

Kento-GEN birth day speech



Kento's birth day speech/talk

We notice from example (iii) that *N* is a possessive which occurs before the nominal, '*bwee*', which in turn comes before the headword, '*gbong*'. Similarly, example (iv) exemplifies the occurrence of the interrogative, '*bokwa*' with the nominal, '*kuo*,' and the noun, '*yela*,' which is the headword while (v) illustrates the occurrence of the genitive, *Kento*, with two nominals, '*lola*' and '*topere*' which in turn occur before the headword, '*wobol*'.

The analysis of the modification of the NGs in Mo/Degin this study reveals that the modifying items in Mo/Deg are:

- (a) The central determiners - only three types of the central determiners can modify Mo/Djg NGs and they are:
- (i). the possessives which include *N, Ya, He, O*, etc,
 - (ii). the genitives (but in Mo/ Deg there is a zero or no apostrophe's),
 - (iii). some interrogatives (except *biso*) which include *Ome, Bokwa* and *Bewe*.
- (b) Nominals which include all the types of nouns.

The study also reveals that a maximum of only two determiner items, both from the central determiner class, can fill the modifier position in Mo/Deg at a time. However, the adjectival groups, the prepositional groups and the clause are qualifier items in the language.

CONCLUSION

So far, this paper has discussed the modifying elements within the NG structure in Mo/Deg. The types of determiners that can modify the NG head in Mo/Deg are some central determiners, which are the possessives, the interrogatives, and the genitives. It has been established that the possessives and the interrogatives are mutually inclusive and that in the situation where there is the need to use the three central determiners together, the order is fixed, thus, Inter + Poss + Gen. Any other order is unacceptable. It is also argued that the occurrence of the possessives with the genitives, that is, Poss + Gen, Inter + Poss or Inter + Gen order is syntactically acceptable. However, the 'Gen + Poss' or 'Gen + Inter' order is not acceptable in the Mo/Deg language.

The nominals which can modify the NG head in the language are: common, proper, abstract, collective nouns as well as material nouns, nouns of nationality and of religion, and nouns of profession. It has also been established that it is possible in Mo/Deg to have a sequence of two or more nouns modifying another which is the headword.

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THE ROLE OF ACTIVATION IN INCREASING ESL & EFL LEARNERS' MOTIVATION

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at reviewing some theoretical ideas on language learning as a second or foreign language (based on communicative aspect of language learning) and checking the importance and relevance of activation in increasing the ESL (English as a Second Language) or EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners' motivation. It is believed that high motivated students can learn more effectively. On the other hand, the students' level of activation in learning process has an effective and remarkable role in letting them improve their communicative skills. Consequently, activities through which students have more opportunities to use the language with more interaction and involvement let the students to be more responsible in their own learning process and to be highly motivated. In other words, the more the learners are involved and activated, the more they are motivated to participate in learning the language. Therefore, teachers need to apply some appropriate techniques that can increase the learners' activation and motivation.

KEYWORDS: ESL and EFL learners, motivation, and activation

INTRODUCTION

Historical Review

As Kuhn (1970) quoted by Celce-Murcia (2001), stated, "The field of second or foreign language teaching has undergone many fluctuations and shifts over the years. Different from physics or chemistry, in which progress is more or less steady until a major discovery causes a radical theoretical revision, language teaching is a field in which fads and heroes have come and gone in a manner fairly consistent with the kinds of changes that occur in your culture." A glance through the past century or so of language teaching will give an interesting picture of how varied the interpretations have been of the best way to teach a language. As disciplinary schools of the ought-psychology, linguistics, and education, for example- have come and gone, so have language teaching methods waxed and waned in popularity. Teaching methods, as "approaches in action," are of course the practical application of theoretical findings and positions. It should come as no surprise to discover a wide variety of these applications over the last hundred years (Brown 2007). Changes in language teaching methods throughout history have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners' need, such as a move toward oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study (Richards & Rodgers 2001). Increased opportunities for communication among Europeans in the mid-nineteenth created a demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages. In 1880s, some linguistics such as Henry Sweet and Paul Passy began to give some reformist ideas. Gouin (1880) as quoted by Richards and Rodgers (2001) came to the following conclusion: "language is primarily a matter of transforming perceptions into conceptions. Children use language to represent their conceptions. Language is a means of thinking, of representing the world to own self." Sauveur (1874) argued that a foreign language could be taught without translation if meaning was conveyed directly through actions. Krashen (1982) regarded comprehensible input and reduction of stress as keys to successful language acquisition. He found actions as a means of making input comprehensible and minimizing stress. Chomsky (1959) emphasized an important dimension of language – the functional and communicative potential of language. As a result, the need to focus in language teaching on communicative proficiency was more prominent than on structural practice. Prior to the twentieth century, language teaching methodology vacillated between two types of approaches: getting learners to use a language (i.e., to speak and understand it) versus getting learners to analyze a language (i.e., learn its grammatical rules) (Celce-Murcial 2001). Today, there is general acceptance of the complexity and interrelatedness of skills in

both written and oral communication and of the need for learners to have the experience of communication, to participate in the negotiation of meaning (Savignon 1997).

Language Learning

Reasons for Learning

There are different students of different ages all over the world that are learning English, but their reasons for wanting to study English can be totally different. For some students, learning English is based on the curriculum at schools, but for others, it could reflect different kind of a choice. Some people learn English to be able to move into a target-language community in which English is the national language or it is one of the main languages of culture and commerce. Some other students need to learn English for Specific Purpose (ESP) – e.g. learning business English to learn how to operate in English in the business world. These students need the type of language which is applicable and useful in their own field of study or major. Many students need to learn English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in order to be able to communicate with other people from all over the world. These students of general English do not have any particular reasons, but wish to be able to learn it as a means of communication. All in all, the purpose of the students in learning the language is undoubtedly influencing what they want to learn and what they need to be taught.

ESL and EFL Students

Learning a language in different situations and contexts have different effects on the type of activities, materials, objectives and whatever that is involved in teaching and learning the language. ESL students are those students who are learning English as a second language. These students live in the target-language community where they are greatly exposed to the language. Therefore, learning could be facilitated for them. On the other hand, EFL students learn English as a foreign language. Beside the interior classroom situation, they can only use English when traveling or visiting other people from other countries with different languages. In other words, these students are not exposed enough to the language and they do not have enough access to the situation in which they can use their newly learned language. Accordingly, the type of activities and objectives are undoubtedly influenced. As a result, the context in which the language is learned is still of consideration relevance to the kind of English they will want to study, and the skills they need to acquire.

ACTIVATION

Many language teachers with a variety of attitudes towards language teaching try to apply different ideas and points which have been introduced by many scholars for a long time. It includes the value of language exposure through comprehensible input; giving students the opportunity to think about grammatical works; and providing opportunities for language use in communicative activities whether offering students some appropriate controlled practice or letting them to use all and any language they know. However, different methods have different advantages; there is often no clear application of their principles in the classroom. The extent to which these methods become accepted depends on their practicality in the classrooms. According to Harmer (2008), such eclecticism—choosing between the best elements of a number of different ideas and method—is a proper response to the competing claims of various trends and approaches. However, the danger of eclecticism is the possible conclusion that we can use bits and pieces from different theories and methods; our lessons can become a disorganized ragbag of different activities with no obvious coherence or philosophy to underpin them. The very important point that should be taken into consideration is that students need “exposure, motivation and opportunities” for language use. As a result, most teaching sequences need to have certain characteristics or elements. These elements are “Engagement, Study, and Activation”. Engagement refers to the type of activities which frequently engage students (both their minds and hearts) in to the lesson. As a result, they will be involved in the study and activation stages. Study refers to those activities that focus on the construction of the lesson. It can be practice of a sound to investigation of how to express the main idea in a long text. Activation is an important element which is designed to help students use the language as effectively as they can. The point that is really important is that in activation stage, it is tried to help students to use all and any language they know. According to Harmer (2008), these activities can have different forms: role plays (where students act out a conversation), advertisement design (where students write and read a radio commercial), debates and discussions, storytelling, email exchanges, and may other different forms. These activities are designed to help students activate their knowledge, participate more actively in the activities, and sustain or even increase their motivation.

MOTIVATION

Definition

Motivation is a very complex phenomenon with many facets. Thus, it is not possible to give a simple definition (Gardner 2006). In many different dictionaries, motivation is defined as the extent to which you make choices about goals to pursue and the effort you devote to that pursuit. Some psychologists like Skinner or Watson regarded the importance of reward in motivating students. This reward serves to reinforce behaviors. Based on a cognitive psychological definition, motivation is the matter of the students' self-reward. As Hunt (1971) quoted by Brown (2007), stated, "We define ourselves by making our own decisions, rather than by simply reacting to others." Students are free to make their own choices about what to pursue and not to pursue. Whatever definitions have been given, motivation has an important role in enhancing and facilitating second or foreign language learning. Brown (2007) stated, "It is easy in second language learning to claim that a learner will be successful with proper motivation." According to Gardner (2006), students with higher levels of motivation will do better than students with lower levels. If one is motivated, he or she has reasons for engaging in the activities, expends effort, persists in the activities, attends to the task, shows desire to achieve the goal, enjoys the activities, etc.

Integrative & Instrumental Motivation

For several decades, Robert Gardner and his colleagues influenced researches on motivation in the field of language acquisition. They made a distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation. Learners are instrumentally motivated when they want to learn a language because of someone or perceived utility it might have for them (e.g. to pass an examination, to use it in their own jobs, or to use it in holidays in the other countries). On the other hand, integrative motivation refers to the learners desire to learn a language from a positive affect toward a community. In other words, the learners wish to identify themselves with or to become integrated in to the society of the target language (e.g. to know more of the culture of the language, to make contact with the language native speakers, or to live in the target language country).

Extrinsic & Intrinsic Motivation

While the integrative and instrumental motivation refer to the context of learning, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation refer to the possibilities of intensity of feeling or drive, ranging from deeply internal, self-generation rewards to strong, externally administered rewards from beyond oneself (Brown 2007). Edward Deci (1975:23), quoted in Brown (2007), stated "Intrinsic motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward... Intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination." On the other hand, the kind of motivation—which comes from outside the classroom and may be influenced by a number of external factors (the attitude of society, family and peers to the subject in question)—is referred to as extrinsic motivation. No matter what kind of motivation is present, we will strive for self-esteem and fulfillment. If the learners in the classroom are given an opportunity to "do" language for their own personal reasons of achieving competence and autonomy, they will have a better chance of success (Brown 2007).

Motivation through Activation

While it may be easy to be extrinsically motivated, sustaining the motivation could be really difficult and problematic. As a result, it is really important to help students to sustain their motivation. In this regard, there are several activities that we can ask students to do. We need to select an appropriate level of challenge that is neither too difficult nor too easy. We need to show the appropriate teacher qualities so that students can trust us. It is also important to consider the issue of affect which is related to the way students feel support by the teacher. We need to be involved so that students can make decision over the choice of which activities to do or how they want to be corrected. In other words, if students feel they have influence over their own learning, rather than being told or dictated what to do, they are more motivated in the lesson. Beside the basic role of motivation in helping the students participate in activities, extending their roles in learning is another important issue that should be taken in to consideration. Getting students to do various kinds of homework or classroom exercises, letting them to investigate the grammatical issues or to solve a reading puzzle on their own (rather than spooning the materials by teachers), and letting them to commit mistakes in an appropriate stress less atmosphere could help students to receive their self-esteem and to accept their own responsibilities for learning. Activation is not just about producing language in the classroom. Whenever students read or listen for pleasure, mostly to enjoy understanding rather than concentrating on linguistic forms, they are involved in language activation.

IMPLICATION AND RESULT

As long as languages have been taught, people have argued about the best way of doing it, and how to help students to learn more effectively. Considering the role of motivation as an important factor which can create a desire to learn and trying to sustain it as an influencing factor which helps students to continue their active participation, will involve teachers to apply and prepare some activities and techniques that can help them in this regard. Consequently, students' activation or the extent which they are involved in different activities will be an effective factor in motivating the students. As a result, I recommend that whatever the lesson is about, teachers should engage students in investigating, participating, explaining, acting, and giving feed back of the lesson. All in all, the more students are involved and activated in the lesson, the more they are motivated. In other words, teachers need to increase the students' activation and participations in their classes in order to increase the students' motivation as an influencing factor in learning the language.

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AN OVERVIEW ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF WATCHING CARTOONS AS AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE INPUT FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

Today, access to various audiovisual programs such as cartoons has become very easy through the development of audiovisual technologies such as CD and DVD players. In the same line, many studies have emphasized the psychological values of utilizing cartoons in language learning. Accordingly, the present study aims at reviewing some of the studies to consider the effectiveness of exposure to cartoons as a source of authentic language input on language proficiency development.

KEYWORDS: Exposure, Cartoons, Language proficiency

AUDIOVISUAL TECHNOLOGIES AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

In today's audiovisually driven world and with the rapid developments of various audiovisual technologies, traditional textbooks might not be the only learning materials for English language learners anymore. In the same line, a growing number of teachers start to turn to use audiovisual programs in class so that students particularly in EFL contexts and some ESL contexts are able to find out how English language is used in the real life. In fact, most EFL/ESL students do not use English language in their daily life given the fact that they don't live in English – speaking environment. However, authentic audiovisual programs help substitute for the experience as they bring the real English world to the learners. Audiovisual programs provide the language learners a chance to have exposure to spoken language input used in a real situation.

The role of language input in SLA is not questioned. However, while the important role of the language input in SLA has been advocated by various language learning theories, there has been a controversy in the field of language acquisition between those theories that attribute a small or no role to language input and those attributing it a more important role. According to Ellis (2008), theories of SLA attach different importance to the role of language input in language acquisition process but they all acknowledge the need for language input.

Language input has also been considered to be a major source of data for language learners to construct their competence or mental representation of the language based on the examples embedded in the language input (Patten & Benati, 2010). Indeed, language acquisition process is dependent upon the availability of appropriate input. Considering the fact that some sort of language input is necessary to acquire the language in-and-outside the classroom, various audiovisual programs have the potential to be utilized as sources of authentic language input for SLA.

SOURCES OF LANGUAGE INPUT

In this section, issues in relation to formal and informal language learning settings and sources of language input will be put forth. First, the concepts of formal and informal language learning settings for SLA will be compared. Then, the available sources of language input in English as a foreign language (EFL) context and English as a second language (ESL) context are considered. Finally, the concept of authentic language input, its benefits, and drawbacks for SLA in both formal and informal settings will be discussed.

INFORMAL AND FORMAL LANGUAGE LEARNING SETTINGS

The term informal learning was drawn from informal education which was first introduced and popularized in the field of education by Knowles (1950). In focusing on the concept of informal education, Knowles highlighted the informal environment in many learning situations, the flexibility of the process, and the use of experience. Although Knowles did not explicitly define informal education, he utilized the term to refer to the use of informal programs and, to some extent, the learning obtained from interaction in society. In the same line, Coombs and Ahmad (1974)

defined informal education as a widely accepted process of developing knowledge and skills of people in a highly uninstitutional and unstructured setting. In contrast, formal education is highly institutional and occurs in structured settings.

Based on informal education, informal learning, as opposed to formal learning, was also defined as the lifetime process by which every individual acquires and gathers knowledge and skills from exposure to the environment outside the classroom settings through, for example, reading newspapers and books or by listening to the radio or watching various programs on television (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974).

Following the concepts of informal and formal learning, informal and formal language learning were also introduced and studied by some researchers (Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Marsick & Watkins, 1990; Rogers, 2004). In this regard, similar to Coombs and Ahmed, Rogers (2004) noted that informal language learning is unstructured and unpurposeful but is the most extensive and essential part of all the learning that all of us do every day of our lives. On the contrary, formal language learning is structured, purposeful, and school-based.

The distinction between formal and informal language learning is significant in terms of the settings of the learning (in-or-outside the class environments), and instruction which refers to focus on the form or the meaning of language (Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Informal setting is considered as the context in which language learners are exposed to the target language at school, home, and work or in social interaction and formal setting as the context where the target language is being taught to a group of second or foreign language learners (Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

In view of that, formal language learning takes place in the class environment but informal language learning, mostly, takes place out of the class environment. Nevertheless, it should be borne in mind that it is not always the case that formal and informal language learning settings are separate from each other and do not overlap. Informal language learning can also occur in a class setting when the focus is not on the form of the language (Marsick & Watkins, 1990). Marsick and Watkins (1990) highlighted the point that informal language learning may occur in classrooms or institutions when peers have interaction with each other, but it is not typically classroom-based or highly structured. Moreover, informal learning can be deliberately encouraged where the environment is not highly conducive to learning.

In relation to formal and informal language learning settings, Krashen (1981) also noted that while formal setting is directly aimed at increasing conscious linguistic knowledge, informal learning may occur. In fact, the classroom may serve as a source of language input for informal learning when peers interact with each other. The interaction between the peers in the classrooms is a source of language input for informal learning when the focus is on the meaning rather than the form of the language. In formal language learning settings, the focus of learning is on the language itself. In other words, the focus is on the form of the language. In contrast, in informal language learning settings the focus is on the meaning (Rogers, 2004).

Based on what Marsick and Watkins (1990) put forth, formal language learning is classroom-based, highly structured, and teacher-directed in terms of the content to be learnt. Conversely, informal language learning occurs in-and-out of classroom while the focus is not on the form of the language. Moreover, informal language learning is not structured.

Considering the fact that some type of language input is required for language learning/acquisition, one issue in relation to acquiring the language in informal settings in EFL/ESL contexts is the source of language input.

SOURCES OF LANGUAGE INPUT IN EFL/ESL CONTEXTS

Various sources of language input are available in ESL and EFL contexts. Before the discussion on the sources of language input in EFL and ESL contexts is put forth, the concepts of ESL and EFL contexts need to be elaborated.

An ESL context is an environment where English language is spoken in society as the official language or the medium of communication among people from different countries. In fact, English language plays an institutional and social role in the community in an ESL context (Ellis, 2008). According to Ellis (2008), in an ESL context,

English language functions as a means of communication among members who speak various languages. In contrast, an EFL context refers to an environment where English language is not the primary or secondary language spoken. Indeed, English is considered as a foreign language rather than a *second* language and the use is limited to language classrooms (Freed, 1995). In EFL context, English language has no major role in society and is learnt in the classroom setting (Ellis, 2008).

Back to the discussion on the available sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts, it should be mentioned that in ESL contexts, people can have interaction with other people from different countries using the English language. English is then considered as a source of language input which can facilitate and pave the way for SLA (Gass, 1997). The social interaction in ESL contexts is one of the authentic sources of language input which can help language learners acquire the language in informal settings.

This has been emphasized by Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis in which conversational interaction enhances SLA. Accordingly, negotiation of meaning which triggers interactional adjustments by the native speakers or more proficient interlocutor in social interaction can contribute to SLA. In contrast, in an EFL context social interaction as a source of language input in an informal language learning setting is lacking. English is not used as a medium of communication or for other purposes in society in the EFL contexts. Indeed, the use of English language is mainly limited to formal settings at universities, language institutes or language classrooms. As a matter of fact, in EFL contexts, limited usage of English language can only be observed when language learners use English language in interactions with their instructors and their peers.

In short, examples of learning the language in informal setting include learners' interaction with native or non-native speakers in the target language country or a country where English is the second language. Besides, learners' use of different technologies at home or at work via watching a movie or listening to music or song which provide appropriate language input is considered as another example of language learning in informal settings (Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

By viewing, for example, a movie or listening to a song, language learners indirectly get involved in the language learning process when they try to understand the movie or the song by using different language learning strategies (Pemberton, Fallahkhair & Mosthoff, 2004). The various types of audiovisual programs are considered to be authentic language materials which have the potential to provide the necessary language input for SLA in informal setting by indirectly involving the language learners in the language learning process (Pemberton et al., 2004).

AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE INPUT

Taylor (1994) defined authentic language material as any material in English which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching. Gilmore (2007) considered authentic language materials as the language conveying a real message which is produced by a real speaker or writer. In the same line, Nunan (1999) defined authentic language materials as spoken or written language material that has been produced in the course of real communication and not specifically produced for the very purpose of language teaching. These materials can be accessed through various audiovisual programs such as cartoons.

CARTOONS AS A SOURCE OF AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE INPUT AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

The application of various authentic programs such as news, movies, songs, and cartoons from a wide range of audiovisual technologies such as satellite or conventional TV to provide the necessary language input for SLA have also been attracting increasing interest among researchers since 1970s.

Cartoons have been widely used as one of the teaching authentic audio-visual materials in language learning classes. The pedagogical value of cartoons as an authentic source of language input has been the focus of limited number of studies. The pedagogical value of cartoons as an authentic source of language input has been the focus of few studies. Another study was carried out by Doring (2002) focusing on the effect of exposure to cartoons on language learning. Reflecting on his own experience of utilizing cartoons, Doring (2002) underscored the point that cartoons can encourage thinking processes and discussion skills. Cartoons can also engage the attention of the learners and present information in a non-threatening atmosphere. According to Doring (2002), the language learners who had

exposure to cartoons could produce oral answers that were very proactive and interesting in various discussions held in the classes. Additionally, the discussions were linguistically rich and the students had high confidence. It seems that the high confidence that the language learners acquire is due to exposure to cartoons which create low affective filter atmosphere for learning.

In addition, cartoons are also considered as excellent teaching tools because they not only add humor to a topic but also illustrate the idea in a memorable way. In deed, cartoons make learning an enjoyable and, more importantly, memorable experience because the activities in the teaching and learning process using cartoons interesting and interactive for the students. Barker (2009) clearly explains that the best way to keep the students interested and engaged in lessons is by making them interactive.

In an anecdotal study conducted by Clark (2000), it was highlighted that cartoons can engage the attention of the learners and present information in a non-threatening atmosphere. Besides, cartoons have the potential to reinforce thinking processes and discussion skills (Clark, 2000). Another study was carried out by Doing (2002) focusing on the effect of exposure to cartoons on language learning. The results of a study were indicative of the fact that the language learners who had exposure to cartoons could produce oral answers that were very proactive and interesting in different discussions held in the classes. Moreover, the discussions were rich and the students had high confidence. It seems that the high confidence that the language learners acquire is due to exposure to cartoons which create low affective filter atmosphere for learning.

Rule and Ague (2005) also conducted a study providing evidence of the students' preferences to use cartoons in language learning. Cartoons are preferred because they create low affective filter atmosphere which causes a high degree of motivation which is claimed to enhance the memory of the language learners when they try to make a connection between the new materials and the prior knowledge through analogy in a comfortable atmosphere (Rule & Ague, 2005). Without providing empirical evidence, Rule and Ague (2005) also claimed that students who use cartoons can improve different language skills and achieve higher test scores.

In a recently conducted research, Bahrani and Tam (2012) compared the effectiveness of exposure to audiovisual news, movies, and cartoons as three different sources of language input on language proficiency development of the low level language learners. To do so, Bahrani and Tam (2012) assigned 60 low level language learners into three groups. The three groups ran by one of the researchers and met in three different classes once a week for a period of four months. Each group had exposure to different audiovisual materials. Group one had exposure to news, group two had exposure to movies, and group three had exposure to cartoons. The results of the study showed that those participants who had exposure to cartoons could enhance their language proficiency to a significant extent. In contrast, the participants who had exposure to either news or movies could not gain significant language proficiency development.

In short, the point that should be highlighted is that the use of cartoons as a source of authentic language input has not been investigated empirically. In fact, the limited number of studies on the use of cartoons in language learning classes has highlighted the pedagogical value of cartoons in an anecdotal manner. In other words, they have emphasized the psychological aspects of utilizing cartoons in language learning without providing empirical evidence of the effect of the pedagogical values of cartoons.

CONCLUSION

Various types of audiovisual programs such as cartoons, movies, songs, and documentaries have proved to be effective in increasing the motivation of the language learners. It is also believed that these types of programs are rich sources of authentic language input. However, some of these materials may not include the necessary or enough language input to contribute to language proficiency development. the analysis of the cartoons viewed by the language learners indicates that they feature the following modifications: (1) the cartoons contain features that effectively capture the viewer-learner's attention, (2) they present a strong picture-word interconnection, which corresponds with the 'here and now' principle of 'modified' registers, (3) the dialogue of the cartoons is characterised by sentences that are simple and complete, (4) the dialogue contains very few disfluencies, (5) repetition is used

frequently, and (6) the rate of speech is relatively low in some cartoons. These adjustments are used in modified speech styles to make the input more comprehensible for the learner.

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ABSTRACT

Although autism is a fairly common developmental brain disorder among the children of all nations, there has been very little research into this issue in some countries such as Iran. This paper considers one aspect of this complex and multidimensional developmental disorder known as "Pronominal Reversal" among the Iranian children suffering from Autism spectrum. Pronoun reversal is a language twist common among autistic children in which ASD children refer to themselves as he, she, or you, or by their own names. This study aims to report the findings of a case study carried out in summer 2013 on this phenomenon among Iranian autistic children whose native language is Persian, a pro-drop language of Indo-European family. The researchers observed, taped and transcribed the verbal productions of 20 Iranian autistic boys between the age of 5 to 10 years old in one of the rehabilitation clinics of the capital city of Tehran and the findings of this explanatory case study revealed that pronoun reversal is widely occurred in autistic Persian speakers and due to the fact that Persian is a pro-drop language, the speakers generally drop the subjective pronouns and the relative inflectional suffixes are reversed consequently. Although the research has been done within an Iranian context, the findings could be interesting and applicable to other pro-drop languages.

KEYWORDS: Autism, Pronoun Reversal, Persian, Pro-drop.

INTRODUCTION

Autism is a complex neurodevelopmental spectrum type of disorder which affects human behaviors from early years of birth in various aspects of communication and social behaviors. The children suffering from this spectrum have different sorts of disabilities in establishing social relations and verbal productions. The precise neurobiological description of the problem has not been presented yet but it has been proven that "autistic spectrum disorders reflect the operation of factors in the developing brain." (educating children with autism, national academy of science, 2001:1) and are unique in their pattern of deficits and areas of reflective strength. "They generally have lifelong effects on how children learn to be social beings, to take care of themselves, and to participate in the community." (Ibid)

Leo Kanner (1943) first described Autism and assumed that autistic children "have come into the world with innate inability to form usual, biologically provided affective contact with people just as other children come into the world with innate physical or intellectual handicaps."

As Boyd (1992:63) believes 'Autism is one of the most severe childhood disorders characterized by qualitative and quantitative impairments in two way social interaction, communication and a marked restriction in range of interests and activities' which affects about 5 to 7 children in 1000 all over the world (Gillberg, 1999) and normally girls are more prone to be affected.

Symptoms of autism spectrum disorder (ASD) vary from one child to the next, but in general, they fall into three areas: Social impairment, Communication difficulties and Repetitive and stereotyped behaviors. Most children with ASD have trouble engaging in everyday social interactions. According to the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition - Text Revision*, some children with ASD may:

Make little eye contact , Tend to look and listen less to people in their environment or fail to respond to other people , Do not readily seek to share their enjoyment of toys or activities by pointing or showing things to others, Respond unusually when others show anger, distress, or affection. (A Parent's Guide to Autism Spectrum Disorder,2011:2)

It is good to mention that there is no single behavior that is always typical of autism and no behavior that would automatically exclude an individual child from a diagnosis of autism, even though there are strong and consistent commonalities, especially in social deficits. (Lord and P.Mc Gee,2001:11)

The point of concern of this article is the communicative difficulties and we study pronominal reversal, a common phenomenon among ASD children, in context of Iran and report on the verbal production of 20 Iranian boys of 5-10 years old studied during summer 2013 in a rehabilitation center in Tehran. In this public clinic the trainers and teachers are working with about.... autistic boys of 4-12 years old and the education is on both psychomotor field and verbal one. Pronoun/pronominal reversal is defined as a speech problem in which the individual refers to himself or herself as 'he', 'she' or 'you', and uses 'I' or 'me' in referring to others (Lawson, 2001:198).

The children studied in this research are native speakers of Persian, a head first, fairly constituent free, pro-drop language of Indo-European family in which gender is not mark and can be identified lexically. Historically speaking, Farsi (or Persian) is part of the Indo-Iranian group of the vast Indo-European (or Indo-Aryan) family of languages. Two main subgroups constitute the Indo-Iranian group of languages: the Iranian and the Indian subgroup of languages. All the languages originally current on the vast Iranian plateau, stretching from the Pamir region in the east to the borders of present-day Iran in the west, form the Iranian subgroup of languages. These languages were spoken by the Aryan tribes, who approximately from the second millennium B.C. started their migration onto this plateau. The Iranian languages are divided into three groups: the Old languages (which include Avestan, Old Persian and Median), the Middle languages (which include Parthian, Pahlavi, Soghdian, Kharazmian and Khotanese) and the Modern languages (which include Persian or Farsi and many different dialects) (Shahvar, 2008: 187).

Nouns in this language are either singular or plural. Persian word order is mainly described as Subject-Object-Verb(SOV) in which "the verb is marked for tense and aspect and usually agrees with the subject in person and number. Persian is a pro-drop language, thus the subject is optional. The object marker *râ* is used to indicate specific direct objects in simple sentences:

a) bache-hâ panjare *râ* shekast-and
child-Plur window Obj break-Past-3pl

"The children broke the window."

b) (mâ) kabâb mi-khor-im

(we) kabab Imp-eat-Present/2pl

"We are eating kabob." " (Megerdooonian, Persian syntax, <http://www.zoorna.org/shiraz/syntax.html>).

Although the above mentioned examples illustrate the canonical word order in Persian, this language has a fairly free word order known as "scrambling" and the previously mentioned sentences can be restated in various forms. Nouns in Persian do not have grammatical gender and plural form is made by adding *-ha* (for inanimate) and *-aan* (for animate nouns) to the final position.

Persian, natively known as Farsi, is a pro-drop or null-subject language in which personal pronouns [man/I, to/you(singular), u/he,she,it , maa/we, shomaa/you(plural) , ishaan (aanha)/they (human and formal)] are optional and can be omitted especially in daily conversational usage. There is no systematic gender distinction between third person pronouns and both male and female are referred to as *u* in singular and *ishan* or *aanha* in plural form.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The main question of this research is to discuss the pronominal reversal phenomenon among Iranian autistic children and to study the probable effects of pro-drop feature of Persian on pronominal reversal.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

The approach of this paper is descriptive – analytical one. The main objective of this research is to study the pronominal reversal phenomena among Iranian young adults between the age of ... and... suffering from autism syndrome. The data of this research is gathered from the oral productions of a group of 20 Iranian 5-10 year- old boys and researchers recorded and transcribed the speech of this group within a one week observation process to investigate the pronominal reversal mechanism in their oral speech and to illustrate the features of this speech difficulty in a pro-drop context. To initiate the analysis it is essential to introduce the verbal morphology and inflection system of Persian very briefly.

Persian has a considerably regular verbal morphology in which verbs generally have two stems (past and present) and from either of these stems all the tenses of verbs in Persian are formed. Persian has six personal inflectional terminations (endings/suffixes) which are equally used to form past and present tense forms. These endings are illustrated in the table below:

Personal inflectional suffixes of Persian

	singular	plural
1	-am <i>Man mixor-am</i> (<i>I eat-present 1st</i>) <i>I eat</i> <i>Man xord-am</i> (<i>I eat-past 1st</i>) <i>I ate</i>	-im <i>Maa mixor-im</i> (<i>we eat-present 1st</i>) <i>We eat</i> <i>Maa xord-im</i> (<i>we eat-past 1st</i>) <i>We ate</i>
2	-i To mixor-i (<i>You eat-present 2nd</i>) <i>You eat</i> To xord-i (<i>you eat-past 2nd</i>) <i>You ate</i>	-id (-in) <i>Shoma mixor-id/-in</i> (<i>you eat-present 2nd</i>) <i>You eat</i> <i>Shoma xord-id/-in</i> (<i>you eat-past 2nd</i>) <i>You ate</i>
3	-ad (present) <i>U mixor-ad</i> (<i>He/she/it eat-present 3rd</i>) <i>He/she/it eats</i> -Ø (past) <i>U xord</i> (<i>he/she/it eat-past 3rd</i>) <i>He/she it ate</i>	-and (-an) <i>Ishaan/aanha mixor-and/-an</i> <i>They eat</i>

As it is clear in the table above, Persian has a regular inflectional system and the personal endings show the person feature in each verb; consequently, the personal pronouns can be dropped due to the fact that verbs show agreement in person and number features. In the following, we illustrate and discuss the complexities and deficiencies of the oral speech of the observed group to explore the mechanism of pronominal reversal among Persian speaker autistic children. In the following we briefly illustrate some cases of pronominal reversal extracted from the body of data gathered in this research:

[context: Puya,8 years old ,with Asperger syndrome, busy drawing a car on his notebook with his trainer]

Trainer : /dar-i che kar mikon-i?/

Are-you what doing –you

“ what are you doing?”

Puya: / naghashi mikesh-am/

Picture drawing – I

“ I am drawing picture”

Trainer : /man dar-am che kar mikon-am?/



I-am what doing – I
“ what am I doing?”
Puya: / naghashi mikeshe-am/
Picture drawing – I
“ I am drawing picture”

[context: Danial, 7 years old ,with Asperger syndrome, busy doing mathematics with his trainer]

Trainer : /Danial, in chand ta ast?/
Danial this how many is ?
“ Danial, how many is this”
Danial: 10
Trainer: /khob, Danial chand ta dayere bayad bekesh-e?/
well , Danial how many circle should draw- he?
“well, how many circles should Danial draw?”
Danial: 10
Trainer: /pas, beshmor-e va bekesh-e/
So, count-he and draw-he
“ so, count and draw (he- 3rd person)”
Danial: 1 ,2 ,3 ...

[context: Ali ,5.5 years old ,with Asperger syndrome, busy eating lunch with his trainer]

Trainer : /dar-i che kar mikon-i?/
Are-you what doing –you
“ what are you doing?”
Ali: / qaza mikhor-e /
food eatwing – he
“ he is eating food ”
Trainer: /chizi nemikhay?/
Something need?
“need something”
Ali: / ab mikha-d/
Water want-he
“ he wants water”

[context: Reza ,7 years old ,with Asperger syndrome, busy playing with occupation flashcard with his trainer]

Trainer : / nunva che kar mikone?/
Baker what does do
“ what does baker do”
Reza: / nun mipaze/
Bread bakes
“ he bakes bread”
Trainer: / naqash che kar mikone?
Painter what does do
“ what does painter do”
Reza: / divar rang mikone/
Wall paint
“ he paints wall”
Trainer : / to dari he kar mikoni?/
You Are-you what doing –you
“ what are you doing?”
Reza: / javab mide/
Answer he
“ he answers ”

CONCLUSION

In this article we try to outline the pronoun phenomenon among Iranian children suffering from autistic syndrome. Our study showed that in Persian as a pro drop language the pronoun omission is not as pivotal as subjective suffixes. It is due to the fact that in pro-drop languages such as Persian generally the subjective pronoun can be dropped by native speakers; consequently, the role of inflectional nominative suffixes is more prominent. The data analyzing this article confirmed this situation among the sick children. We also observed that there is a general trend of simplification in education process of autistic children. As a result, this children normally choose third person singular form as the simplest linguistic form in the verb conjugation of Persian. As a default form autistic children use this simplest form even to refer to themselves.

The second finding of this article is that in some cases the problem of autistic children oral production is not exclusively related to lack of understanding of the question. We observed that in some cases echolalia phenomenon is responsible for ill formed structures produced by the children.

Ultimately we suggested that the term “pronoun reversal” is not an exact and straight forward word to describe this phenomenon in the pro drop languages such as Persian. Our rationale for this suggestion is that in pro drop languages autistic children do not definitely use the pronouns reversely, the main point is that they almost always drop the pronouns instead.

Limitations of the Study

The researchers faced some limitations in conducting current research, the most important one was taking the necessary o agreement of the responsibilities. It seems that the officials in clinical centers should become more aware about the benefits of such multi-disciplinary studies for both the linguists and the speech traps.

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REALIZATION OF RHETORICAL MOVES AND VERB TENSE VARIATION IN TWO
SUBDISCIPLINES OF COMPUTER SCIENCES: ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE AND ARCHITECTURE

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ABSTRACT

A research article abstract is the first part a reader examines to decide to keep reading the article, because it is a concise summary of the research article. The present study was aimed at exploring the rhetorical moves and the verb tense of each move of abstracts in the fields of Artificial Intelligence and Architecture: two influential subfields in Computer Sciences. Thirty two abstracts from four journals published in 2013 were examined. Hyland's (2000) five-rhetorical move model was chosen as the analytical framework for this purpose. The findings indicated that there were four conventional moves and one optional move in abstracts in both related disciplines. In terms of verb tense, present tense is the preferred tense in both subdisciplines. The findings also showed no significant disciplinary variation. The implications are discussed in light of the results of the study.

KEYWORDS: Research article abstracts, move analysis, verb tense, abstracts, subdisciplinary variation, genres

INTRODUCTION

Academic writing is the area with which second language learners have many problems. These problems are more pronounced when language learners come from content areas such as Chemistry. One difficulty relates to the general writing conventions such as punctuation and stylistic issues. Student writers often find it difficult to master the various punctuation marks and stylistics variations (Hirvela, Nussbaum, & Pierson, 2012). A second problem concerns the lexico-grammatical variations (Hyland, 2012). These lexico-grammatical variations include the presence of academic words, lexical bundles, special register very common in prospective field of the study, and predominance of certain grammatical structures. A third difficulty has to do with the macro structure of the different parts of a genre such as a research article (Swales, 1990, 2004). Students are often unaware of these generic structures which experienced members of the communities of practice share. Despite the plethora of research in the examination of rhetorical moves and verb tense variations in other disciplines, Artificial Intelligence and Architecture are two subfields for which little research in rhetorical moves and verb tense variation has been undertaken.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Writing in academic contexts poses great challenge for writers, especially for novice student writers. They are supposed to master the distinctive features of their disciplinary discourse, although rhetorical conventions are often different from those in their mother tongue. An effective way to help students cope with the challenges in academic writing could be to make students aware of writing style and conventions through genre analysis. This has actually been a major concern of the research in English for specific purposes (ESP) (Atai, 2013; Harding, 2006; Paltridge, 2013).

It is a fact that the abstract is one of the most important sections of any research article. Hyland (2000) states that "the abstract is generally the readers' first encounter with a text, and is often the point at which they decide whether to continue and give the accompanying article further attention or to ignore it" (p. 63). In Pho's (2008) words, "acquiring the skills of writing an abstract is therefore important to novice writers to enter the discourse community of their discipline" (p. 231). Abstracts have also been stated to "constitute 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). In other words, an abstract, according to Bhatia (1993), is "a description or factual summary of the much longer report, and is meant to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the full article" (p. 78).

Because of the importance of abstracts in the academic communities and their different formats in research articles, several authors have proposed guidelines about how abstracts should be written or structured, including Bhatia's

(1993) typical four-move model: (1) purpose, (2) method, (3) results, and (4) conclusions; Santos' (1996) five-move model: (1) Situating the research, (2) Presenting the research, (3) Describing the methodology, (4) Summarizing the results, and (5) Discussing the research; and Hyland's (2000) five-move model: (1) introduction, (2) purpose, (3) method, (4) product, and (5) conclusion. Not all published abstracts, however, necessarily follow these conventions. In what follows, we sketch out some empirical studies done in abstract writing.

The structure of research article abstracts and their variation across disciplines and cultures have been studied in scientific disciplines such as medicine, biomedicine, engineering, physics, biology, applied linguistics and so on. However, the studies of abstracts from two closely related disciplines are still in progress. For example, Samraj (2005) studied abstracts in relation to introduction from Conservation Biology and Wildlife Behavior research articles as a genre set and provided a new way of looking at abstracts. Pho (2008) studied the macro-organization of abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology and found some differences in terms of generic structure. Anderson and Maclean (1997) looked into the research abstracts written in medicine. The findings of their statistical analysis revealed that there was considerable variation in terms of moves used in the abstracts and that not all moves were present in the abstracts under investigation. In like manner, Cross and Oppenheim (2006) investigated the abstracts in Protozoology. The results of their investigation showed that the abstracts followed the tradition in terms of the five major moves, but only two moves were obligatory and the rest were optional.

Some researchers have analyzed linguistic realization of rhetorical moves in abstracts. Salager-Meyer (1992), for example, analyzed the abstracts written in medicine across various genres. This researcher found some very interesting results. He found that simple past tense and simple present tense are mainly used in medical abstracts for very different purposes. In another study, Tseng (2011) examined 90 research article abstracts in three applied linguistics journals. He found a four-move structure, and the dominant tense used was simple present tense. He attributed the dominance of present tense to the nature subdisciplines in applied linguistics.

As the above review of literature shows, significant variations can be discerned regarding the overall format of abstracts across disciplines. The literature also reveals that the tenses which authors employ in the rhetorical moves of abstracts may vary considerably ranging from simple present tense to simple past tense. This variation can be attributed to the different disciplines for which the authors publish, the different philosophies underlying these disciplines, and the constraints these disciplines exert on the authors. The above literature further shows that most of the analyses have been applied to parent disciplines, and sub-disciplines, or related sub-disciplines of the same discipline, are rarely addressed.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Given the paucity of research analysis in abstracts in sub-disciplines, we set out to analyse the abstracts of two interrelated sub disciplines—artificial intelligence and architecture—in computer sciences for which, to our mind, no research has been undertaken. We, therefore, posed the following research questions to focus our study on:

1. What are the features of the move structure of abstracts in terms of move frequency in the Artificial Intelligence and Architecture?
2. What is the preferred verb tense of each move in the abstracts of Artificial Intelligence and Architecture?

METHODOLOGY

The creation of the corpus

A total of 32 research article abstracts were selected from four journals in the field of computer sciences, two of which were related to Artificial Intelligence and the other two to Architecture. Eight of the articles were selected from journal of *Artificial Intelligence*, and eight of the articles from the journal of *Artificial Intelligence in Engineering* in the field of Artificial Intelligence. Eight of the articles were selected from *Parallel and Distributed Computing*, and eight of the articles from *Microprocessors and Microsystems* in the field of Architecture. All of the research articles (RAs) were selected from internationally peer-reviewed acclaimed journals with high impact factor. All 32 research articles in the four journals were published in 2013 by *Elsevier*. We selected 2013 research articles because they were accessible and they were the most recent. All research articles with the conventional format of Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion (IMRD) were selected.

The approach to the analysis of move structure

With the different existing models for abstract writing such as Bhatia's (1993) typical four-move model (traditional model), Santos' (1996) five-move model, and Hyland's (2000) five-move model, the question of which model was an appropriate model to use in the present study was difficult to decide. Ten research article abstracts from both disciplines were chosen for a pilot study, five research article abstracts from each discipline, to test the three models. It was found that some sentences were not included in any moves in Bhatia's (1993) typical four-move model as shown in following examples.

- An abstract extracted from the field of Artificial Intelligence:

In a seminal paper, Lin and Reiter introduced a model-theoretic definition for the progression of a basic action theory in the situation calculus, and proved that it implies the intended properties. They also showed that this definition comes with a strong negative result, namely that for certain cases first-order logic is not expressive enough to correctly characterize the progressed theory and second-order axioms are necessary. However, they also considered an alternative simpler definition according to which the progressed theory is always first-order definable. They conjectured that this alternative definition is incorrect in the sense that the progressed theory is too weak and may sometimes lose information. This conjecture and the status of the definability of progression in first-order logic has remained open since. In this paper we present two significant results about this alternative definition of progression.

- An abstract extracted from the field of Architecture:

Classification using Ant Programming is a challenging data mining task which demands a great deal of computational resources when handling data sets of high dimensionality. This paper presents a new parallelization approach of an existing multi-objective Ant Programming model for classification, using GPUs and the NVIDIA CUDA programming model.

As can be seen in the two extracts, they do not exactly match with the purpose-method-results-conclusions moves in Bhatia's (1993) model. As we mentioned earlier, most of the abstracts contained five moves. We, therefore, had to choose between Santos' (1996) model and Hyland's (2000) model. Santos' (1996) model was based on 94 abstracts in the field of applied linguistics, while Hyland's (2000) model was based on 800 abstracts across 8 disciplines including philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics, marketing, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, physics, and biology, with 100 abstracts in each discipline. Santos' (1996) model was limited to the field of applied linguistics, while Hyland's (2000) model covered the disciplines of sciences and social sciences. Hyland's model is better suited to the purpose of the present study to analyze research article abstracts as shown in Table 1 extracted from Hyland (2000, p. 67).

Table 1: Framework for abstract moves analysis function

Title	Description
Introduction	Establishes context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion.
Purpose	Indicates purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper.
Method	Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.
Product	States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.
Conclusion	Interprets or extends results beyond scope of paper, draws inferences, points to applications or wider implications.

To determine whether a move was optional or conventional, we counted the frequency of a particular move. According to Kanoksilapatham (2005), the conventional move should occur 60%. If the frequency of a move fell below 60%, the move was considered as an optional move.

Analysis of the verb tense of moves

This study focused on three verb tenses of the moves, namely, the present tense (including the present perfect), the past tense, and the future tense. The purpose of the analysis was to realize the preferred verb tense used in each move of an abstract.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Move Frequency

To answer the first research question (What are the features of the move structure of abstracts in terms of move frequency in the Artificial Intelligence and Architecture?), we present the following pieces of information. Hyland's (2000) model was applied to analyze the rhetorical structure of research article abstracts. The results of the occurrences of moves are illustrated in Tables 2 and 3.

Table 2: The occurrences of moves in the abstracts from the two journals in the field of AI

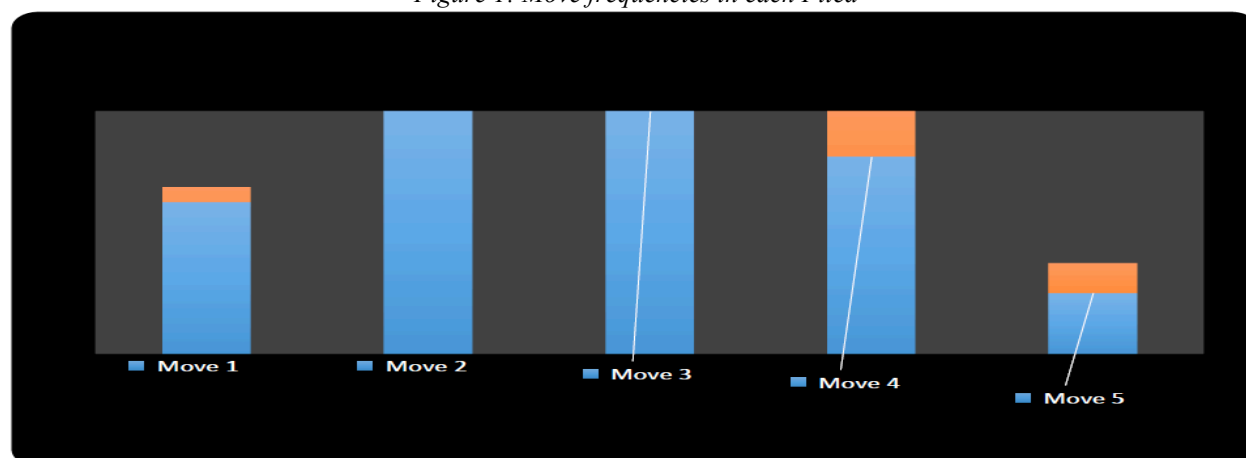
Move	Journals		Move occurrences
	Artificial Intelligence	Artificial Intelligence in Engineering	
Introduction	6	4	10 (62.5%)
Purpose	8	8	16 (100%)
Method	8	8	16 (100%)
Product	8	5	13 (81.25%)
Conclusion	2	2	4 (25%)

Table 3: The occurrences of moves in the abstracts from the two journals in the field of Architecture

Move	Journals		Move occurrences
	Parallel and Distributed Computing	Microprocessors and Microsystems	
Introduction	7	4	11 (68.75%)
Purpose	8	8	16 (100%)
Method	8	8	16 (100%)
Product	8	8	16 (100%)
Conclusion	4	2	6 (37.5%)

The analysis of move frequency could tell us which moves were conventional and which were optional. Most of the abstracts in the corpus had three or four moves. Based on the move frequency, Introduction move, Purpose move, Method move, and Product move were conventional moves because the percentage of occurrence was greater than 60% (See Tables 2 and 3). In the present study, Conclusion move was classified as optional in both fields because the percentage of occurrence was less than 60%. It is also interesting to mention that in Hyland's study (2000), this move is used in 21% of the abstracts and mostly in the discipline of biology and marketing. He noted that conclusions explicitly emphasize the value of the paper, either that of the discipline or that of the community and it can be concluded that the higher percentage of this move in RAs may help to promote the value of RAs. Move frequencies of each field can be visually displayed in Figure 1. As can be seen, the low frequency of Conclusion move and high frequency of other four moves in two related disciplines in Computer Sciences show that there is not significant subdisciplinary variation between the fields of **Architecture** and **Artificial Intelligence** in terms of move structure in abstracts.

Figure 1: Move frequencies in each Filed



Verb Tense of the Abstract Moves

The second research question in this study was what is the preferred verb tense of each move in the abstracts of Artificial Intelligence and Architecture? To answer this question, we present the following pieces of information. In Table 4 and Table 5, we present the number of frequencies and percentages of verb tenses.

Table 4: Verb tense frequency in each moves in the abstracts from the two journals in the field of AI

Verb tense	Journals		Total number of occurrences
	Artificial Intelligence	Artificial Intelligence in Engineering	
Introduction			
Present	6	4	10 (62.5%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Purpose			
Present	8	8	16 (100%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Method			
Present	8	8	16 (100%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Product			
Present	8	5	13 (81.25%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Conclusion			
Present	2	0	2 (2.34%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	2	2 (2.34%)

Table 5: Verb tense frequency in each moves in the abstracts from the two journals in the field of Architecture

Verb tense	Journals		Total number of occurrences
	Journal of Distributed Computing	Parallel and Microprocessors and Microsystems	
Introduction			
Present	7	4	11(68.75%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Purpose			
Present	8	8	16 (100%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Method			
Present	8	8	16 (100%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Product			
Present	8	8	16 (100%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)
Conclusion			
Present	4	2	6 (37.5%)
Past	0	0	0 (0%)
Future	0	0	0 (0%)

As can be seen above, in the field of Computer Sciences, the preference of using present tense to the past and future tense was found in the four journals in two related disciplines (Architecture and Artificial Intelligence). In addition, in the present study the future tense was just observed in Conclusion move in Architecture, but in low frequency and past tense was not found in both fields.

Discussion

Discussion of the first research question

The results of this study revealed five moves are present in both Artificial Intelligence and Architecture. This implies that, in both subfields, moves are present, but only four moves are conventional and one is optional. One possible explanation concerning the optional Conclusion move is that in computer Sciences the procedures the researchers use to arrive at results are considered more important than mere presentation of implications. This could be a cogent reason why Purpose move and Method move have exactly the same frequency and percentages in four subfields. The findings further confirm the five-move model proposed by Hyland (2000). As the results of this study show, Hyland's model is more powerful to be applied to research article abstracts in Artificial Intelligence and Architecture in so far as the subfields are concerned.

Discussion of the second research question

Simple present tense is the dominant verb tense in two subdisciplines of Computer Sciences. The findings are in line with Tseng (2011) who found that simple present tense was dominantly used in applied linguistics. The findings of the study, however, are not in keeping with those of Swales and Feak (2004) who found that researchers often use simple present tense in the opening and concluding sentences of their abstracts, but there could be a lot of variability in other parts of the abstract. One reason why so many variations are found in many disciplines could be attributed to the different world views the researchers impose on their pieces of writing. One possible reason for the

dominance of presence of simple present tense in these two subdisciplines of Computer Sciences is because the procedures or the findings might be regarded as true, hence the use of simple present tense.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examined 32 research article abstracts from four journals in two related disciplines in Computer Sciences, Artificial Intelligence and Architecture from two perspectives: the move frequency and the verb tense of each move. The major findings are summarized below.

First, considering rhetorical structure of abstracts, Conclusion move is optional and Introduction, Purpose, Method, and Product moves are conventional in both subdisciplines and we did not have significant disciplinary variation in related journals of Architecture and Artificial Intelligence. Second, given the verb tense of each move, present tense was the preferred verb tense. Moreover, there were no variations in this regard between the abstracts written in both Architecture and Artificial Intelligence.

Pedagogical implications

The findings of the present study have some pedagogical implications. The rhetorical structure and some linguistic features of research article abstracts can be included in academic writing courses for all students in these two subfields of Computer Sciences to prepare them to participate in their professional communities. In ESP courses, students really need to be aware of generic structure and some important linguistic features of the research article abstracts in their disciplines. Having such knowledge is important for them in order to help them to make progress in their study and academic career. In order to provide useful instruction on abstract writing to inexperienced writers, they should be equipped with how an abstract is constructed in different academic situations. To reach this goal, such information should come from corpus-based research findings and demonstrate the differences between disciplines and as we know this job is the major interest in ESP.

Limitations of the study

This study is limited in some ways. The corpus we constructed was very small, comprising 32 research article abstracts from only four journals. The findings of this study, therefore, should be treated with caution. We suggest that researchers in the future create larger corpora in these two closely related subfields of Computer Sciences to ensure the same results will be obtained with larger corpora. Another limitation was that the abstracts were selected from journals which were published in 2013, which limit the transferability and generalisability of the findings. We, therefore, recommend that researchers do not limit themselves to a very limited time period to obtain more robust results. This requires selection of abstracts from journals published over a longer time span.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNERS' GOAL-ORIENTED AND SELF-REGULATED
LEARNING AND THEIR ENDORSEMENT OF L2 LEARNING STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

This research aimed to study the relationships between students' goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and their use of different language learning strategies among 125 Iranian University students (Mage = 22.2, 75.2% females ; 24.8% males). To this end, students completed Persian versions of goal orientation scale, self-regulated trait questionnaire, and strategy inventory for language learning. The results indicated that: (a) goal orientation was significantly associated to language learning strategies and mastery and performance goal orientations also were positively related to language learning strategies, (b) self-regulated learning had a significant relationship with language learning strategies and all four subscales of self-regulated learning (Planning, Effort, Self-efficacy, Self-checking) were positively associated with language learning strategies. Implications and directions for future research on the goal orientation, self-regulated learning, and language learning strategies construct are discussed.

KEYWORDS: Achievement goal orientation, Self-regulated Learning, Language learning strategies, Teaching English as a Foreign Language

INTRODUCTION

Language teaching is an interdisciplinary field with other areas such as Linguistics, Psychology, Sociology and Culture relevant to it. These areas have had a noticeable effect on the process of foreign language teaching practice through the history. Over the past few decades, a prominent shift has been occurred from teaching to learning within the field of foreign/second language education. This shift helps students become more effective learners and facilitates the activation of a learner-centered philosophy (Nunan, 1988, 1995a,b). It is also believed that learners who have developed skills in learning-how-to-learn will be able to exploit classroom learning opportunities effectively, and will be more adequately equipped to continue with language learning outside the classroom.

Increased interest in student-centered learning approaches amongst language educators has led to numerous studies investigating individual differences and their relationship to achievement in learning second/foreign languages (Herman, 1990; Galbraith & Gardner, 1988; Oxford, 1992; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Learner differences include language learning strategies (LLS) and two new constructs in the realm of educational psychology, namely, self-regulated learning (SRL) and goal orientation (GO), among other factors. These three areas are the focus of the current article. Other major areas of individual differences relate to learning aptitude, gender, culture, age, and other demographic variables, but this study has inadequate space to deal with these.

Moreover, teachers and educational researchers have particularly attended the issue of individual differences among language learners. One of their concerns is that why language learners do not perform similarly in language learning activities while they are presented the same method. Therefore, learners may differ from each other in the goals, styles and strategies they set for learning a foreign language and the degree to which they control or direct the mental processes involved in language learning. It is obvious because not all language learners have the same goal for learning a language and not all language learners exercise the same degree of regulation over their learning.

SRL, LLS as well as GO appear to be associated with differences among language learners. Self-regulation is viewed as a process that can help explain achievement differences among students and improve their achievement (Boekaerts et al., 2000). Moreover, self-regulated learners use effectively LLS especially cognitive and

metacognitive strategies such as planning learning activities, monitoring learning processes, and regulating the use of cognitive strategies (Hong, Peng, & Rowell 2009).

Additionally, achievement goal theory posits that students' behavior in achievement setting is guided by the achievement goals they construe for learning (Ames, 1992; Pintrich, 2000), and these goals determine their approach to, engagement in, and evaluation of performance in academic learning (Urdu, 1997).

Clearly, each of the three constructs will make learners show different degrees of commitment, engagement and involvement to the learning tasks. As a result, the researchers intended to investigate the relationship between SRL and GO with LLS in the context of foreign language learning. In other words, this study aimed to investigate self-regulated or goal-oriented learners' ideas about LLS to enhance their academic achievement. In addition, the researchers were keen on to find out which of the subscales of SRL and GO were significantly related to LLS and how these constructs can be relevant to educational settings.

Self-regulated Learning

Recently, researchers and practitioners have shown increased attention to the concept SRL (Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000). Although there are a variety of theoretical perspectives on SRL, it is generally viewed as a complex, multi-faceted process that integrates motivational variables (e.g., self-efficacy, and task interest) with other self-processes (e.g., goal-setting, use of learning strategies, and self-recording) in order to help a person effectively manage or regulate one's behaviors (Boekaerts, Pintrich, & Zeidner, 2000; Weinstein, Husman, & Dierking, 2000). Students who are defined as "self-regulated" participate proactively in the learning process—emotionally, motivationally, and cognitively (Zimmerman & Schunk, 1989). These students self-activate and self-direct efforts to acquire knowledge and skills by implementing specific strategies rather than just passively reacting to their teachers' instructions.

Zimmerman (2000) defines self-regulation as "self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals"(p.14).In this new definition of self-regulation Zimmerman believes in cyclical nature of self-generated learning. He believes the feedback from prior performance is used to make adjustments during current efforts (Zimmerman, 2000).

According to Zimmerman (2000, 2001), what characterizes self-regulating students is their active participation in learning from the meta cognitive, motivational, and behavioral point of view. Zimmerman (2000) believes that self-regulated learners are proactive in use of strategies to achieve self-set goals. Students with stronger levels of overall self-regulation, measured with tasks that necessitate integrating multiple component skills, specifically attention, working memory, and inhibitory control, generally achieve at higher levels compared to students with weaker overall self-regulation(Howse, Calkins, Anastopoulos, Keane, & Shelton, 2003; McClelland et al., 2007; Ponitz, McClelland, Matthews, & Morrison, 2009).

Self-regulated learning and self-efficacy

Self-regulation of learning involves selecting appropriate learning strategies, assessing one's knowledge, self-correcting when necessary, and understanding the importance of strategy use. But knowledge of cognitive and meta cognitive tools is not sufficient to ensure academic success. Individuals need to possess the confidence to implement self-regulation strategies: "Firm belief in one's self-regulatory skills provides the staying power" (Bandura, 1993, p. 136). Self-efficacy for self-regulation reflects an individual's beliefs in his or her capabilities to use a variety of learning strategies, resist distractions, complete schoolwork, and participate in class learning, and has been found to influence academic achievement (Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992).

According to Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990), students with higher levels of self-efficacy are more likely to engage in SRL. However, students' levels of engagement in SRL also correlate with their levels of self-efficacy.

Self-Regulated Learning and Motivation

Studies on SRL in recent years take in contribution from cognitive theories of motivation, starting by Atkinson's model of expectancy time value (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). They highlight the importance of self-efficacy expectation and the importance of goals (reasons for performing the tasks) both being the critical aspects of motivation that influence control and regulation of learning. Pintrich (2003) observed that students with better self-regulatory skills tended to be more academically motivated and displayed better learning.

Wolters (2003) defines self-regulation of motivation as the more or less conscious control over one's own motivation which mostly serves to increase effort and persistence.

More contemporary models of motivation have been advanced that emphasize constructs such as task value, interest, and self-efficacy that affect motivational process and outcome (Wolters, 2003). Students' motivational beliefs (e.g., task value, and self-efficacy) and motivational outcome (e.g., effort expenditure) are positively related to the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Schunk, 2001). Zimmerman (1990) describes the cyclical relationship between motivational and meta cognitive components of self-regulation by positing that a learner's use of cognitive and meta cognitive strategies enhances perceptions of self-efficacy, which in turn are assumed to provide the motivational basis for further self-regulation during learning. Thus, as students learn to self-regulate their learning, they become independent learners, taking responsibility for their own learning.

Self-Regulated Learning and Language Learning Strategy

Tatseng, Doñ rnyei, and Schmitt (2006) believe that while some of the research in the realm of LLS has explicitly sought to push the theoretical understanding of LLS forward, the majority of the work in the learning strategy literature had more practical goals, namely to explore ways of empowering language learners to become more self-directed and effective in their learning. In general, Tatseng et al. (2006) assert that strategy specialists believe that learners with strategic knowledge of language learning, compared with those without, become more efficient, resourceful, and flexible, thus acquiring a language more easily.

Recently, Weinstein, Husman, and Dierking (2000) have defined learning strategies as “any thoughts, behaviors, beliefs, or emotions that facilitate the acquisition, understanding, or later transfer of new knowledge and skills” (p.727). Weinstein et al. (2000) offer three critical characteristics of strategic learning: it is goal-directed, intentionally invoked, and effortful.

Accordingly, learners engage in strategic learning if they exert purposeful effort to select, and then pursue, learning procedures that they believe will increase their individual learning effectiveness. It can be concluded and implied that it is not what learners do that makes them strategic learners but rather the fact that they put creative effort into trying to improve their own learning. This is an important shift from focusing on the product—the actual techniques employed—to the self-regulatory process itself and the specific learner capacity underlying it (Tatseng, Doñ rnyei, & Schmitt, 2006).

SRL involves the use of strategies (i.e., rehearsal, elaboration, organization, and critical thinking strategies), aimed at facilitating the encoding of to-be-learned material, strategies aimed at motivational and affective regulation, as well as those aimed at monitoring one's comprehension (Pintrich, 1999). Such strategies are used by the learner to gauge his/her progress in meeting a learning goal, and upon the absence of progress, subsequently adjust or modify learning strategies (Paris & Paris, 2001; Pintrich, 2002; Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993). Research indicates that metacognitive strategies are positively associated with a host of motivational constructs (for a review see Schunk & Ertmer, 2000) including, for example, self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation.

Achievement Goal Orientation

Goal theory has developed within a social cognitive approach to motivation that emphasizes cognitive factors, such as how individuals interpret situations, the events of situations, and how they process information about these situations (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Dweck, 1989). Goals are one of the major determinants of how people feel about, react to and cognitively process success or failure (Ames & Archer, 1988; Dweck, 1989).

Elliot and McGregor (2001) conceptualized a “2 × 2 achievement goal frame work”, in which four types of GO are derived by combining a mastery versus performance dimension and an approach versus avoidance dimension. The mastery approach or task goal orientation describes those seeking to learn all there is to learn; the mastery-avoidance orientation describes those motivated to avoid not learning what there is to learn; the performance-approach orientation describes those motivated to perform better than their peers; and the performance-avoidance orientation describes those looking to avoid performing poorly relative to others.

Achievement Goal Orientation and Learning Strategies

The achievement goal framework posits that one consequence of GO adoption is differential usage of various strategies for learning (e.g., Pintrich, 2000b). Learning strategies are frequently operationalized with measures of disorganization (i.e., whether a methodical approach to learning is adopted), deep versus surface processing (i.e., whether new knowledge is carefully evaluated and integrated vs. merely rehearsed and memorized), or usage of various cognitive (e.g., rehearsal and elaboration) and meta-cognitive (e.g., planning and regulating) strategies (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993).

Research suggests that mastery-approach is an adaptive motivator. Students adopting a mastery-approach goal orientation tend to use high levels of deep cognitive strategies, such as elaboration, as well as meta cognitive and self-regulatory strategies (Covington, 2000; Elliot, 2005; Gabriele, 2007; Harackiewicz, Barron, Tauer, & Elliot, 2002).

Research has also demonstrated the adaptive effects of a performance-approach goal orientation on valued educational outcomes such as deep cognitive strategies, positive affects, positive peer relationships, and classroom grades. In contrast, students who adopt a performance-avoidance goal orientation are more likely to use surface cognitive strategies such as rote memorization and rehearsal (Liem, Lau, & Nie, 2008).

Achievement Goal Orientations and Self-handicapping Strategies

Molden and Dweck (2000) propose that self-handicapping is strongly related to performance-avoidance goals due to student anxieties regarding their academic performance. Self-handicapping requires the individual to forgo the possibility of performing well in order to avoid the demonstration of incompetence. Use of such strategies includes procrastination, purposely not trying, or finding excuses for not studying. Research shows these strategies to be positively related to performance goal orientations and negatively related to academic self-efficacy and performance outcomes (Urdu, Midgley, & Anderman, 1998).

Achievement Goal Orientation and Self-regulated Learning

Lemos (1999) believes that self-regulation is the individual's capacity to modulate behavior according to internal and external changing circumstances. While diverse forms of behavior regulation can accomplish these processes, self-regulation necessitates the self-definition of a reference point for behavior modulation.

Furthermore, she asserts that this referent is the individual's personal goals, rather than the 'changing circumstances. She explains that circumstances are subjective and relational in nature, representing a particular state of relationships between individuals and their perceived environment. Since personal goals are products of relationships between individuals and their worlds, self-regulation encompasses changing the existing circumstances. Therefore, goal-setting is viewed as the effective initial component of self-regulated behavior. Accordingly Lemos (1999) believes SRL involves the individual's capacity to organize behavior according to one's purposes (goals).

Students who pursue a learning goal value learning itself and rely on effort to attain that goal. Their goal orientation is conducive to self-regulated behavior in the academic domain. In contrast, students who pursue performance goals value normative ability standards and avoid effort utilization. Attention is focused on evaluation of one's ability and directed away from the requirements of the task. This goal orientation makes self-regulation more difficult (Lemos, 1999).

The Present Study

The study of SRL and GO along with learning strategies subsume a number of important psychological concepts (see Literature review) and have the potential to make a much-needed contribution to explain individual differences in learning a foreign language. Hence, the researchers of this study felt that the time had come to find out how much Iranian EFL learners were engaged in the process of self-regulation and GO and whether any relationship could be found between these two constructs and LLS.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal-oriented learning and various LLS?

Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' SRL and different LLS?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The broad aim of the project was to investigate how Iranian students' self-regulation and GO trait relate to their opinion about LLS. To this end, three questionnaires, Goal Orientation Scale (GOS) developed by Midgley, Kaplan, Middleton, and Maehr (1998), Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire (SRTQ) developed by O'Neil and Herl (1998), and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) designed by Oxford (1990), were administered to 150 students who were randomly recruited from undergraduate classes in the English Language and Literature department from a large urban University located in the Mid-Eastern Iran. Participants of the current study included sophomore, junior, and senior who majority of them were from urban communities around Iran. They were from different geographic regions of Iran, representing Persian as their first language. When ranked based on tested proficiency with English there were 73 Intermediate, and 77 Advanced learners. The test assessed listening, speaking, reading, grammar, and composition. The students' years of formal English instruction (i.e., English learned in any academic setting) ranged from 3 to 10. The majority of the participants were learning English to seek higher education or to earn a degree after completion of the university. The average age of the participants was 22.2 and there were 94 females (75.2%) and 31 males (24.8%). They were aged between 19 and 25 years. Upon recruitment, each subject was given a general description of the study and time obligations. After inspecting their completed questionnaires, 25 participants were eliminated due to the following: not completing a page or two of the questionnaires, showing insincerity in their responses (e.g., all "3"s on one page and all "2"s on another), they were either absent from the university on the days the survey was conducted or they decided not to participate.

Instruments

Goal Orientation Scale

In order to measure the participants' achievement goal orientation, the English version of GOS (Midgley, et al. 1998) was used. The English version of this questionnaire consisted of 18 items, each 6 items measuring a different GO; namely, task goal orientation, ability-approach goal orientation and ability-avoid goal orientation. See appendix A for method of scoring. Examples of the items are: "An important reason why I do my work in school is because I want to get better at it" (*Task goal orientation*); "It's important to me that the other students in my classes think that I am good at my work." (*Ability-approach goal orientation*); "It's very important to me that I don't look stupid in my classes." (*Ability-avoid goal orientation*). The focus of this instrument is on how students think about themselves, their tasks, and their performance. Actually its assessment is based on the definition of achievement goals as purposes or reasons for achievement behavior which are the most important criteria.

Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire

Also, the researchers used SRTQ developed by O'Neil and Herl (1998) to determine the extent to which the participants of this study engaged in the process of SRL. The English version of this questionnaire had 32 items and each group of 8 items measured four constructs: Planning, Self-checking, Effort and Self-efficacy. See appendix B for method of scoring. It is possible to state that the SRTQ covers the dimensions of Meta-cognition and Motivation. Each comprises two subscales. For Meta-cognition the subscales are planning and self-monitoring. For motivation they are effort and self-efficacy. There are some examples of items: "I determine how to solve a task before I begin." (*Planning*); "I ask myself questions to stay on track as I do a task." (*Self-checking*); "I put forth my best effort on tasks." (*Effort*); "I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in this course." (*Self-efficacy*).

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

Students' endorsement of use of LLS was assessed using the version 7.0 of SILL developed by Oxford (1990). The 50 quantitative, closed-ended items SILL was used to measure participants' different use of LLS. The SILL contains six factor-analytically created strategy categories: Memory-related, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective, and social. See appendix C for method of scoring. Additionally, it is valuable to give some examples of items: "I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them." (*Memory*); "I use the English word I know in different ways." (*Cognitive*); "If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing." (*Compensatory*); "I practice my English with other students." (*Social*); "I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English." (*Affective*); "I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English." (*Metacognitive*).

To respond to the GOS, SRTQ, SILL items, students were asked to indicate which academic situation motivates them most in their study on a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = almost never to 5 = almost always).

Since the questionnaires of this study should be standardized in Iran, therefore, the researchers decided to use the Persian versions of GOS and SRTQ that were translated and validated by Dehghan (2005) and the Persian version of SILL, which was used and validated by Tahmasbi (1999). The Cronbach alpha reliability of the translated version of SILL was calculated to be .77 in line with the target sample.

The Cronbach alpha reliability for Persian version of GOS which was calculated by Dehghan was found to be .79. For counting validity of GOS Dehghan (2005) used Principal Axis Factoring to analyze all 18 items. He declared that 15 of the 18 items of the Persian version of GOS fulfilled the acceptable criteria, which is convincing evidence that this instrument enjoys construct validity. Dehghan (2005) also tested the reliability of the Persian version of SRTQ. He found the alpha reliability to be .78. Dehghan (2005) analyzed all 32 items and concluded that 28 of the 32 items of Persian version of SRTQ were appropriate to use with main sample which demonstrate evidence of the construct validity. The reliability of GOS for current study was .84 for whole questionnaire and reliability for task, ability-approach, and ability-avoid goal orientation was .70, .62, .59 respectively using Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach's α calculated for SRTQ in this study revealed an acceptable reliability of .91 and reliability of subscales of SRL was .76, .75, .79, and .80 for planning, self-checking, effort, and self-efficacy respectively.

Procedure

The analyses conducted in the present study were based on the data from three scales of investigation titled GOS, SRTQ, SILL. The modified Persian versions of GOS, SRTQ and SILL were administered to 150 English majors in one session lasting between 30 to 40 minutes. To encourage participants' truthful answers, it was emphasized that their responses would be confidential and would not affect their grades. Participants were also told that there were no right or wrong answers to any of the questions and that honest responding was of great importance in the study. The participants were required to rate the items of the scale using a 5-point Likert Scale. A score was assigned to each answer which ranged from 1 "Almost never" to 5 "Almost Always".

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 provides the means and standard deviations among the major variables of interest. Indeed, the aim of this study is firstly to examine the global effects of SRL and GO then goes through their specific subscales. In this regard, students from our sample revealed that they were more goal oriented learners ($M 66.33$) while endorsing various learning strategies ($M 1.58$). Simple contrast of subscales of goal orientation's means indicated that students rated mastery (task) goals ($M 24.61$) and performance goals ($M 22.04$) the highest whereas avoidance goals ($M 20.12$) were the lowest as they adopt different LLS. In terms of SRL, the general trend was that individuals firstly had a tendency to check their learning process ($M 30.54$) in relation to use of LLS. In other words, self-checking was slightly more endorsed ($M 30.54$) than effort, planning, and self-efficacy ($M 27.7040$, $M 27.6160$, $M 27.6240$, respectively). Thus, the most used item for the participants was self-checking and the least applied one was planning while they were valuing different learning strategies. In general, it seemed that GO construct suppressed SRL along with learning strategies.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for the variables

Variables	Mean	SD
SILL	1.5846E2	22.61834
GoalOrientation	66.3360	10.87832
Task goal	24.6160	5.44145
Performancegoal	22.0400	4.09051
Avoidance goal	20.1280	4.18133
SRL	1.1331E2	16.86924
Effort	27.7040	5.27322
Planning	27.6160	5.63655
Self-efficacy	27.6240	4.75643
Self-checking	30.5440	4.88332

Note: N: 125. SILL is the abbreviation of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning and SRL is the abbreviation of self-regulated learning.

Table 2 shows correlations among major variables. The GO and SILL scales were positively and significantly correlated ($r = .21, p = .016$) with each other. Similarly, the task goal and performance goal were positively and significantly correlated with the SILL ($r = .22, p = .011$, and $r = .23, p = .008$, respectively), but avoidance goal was not significantly correlated with SILL ($r = .05, p = .532$), however it was positively correlated with SILL, indicating that the avoidance- performance goal scale may be slightly less associated with valuing LLS than mastery and approach goals with learning strategies. The SRL and SILL constructs were also positively correlated ($r = .48$). Finally, all four subscales of SRL, namely, effort, planning, self-efficacy, and self-checking were positively associated with SILL ($r = .40, r = .31, r = .31$, and $r = .22$, respectively). Hatch and Lazaraton (1995) call a correlation of .30 to .50 (an overlap of 9% to 25%) "An acceptable correlation" (p.442). They also believe that "A correlation in the .30s or lower may appear weak, but in educational research such a correlation might be very important" (p.442). Therefore, although the correlation coefficient is not very high, it is "an acceptable correlation".

Table 2: Self-regulation, goal orientation and SILL measures: correlations

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.SILL	-	.215*	.227*	.237**	.056**	.485**	.407**	.319**	.310**	.226*
		.016	.011	.008	.532	.000	.000	.000	.000	.011
2.GoalOrientation			.832**	.825**	.803**					
3. Task goal				.756**	.607**					
4.Performancegoal					.651**					
5. Avoidance goal										
6.SRL						.803**	.514**	.614**	.610**	
7.Effort							.349**	.403**	.456**	
8.Planning								.213*	.415*	
9.Self-efficacy									.245**	
10.Self-checking										

Note: N:125. All p-values reported in this table are two-tailed. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. SILL is the abbreviation of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning.

Due to the fact that the statistical procedures used in this study required the normal distribution of the gathered data, information regarding the normality of distribution of the data were checked by the use of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (See Table 3).

Table 3: K-S test of normality of the data distribution

Parameters		Goal orientation	SRL	SILL
N		125	125	125
Normal Parameters	Mean	66.3360	1.1331E2	1.5846E2
Std. Deviation		10.87832	1.68692E1	2.26183E1
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.091	.073	.046
Positive		.060	.045	.046
Negative		-.091	-.073	-.037
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.019	.821	.513

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.251	.510	.955
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a. Test distribution is normal, Self-regulated learning (SRL), Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

As shown in the Table 3, the p -value for SILL is .95 which is greater than .05. This means that there is no evidence against the null hypothesis that the sample has been drawn from a normal distribution. Also, the p -values for GOS and SRTQ are .25 and .51 respectively. These p -values are greater than .05, which mean that the null hypothesis that the sample was drawn from a normal distribution is accepted.

Regression analyses

Having examined Pearson correlations between SRL, GOS, and SILL, now all the variables are considered in analytic processes. First, the hypothesis which SRL predicts SILL was tested. Then, whether goal orientation could predict endorsement of learning strategies or not was examined. In terms of SRL, the results showed (Table. 3) that two parameters were not statistically significant at $p < .05$. These non-significant parameters included self-efficacy ($\beta = .15$, $t = 1.79$) and self-checking ($\beta = -.01$, $t = -.16$). After removing the non-significant paths from the process, the regression of SILL on effort and planning were statistically significant respectively, $R = .40$, $R^2 = .16$, $p < .05$, $R = .44$, $R^2 = .20$, $p < .05$. Both effort and planning were significantly predictors of use of LLS respectively, $\beta = .40$, $t = 4.94$, $\beta = .20$, $t = 2.33$.

Another multiple regression analysis was performed to examine the effects of GO on self-reporting about LLS. The results are presented in Table 4. The findings indicated that task goal and ability-avoid goal were not significantly predictors of SILL at $p < .05$, $\beta = .11$, $t = .83$, $\beta = -.17$, $t = -1.48$, respectively. These non-significant parameters should be removed from the process. Ability-approach goal was the only significant parameter which could predict use of LLS, $R = .23$, $R^2 = .05$, $\beta = .23$, $t = 2.7$.

Table 3: Summary of regression analysis of Self-regulation variables which predict use of language learning strategies

Model	Variables	R	R^2	β t
Entered	Effort ^a	.407 ^a	.166	.407 ^a 4.942
				.000 [*]
Planning ^b		.449 ^b	.201	.201 ^b 2.333
				.021 [*]
Excluded	Efficacy ^c			.158 ^c 1.795
				.075 [*]
Self-checking ^c				-.016 ^c -.168
				.867 [*]

*Note: a. Predictors: (constant), Effort. b. Predictors: (constant), Effort, Planning. C. predictors in the Model: (constant), Effort, Planning. Dependent Variable: SILL. β indicates standardized regression coefficient. * $p < .05$*

Table 4: Summary of regression analysis of Goal orientation variables which predict use of language learning strategies

Model	Variables	R	R 2	β	t
Entered	Ability-approach	.237 ^a	.056	.237 ^a	2.709
				.008*	
Excluded	Task goal			.112 ^a	.833
				.406*	
Ability-avoid				-.170 ^a	-1.481
				.141*	

Note: a. Predictors: (Constant), ability-approach. Dependent Variable: SILL. b indicates standardized regression coefficient. * $p < .05$

Discussion

In the present study, the hypotheses that self-regulation and GO are related to endorsement of LLS were examined. In support of the first hypothesis, it was found that GO was positively related to the use of LLS. The findings show that the students in this study held both mastery-approach and performance-approach goal orientations, even though performance-approach goal orientation was endorsed more highly than mastery-approach goal orientation in line with LLS. As a matter of fact, language learners of this study can likely be both mastery oriented and performance oriented with more tendency toward the last one. That is, students who reported that when learning a foreign language they focus on their own development, personal growth and interest (mastery goal), and also when learning a foreign language they tend to appear more able than others and their goal is to acquire high grades (performance goal) were also likely to report that they used different LLS such as cognitive and metacognitive strategies to satisfy their general goals. In contrast, performance-avoidance goals were not significantly associated with use of LLS. Indeed, these behavioral patterns which emerge as a result of adopting ability-avoid goal orientation are not conducive to use of different LLS for promoting language proficiency. Molden and Dweck (2000) propose that self-handicapping is strongly related to performance-avoidance goals due to students' anxieties regarding their academic performance. Use of such strategies includes procrastination, purposely not trying, or finding excuses for not studying. The results are consistent with previous findings such as Elliot, 2005; Gabriele, 2007; Harackiewicz, Barron, Tauer, and Elliot, 2002 which demonstrate that students adopting mastery goal orientation tend to use high levels of deep cognitive strategies, such as elaboration, as well as meta-cognitive strategies. Lee, McInerney, Arief, Liem and Ortig (2010) in their research has also demonstrated the adaptive effects of a performance-approach goal orientation on valued educational outcomes such as deep cognitive strategies, positive effects. Pintrich (1989) believes that strategy use must be goal directed. Pintrich (1989) also demonstrated that this aspect of strategic learning has two implications. Goals are required so that strategic learners have a reference point to use for continued self-evaluation. The types of goals they set also may impact the kinds of strategies they select and the way they implement them.

In addition, use of LLS in this study was affected somehow by performance-approach goal orientation. This may imply that performance approach oriented learners who want to be better than others and seek favorable judgments and demonstration of competence have more tendency toward different LLS to achieve their goals in comparison with mastery oriented learners. This is a positive finding as the result of studies such as Phan, 2009; Pintrich & Schunck, 2002 have typically demonstrated that ability-approach oriented language learners mostly use cognitive and deeper learning strategies.

Another objective of this study was to examine the relationship between LLS and self-regulation construct. The findings indicated that those language learners who self-regulate their learning process, put value on different LLS as well. In fact, self-regulated learners of the current study take advantage of what characterizes self-regulated

learners and at the same time may apply LLS as well in their learning process. These learners outperform those who clearly lack self-regulated features and may have difficulty in use of LLS or may even do not use these strategies in language learning activities.

In addition, there was a significant relationship between all the four subscales of SRL, namely, planning, self-checking, effort, and self-efficacy, and LLS. This implies that those language learners who plan their learning in advance, check how well they progress, put enough effort into doing academic tasks and have confidence in their abilities may also tend to use different LLS to enhance their learning process.

Moreover, multiple regression analysis revealed that both planning and effort variables predicted use of LLS. It implies that participants of the current study believe that to be persistent and effortful in the use of learning strategies likely lead to success. They may also know that planning, controlling, and directing mental process and environment in order to apply LLS can improve their second language learning. Indeed, these findings were consistent with the study conducted by Weinstein, Husman, and Dierking (2000) who asserted that self-regulated and strategic learning involve integrated processes. The invocation and use of cognitive learning strategies is connected to other aspects of self-regulation such as motivation and metacognition. To use cognitive learning strategies effectively, students must be able to manage the amount and direction of their effort, motivated to engage in the task, and volitional in their use of strategies.

Nevertheless, Zimmerman (2000) believes that self-regulated learners are proactive in use of strategies to achieve self-set goals. Zimmerman (2000) also believes that self-regulated students are familiar with and know how to use a series of cognitive strategies, which help them to attend to, transform, organize, elaborate and recover information. They also know how to plan, control and direct their mental processes toward the achievement of personal goals (meta cognition).

CONCLUSION

Consistent with previous studies mentioned in this article and in support of our hypotheses, results from our studies provide reliable evidence that individuals' levels of achievement goal orientations and self-regulation have stability with the use of LLS. Indeed, those students who have tendency to mastery and performance goals frequently may apply various LLS. Moreover, we assume that self-regulated students who exploit all features of self-regulation, specifically effort and planning, may also use different LLS to enhance their language learning.

Overall, the potential significance of this study is clear. It indicates self-regulation and GO constructs along with students' opinions about learning strategies can justify individual differences among language learners in the context of foreign/ second language learning. In other words, each individual language learner can perform differently in the classroom and he/she may also treat similar materials differently in comparison with other learners and acquire L2 language in line with his/her personality, goal and specific strategies which he/she chose.

Implication

Data of the study offer some insights for language teachers. Since the results of this study showed that both task and ability-approach were related to LLS, language teachers need to focus on establishing appropriate contexts for the development of task goal orientation and ability-approach among language learners. Situations which enforce assessment and comparison of students' competences based on a social norm foster performance goal preferences. Furthermore, the effects of performance-approach goals on learning are complex and further investigation of different settings and various conditions is still needed, especially concerning failure (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001; Pint rich, 2000). Therefore, it would be better for language teachers to foster the features of task goal orientation than ability-approach among language learners because it is a safer and more efficient way to promote academic achievement. This can be done through creating a non-threatening environment in which errors are tolerated and final exam is not the most important criterion for passing judgments on language abilities of learners.

Regarding SRL, language teachers must create classroom features that foster SRL in line with use of learning strategies. To promote self-regulation among language learners, educators should give students a lot of choices to take responsibility for their learning. In order to help students become self-regulated learners, evaluation in language

classrooms must be ongoing, embedded in daily activities, focused on personal progress and promote the view that errors are opportunities to learn (for review see, Perry, VandeKamp, Mercer, & Nordby, 2002).

With regard to instruction of learning strategies for both self-regulated and goal-oriented language learners, teachers should create a learning-to learn environment. That is, it is tended to be more process oriented and students are encouraged to identify and utilize appropriate learning strategies based on the learning conditions. By linking the three concepts, we offer teachers an alternative way to look at goals and strategies they can foster in the teaching environment. Teachers should be mindful to encourage the features of GO and self-regulation in line with the use of LLS.

Limitations and future directions

Some limitations of this study should be noted. First, the participants of this study were supposed to be university students majoring in English so the researchers had serious problems finding as many participants as they wished for the study, which may limit generalizations to the populations examined. Second, we measured students' achievement goal orientations, SRL, and LLS using self-report measures. Relying solely on self-report measures to gauge goal, regulating process, and strategic learning change paints a limited picture of the nature of stability and change, and limits generalizability from a measurement perspective. Future research is needed that includes multiple approaches to measuring students' achievement goals, SRL, and learning strategies to triangulate results from studies conducted to date. Third, the researchers could not control the age, sex and educational background of the participants. Future research is needed that this study can be investigated in terms of gender and achievement level differences. Finally, testing has always appealed to researchers working on language-related topics. A study is worth doing to see which test taking strategies, goal-oriented and self-regulated learners use when taking a test.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Goal Orientation Scale

Task Goal Orientation

1. I like school work that I'll learn from, even if I make a lot of mistakes.
2. An important reason why I do my school work is because I like to learn new things.
3. I like school work best when it really makes me think.
4. An important reason why I do my work in school is because I want to get better at it.
5. I do my school work because I'm interested in it.
6. An important reason I do my school work is because I enjoy it.

Ability-Approach Goal Orientation

7. I would feel really good if I were the only one who could answer the teachers' questions in class.
8. It's important to me that the other students in my classes think that I am good at my work.
9. I want to do better than other students in my classes.
10. I would feel successful in school if I did better than most of the other students.
11. I'd like to show my teachers that I'm smarter than the other students in my classes.
12. Doing better than other students in school is important to me.

Ability-Avoid Goal Orientation

13. It's very important to me that I don't look stupid in my classes.
14. An important reason I do my school work is so that I don't embarrass myself.

15. The reason I do my school work is so my teachers don't think I know less than others.
16. The reason I do my work is so others won't think I'm dumb.
17. One reason I would not participate in class is to avoid looking stupid.
18. One of my main goals is to avoid looking like I can't do my work.

Appendix B. Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire

1. I determine how to solve a task before I begin.
2. I check how well I am doing when I solve a task.
3. I work hard to do well even if I don't like a task.
4. I believe I will receive an excellent grade in this course.
5. I carefully plan my course of action.
6. I ask myself questions to stay on track as I do a task.
7. I put forth my best effort on tasks.
8. I'm certain I can understand the most difficult material presented in the reading of this course.
9. I try to understand task before I attempt to solve them.
10. I check my work while I am doing it.
11. I work as hard as possible on tasks.
12. I'm confident I can understand the basic concepts taught in this course.
13. I try to understand the goal of a task before I attempt to answer.
14. I almost always know how much of a task I have to complete.
15. I am willing to do extra work on tasks to improve my knowledge.
16. I'm confident I can understand the most complex material presented by the teacher in this course.
17. I figure out my goals and what I need to do to accomplish them.
18. I judge the correctness of my work.
19. I concentrate as hard as I can when doing a task.
20. I'm confident I can do an excellent job on the assignments and tests in this course.
21. I imagine the parts of the task that I have to complete.
22. I correct my errors.
23. I work hard on a task even if it does not count.
24. I expect to do well in this course.
25. I make sure I understand just what has to be done and how to do it.
26. I check my accuracy as I progress through a task.
27. A task is useful to check my knowledge.
28. I'm certain I can master the skills being taught in this course.
29. I try to determine what the task requires.
30. I ask myself, how well am I doing, as I proceed through tasks.
31. Practice makes perfect.
32. Considering the difficulty of this course, the teacher, and my skills, I think I will do well in this course.

Scales Items

Planning	1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29
Self-Checking	2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30
Effort	3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, 31
Self-efficacy	4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32

Scoring key

Appendix C. Strategy Inventory For Language Learning

Part: A. Memory-related

1. I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of an English word and an image or picture of the world to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.
7. I review English lessons often.
8. I physically act out new English words.
9. I remember the new words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Part: B. Cognitive

1. I say or write new English words several times.
2. I try to talk like native English speakers.
3. I practice the sounds of English.
4. I use the English word I know in different ways.
5. I start conversations in English.
6. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
7. I read for pleasure in English.
8. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
9. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.
10. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
11. I try to find patterns in English.
12. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
13. I try not to translate word-for-word.
14. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part: C. Compensatory

1. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
2. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
3. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
4. I read English without looking up every new word.
5. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
6. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Part: D. Metacognitive

1. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
2. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
3. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
4. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.
5. I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English.
6. I look for people I can talk to in English.
7. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
8. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.
9. I think about my progress in learning English.

Part: E. Affective

1. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
2. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.
3. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
4. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying English.
5. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.
6. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.

Part: F. Social

1. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slowdown or say it again.
2. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
3. I practice my English with other students.
4. I ask for help from English speakers.
5. I ask questions in English.
6. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

PERCEPTIONS OF EFL GRADUATE STUDENTS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION TOWARDS PLAGIARISM

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the current study was to investigate MA students' familiarity with the concept of plagiarism in English academic writing. For this purpose, 20 MA students from the Faculty of Physical Education, University of Guilan, Iran participated in this study. Two questionnaires were used for data collection. The first instrument was a Likert-scale questionnaire dealing with students' general knowledge of plagiarism and attitudes toward it and the second questionnaire was an open-ended one. Through these items, the participants were asked about citation and referencing rules they use, and reasons for plagiarism and how it could be avoided in their view. The results of the study suggested that most of the participants were familiar with the concept of plagiarism but their knowledge of referencing and citation rules was not adequate as they just referred to referencing at the end of their papers. Their main reasons for plagiarism commitment were identified as follows: Lack of enough instruction, lack of familiarity with plagiarism and laziness. As far as no clear explanation was given by most of the participating students for plagiarism prevention, it seems that further instruction is needed to familiarize students with writing rules. As the present study was limited to graduate students of one faculty only, it is suggested that students from various faculties and different programs be investigated in future studies to see if they differ from each other in terms of their perceptions of plagiarism.

KEYWORDS: Plagiarism, Perception, Physical Education, EFL

INTRODUCTION

With the development of electronic sources and the accessibility of the Internet in the world, especially in the academic contexts, plagiarism is seen as a problematic phenomenon that students face from the beginning of their studies in higher education levels. Based on academic regulations, students are required to follow the academic rules in all of their writing assignments from simple research reports to publishable papers and thesis assignments. The issue for most of them is the extent of their familiarity and awareness of the concept of plagiarism.

Pecorari (2008) defined plagiarism as the use of ideas from another source without appropriate attribution and acknowledgement, and with the intention to deceive as the work is one's own. Students might plagiarize intentionally or unintentionally, but this act may be the result of the extent of familiarity, the degree of respect towards the academic rules, and other reasons such as different attitudes towards the concept of plagiarism. Doing the research assignments is something very dependent on the works done by other scholars. Accordingly, there is no way to complete a research without referring to other works in the same related fields or areas and this requires an extent of intertextuality. Although the works are not exactly the same in the fields of their own special subject matter, they might be discussing similar ideas in a different way. Intertextuality means the relationship of a text with other texts referring to the factors which make the use of a text with an extent of dependency on the knowledge of other texts (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). In this way, it becomes the key for research preparation without being accused of plagiarizing.

Howard (1995) stated that there are two possible reasons for plagiarism which are an absence of ethics or an ignorance of citation conventions. In this regard, Howard (1995) pointed out that some students do not acknowledge textual values and deliberately submit a work which is not theirs; others, without enough knowledge of citation conventions, do the same which are both considered as plagiarism. She defined patchwriting as copying from a source text and then changing the structure or eliminating some words and replacing other words one by one with synonyms which is also considered plagiarism. Patchwriting is not considered as pure plagiarism but as a pedagogical opportunity (Howard, 1995).

Williams (2005) categorized plagiarism in three main types in terms of distinguishing intentional and unintentional plagiarism. He called the first group as lazy plagiarists. They clearly pass off other's work as their own work; it means that they get a piece of work from the Internet or another student and just change the name of the writer. Here, laziness is the main factor for plagiarism commitment but not merely the cause of the crime. The Internet pushes students to increase such indolence in their writing. The second group refers to cunning plagiarists. They are more sophisticated as they are clearly aware of the plagiarism and detection tools and after copying and pasting other's writings, they try to delete any track which may be caught as a sign of plagiarism. Accidental plagiarists are the third and last group in Williams' categorization. He pointed out that "their transgressions arise typically as a consequence of inexperience, poor study skills, local academic norms or some combination thereof" (p. 5). International students encounter this type of plagiarism more than other ones as they should be familiarized with ethics of that special academic zone as soon as they enter a new academic context.

Writing in a foreign language is a demanding task for university students who are willing to submit their papers to accredited international journals and conferences. There may be a meaningful relationship between EFL writing and plagiarism commitment as non-native students might find it difficult to write in English and as a result, they might plagiarize intentionally or unintentionally. Howard (1995) discussed two main causes of plagiarism: An absence of ethics or an ignorance of citation rules; some students might be aware of conventions of citation and deliberately ignore those conventions and others commit plagiarism without having knowledge of citation rules.

Having a good command of English, especially in writing, helps students share their knowledge and findings in various sciences with international institutions and publishing companies and people all over the world. If we want to help our postgraduate students to write English papers so that they would be published in accredited journals, we should clarify the ethics of writing in terms of plagiarism issues to them. Paraphrasing, referencing, quoting, and punctuation rules can be taught to the students to help them write organized papers in English. Students at postgraduate level must be made aware of what plagiarism is and how it could be avoided.

Attitudes toward Plagiarism

Several studies investigated the perceptions of students and teachers towards plagiarism and academic honesty. For example, Handa and Power (2005) investigated Indian postgraduate students' attitudes toward academic integrity and plagiarism who were studying in Australian universities. They discussed their problems and detected cases of plagiarism despite the fact that Indian students have background knowledge of English and they are familiar with the ethics of international writing in their country. One hundred and twenty questionnaires were given to the undergraduate students, asking about their understanding of plagiarism and referencing rules and experiences of plagiarism. The researchers also provided a questionnaire for lecturers in the university, concerning teaching referencing and penalties for plagiarism in their faculties. For postgraduate students, interviews were conducted about the experiences of plagiarism and its understanding and their responses were compared with students studying in India. Based on the findings, postgraduate students revealed that referencing had not been expected of them or they had been asked only to provide a reference list or bibliography at the end of their papers. The majority of undergraduate students (80%) claimed that they use ideas and words of others in their writing and 85% responded that they acknowledge the sources they use. 60% of them use in-text referencing, 30% provide a reference list and 12% of them use both techniques. Concerning the concept of academic integrity, both postgraduate and undergraduate students had similar understanding. The results also showed a clear difference between Indian and Australian students' attitudes and experiences of plagiarism. In another study, Marshal and Garry (2005) investigated English-speaking students' (ES) perceptions of plagiarism at first, and then compared the results with non-native English speaking backgrounds (NES). They utilized questionnaires to explore students' attitudes toward plagiarism. Their findings indicated that there is a clear misunderstanding of the extent of plagiarism by both groups, but the results showed that more than 83% of NES committed more serious types of plagiarism than ES students. It was also revealed that most of the NES students did not get the concept of the questions to be answered, particularly when they were asked to define plagiarism. It was concluded that there should be prerequisite courses of English in terms of teaching English and students' familiarizing with conventions of plagiarism and citation rules. Erikson and Sullivan (2008; cited in Roberts, 2008) also carried out another study at Umea University in Sweden to investigate the attitudes of lecturers toward plagiarism. They used four types of questions to be answered. For the first question, the respondents had to define plagiarism. The second question asked them about the extent of being informed during the course. The third question was about the ideas of variety in plagiarism, and the fourth item dealt with how

instructors report detected cases of plagiarism. The result was remarkable as the researchers found that the respondents could not give a certain definition of plagiarism since various lecturers had various attitudes toward different types of plagiarism. Their findings showed that when instructors do not have a clear understanding of plagiarism, they are incapable of teaching their students the rules and conventions of it. The responses to the second questions indicated that the main causes of plagiarism are due to the lack of students' information considering the existence of such a phenomenon. That is, some of them unintentionally plagiarize others' work. Plagiarism is considered to be an ethical deviation in university; accordingly, it should be punished based on the pre-described conventions. Students need to be informed and taught about plagiarism itself and they should be trained in getting enough skill to learn how to avoid it (Erikson & Sullivan, 2008). In a study in China, Xiaojun, Hongli and Fan (2010) conducted a study which investigated students' attitudes toward plagiarism and examined how the universities in China react to their students' plagiarizing in the realm of academic misconducts. They found out that they crucially need to have a course to familiarize the students with rules of plagiarism and there should be a clear punishment regulation to prevent the plagiarism occurrence. Their research was composed of two main parts; firstly, the current situation of Chinese universities was investigated and secondly a questionnaire was distributed to call on the participants' attitudes and perceptions toward plagiarism. In the first part of their study, they collected information over Chinese universities in terms of their regulations, definitions, and punishments against cheating, plagiarism and such misbehaviors. Since various penalties were chosen to punish guilty students and teachers, they would be warned and even expelled from university. According to Xiaojun, Hongli and Fan (2010), for example, one of the rules of their universities reads, "Students who submitted course papers, journal papers or theses confirmed to be plagiarized works will be expelled from university. If those were found after their degrees were conferred, their degree will be revoked" (p. 3). In the second part of their study, 99 students answered the questionnaire which was about different definitions, types of plagiarism and at the same time different perceptions toward plagiarism. For example, they asked whether or not teachers should use plagiarism detection software. 78% of the students had negative ideas about such actions. According to the findings, half of the students suggested expelling from the course, 25% choose formal warning, and 16% offered zero mark for punishment of plagiarism in university. Finally, they concluded that proactive teaching and raising the awareness of both teachers and students would be useful, and using detection tools and punishment would be difficult and less feasible. Along with all of the above-mentioned studies which have been conducted to help academicians to understand plagiarism, its causes, and related issues, in a more recent study, Adiningrum and Kutieleh (2011) focused on international students of south Asia who were continuing their education in Western countries. They pointed out that plagiarism is a culturally based phenomenon which threatens students' honesty. Four groups of divergent postgraduate Indonesian students studying in Australia were chosen and interviewed to call on their understanding of plagiarism and estimate the role of culture and previous education system in committing such misbehaviors in university. Their findings proved the existence of correlation between plagiarism, cultural values, and educational backgrounds. Some students pointed to the role of religious beliefs in preventing plagiarism and some of them felt mixed up in terms of adequate perception of plagiarism in their undergraduate level in Indonesia.

PRESENT STUDY

In the academic contexts, EFL students are required to follow the ethics in writing strictly and firmly. Accordingly, this study sought to investigate the attitudes of MA students of the Faculty of Physical Education, University of Guilan, Iran to explore their understanding and the standards they take into account in their writing assignments. In addition, their familiarity with the concept of plagiarism was investigated.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study aimed at answering the following research questions:

1. Are EFL graduate students of the Faculty of Physical Education familiar with the concept of plagiarism?
2. What are the reasons graduate students of the Faculty of Physical Education plagiarize or avoid plagiarism in academic context?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

A number of 20 MA students from the Faculty of Physical Education, University of Guilan, Iran were selected to explore their attitudes and perceptions of plagiarism. All of the departments of the faculty including sport physiology, sport management, corrective exercises, and sport pathology participated in the study.

Instruments

The instruments of the current study consisted of two questionnaires. The first instrument of the study was a Likert-scale questionnaire (see appendix A). Items of the questionnaire dealt with the extent of the familiarity of the students with plagiarism, degree of their perceptions and whether they can avoid it or not. The participants were supposed to choose a given option from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The questionnaire was developed based on existing literature and it was piloted to ensure its reliability. The second instrument was an open-ended questionnaire (see appendix B). In this questionnaire a collection of questions were prepared based on the current literature, considering the act of plagiarism, students' attitudes, and rules and conventions of their faculty. Most of the items were about students' awareness of plagiarism, types, and the extent of their familiarity with citation rules. Students were also supposed to answer questions about their experience of plagiarism and the relevant reasons.

Procedure

The existing literature was consulted and the relevant items were extracted. The items of the questionnaires were checked by two experienced university instructors to make sure they are appropriate. Based on a pilot study, the reliability of the Likert-scale questionnaire was calculated to be .73. The anonymity of the participants was ensured and the confidentiality of their responses was guaranteed. After having gathered the completed questionnaires, the collected data were analyzed.

Data Analysis

Since the instruments of the current study were both an open-ended and a Likert-scale questionnaire, to analyze the data, both qualitative and quantitative procedures were utilized. For quantitative analysis of the answers, the data were fed to SPSS software to calculate the frequency and percentages of the collected answers (attitudes and perceptions towards plagiarism). The frequency and percentage of the results were calculated based on the answers of both open-ended and Likert-scale items. The open-ended items were also content-analyzed and the most important features of the participants' responses were extracted and reported.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Tables 1 to 4 illustrate the extent of the participants' familiarity with the concept of plagiarism and related issues (degree of its importance and considering it as crime or cheating). The findings of the study revealed that 75% of participants were familiar (agreed & strongly agreed) with the concept of plagiarism and considered it as an important problem in academic context in Iran (see table 1 & table 2). All of the participants considered plagiarism as a kind of cheating (see table 3) and 95% (18 students) considered plagiarism as a crime (see table 4).

Table 1: Familiarity with the Concept of Plagiarism

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	5	25.0	25.0
Agree	9	45.0	70.0
Strongly agree	6	30.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

Table 2: Plagiarism as an Important Problem

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	10.0	10.0
Disagree	3	15.0	25.0
Agree	9	45.0	70.0

Strongly agree	6	30.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

Table 3: Plagiarism as Cheating

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	10	50.0	50.0
Strongly agree	10	50.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

Table 4: Plagiarism as a Crime

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	2	10.0	10.0
Agree	8	40.0	50.0
Strongly agree	10	50.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

In tables 5 and 6, the degree of students' familiarity with ways for preventing plagiarism and easiness of it is given:

Table 5: Preventing Plagiarism

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	3	15.0	15.0
Disagree	10	50.0	65.0
Agree	5	25.0	90.0
Strongly agree	2	10.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

Table 6: Easiness of Avoiding Plagiarism

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	10.0	10.0
Disagree	5	25.0	35.0
Agree	9	45.0	80.0
Strongly agree	4	20.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

The findings from table 5 reveal that 13 students (65%) were not familiar with ways for preventing plagiarism. As shown in table 6, most of the participants (65%) agreed and strongly agreed that 'it is easy to avoid plagiarism'.

Tables 7 and 8 summarize the information about the students' familiarity with citation rules and referencing:

Table 7: Familiarity with Citation Rules

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	10.0	10.0
Disagree	6	30.0	40.0
Agree	12	60.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

Table 8: Plagiarism in Giving References Only

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly disagree	2	10.0	10.0
Disagree	9	45.0	55.0
Agree	7	35.0	90.0
Strongly agree	2	10.0	100.0
Total	20	100.0	

As shown in table 7 and table 8, 60% of the students stated that they were familiar with citation rules and 45% of them stated (agreed & strongly agreed) that plagiarism should be considered only in giving references.

Table 9 shows the students' responses to six items and their related frequencies and percentages:

Table 9: Frequency of Responses to Open-ended Items

		Frequency percentage	and	Yes	Yes with explanation	No	No with explanation	No answer
Types of plagiarism	Frequency			1	6	10	-	3
	Percentage			5	30	50	-	15
Citation and acknowledging	Frequency			4	12	4	-	-
	Percentage			20	60	20		
Reasons for plagiarism	Frequency			2	6	10	2	2
	Percentage			10	30	50	10	10
Detected cases of plagiarism	Frequency			3	7	10	-	-
	Percentage			15	35	50	-	-
Types of plagiarism	Frequency			1	6	10	-	3
	Percentage			5	30	50	-	15
Avoiding plagiarism	Frequency			-	2	18	-	-
	Percentage			-	10	90	-	-

Based on the obtained results of the current study, it seems that the students of the Faculty of Physical Education were mostly familiar with referencing and citation rules in their first language (Persian) since they did not mention how they use citations in English. Half of the students of the Faculty of Physical Education had negative answers about plagiarism commitment. They explained that plagiarism was a kind of robbery and some of them even introduced plagiarism as a shameful action. Other students (40%) explained that they had already committed plagiarism. For example, one of the students stated that "we have to do so; academic context of Iran is novice ...". Half of the students stated that they had noticed plagiarism in the referencing of articles. 6 students referred to lack of referencing, copy and paste, and fabrication of data as types of plagiarism, but still other students (n=14) did not have any familiarity with different types of plagiarism. 90% of the students were unfamiliar with detection tools of plagiarism; only 30% of the students in this faculty certified that they know how to prevent plagiarism, but they did not have any explanation for their answer. When the students of the Faculty of Physical Education were asked to suggest punishment for plagiarism, some of them (n=7) believed that plagiarists should be expelled from university; others (n=6) stated that they should be deprived or suspended for a determined period of time; 2 students suggested that plagiarists' papers should be rejected, and a few (n=5) left the question without any answer. Numerous studies have surveyed students' familiarity with plagiarism from various aspects and different results have been obtained (See Scanlon & Neumann 2002; Ireland & English, 2011; Gerhardt, 2006, Jackson, 2006 among others). For example, Jackson (2006) investigated students' understanding of plagiarism at undergraduate level and concluded that special tutorial programs for students in all majors are needed to learn how to paraphrase and cite from different sources. In another study, Risquez, O'Dwyer and Ledwith (2011) highlighted that more than one tutorial session

should be run to inform students of ways of preventing plagiarism. In the same line, further instruction about citation rules, and types of plagiarism should be planned and offered in the academic context of Iran in order to minimize the possibility of plagiarism commitment. In fact, students should be well-informed of existing well-established styles of writing (APA, MLA, etc.) to help them avoid plagiarism. In fact, the role of instructors and staff should be highlighted, as students' knowledge of plagiarism should be at an acceptable level to prevent such misbehaviors in the academic context of Iran.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the Likert-scale questionnaire, most of the students stated that they were familiar with citation rules but more than half of them disagreed with considering plagiarism only in giving references. When students were asked to explain their ways of referencing and citation, they only mentioned referencing in their first language. It seems that as university students, they respect the ethical consideration in writing but some of them do not know exactly what constitutes plagiarism. It can be concluded that further instruction should be given by instructors to familiarize the university students with writing styles and cases of plagiarism should be clearly identified in specific tutorial programs.

According to the findings of the study, most of the students claimed that they had not plagiarized yet for various reasons such as academic integrity, ethical considerations and related issues. Those who committed plagiarism referred to these reasons: Lack of enough time, laziness, lack of having enough familiarity with plagiarism and lack of instruction. For the time factor, it can be said that specifying deadlines for students for delivering their papers can lead to plagiarism. In fact, the completion of assignments should be considered as a process rather than a product to have better writings through a more efficient supervision. According to Devlin and Grey (2007), students find it easier to use the Internet rather than going through books and journals for their academic writings; so one of the most important reasons of some students' reason is the Internet and they need to be familiarized how to use the Internet resources. Proper instruction is required to enhance students' familiarity of plagiarism and university instructors and staff of university should be made fully conscious about plagiarism identification and punishment (Smith, Ghazali & Noor Minhad, 2007). To this end, future studies can deal with this issue in further depth and shed light on how plagiarism could be avoided more effectively in academic contexts.

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APPENDIX A

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am familiar with the concept of plagiarism.				
I consider plagiarism as an important problem in the academic contexts in Iran.				
I consider plagiarism a type of cheating.				
I consider plagiarism as a crime.				
I know the ways to avoid plagiarizing.				
It is easy to avoid plagiarism.				
I am familiar enough with citation rules in writing research papers.				
I think plagiarism is to be avoided only in giving references.				

APPENDIX B

1. Have you ever plagiarized? Why or why not? Explain.
2. Have you ever noticed plagiarism? (That is, have you ever seen pieces of work being suspected of plagiarism? If so, explain the way you recognized plagiarism in that work).
3. Are you familiar with different types of plagiarism?
4. Are you familiar enough with citation and acknowledgment rules in research paper writing? If so, how much and in what ways are you familiar with?
5. Are you familiar with the ways and detection tools which have been used to recognize the possible acts of plagiarism? If so, what are they?
6. As a student in the academic context, have you been familiarized enough with the concept of plagiarism and the ways to avoid it? If so, explain.
7. If you were in a position to set some punishments, what would you do as punishment to prevent the act of plagiarism?

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

Motivation and critical thinking have been recognized as crucial elements contributing to learning. Although a considerable body of research has addressed motivation and critical thinking (CT), little research has been conducted investigating the relationship between the two constructs. The present study was conducted to investigate the relationship between motivation and CT among pre-intermediate learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). For this purpose, a group of 101 male and female learners, between 18 and 34 years old, majoring in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) at Science and Art University in Yazd-the capital of a province in Iran-were selected and given two questionnaires: a questionnaire of motivation and a questionnaire of CT. The relationship between motivation and CT was investigated using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The results of this study led to the rejection of the null hypothesis indicating that there is a significant and positive relationship between EFL learners' motivation and CT ($r = 0.796, p < 0.01$). The findings of this study can help EFL teachers, learners, and material developers to foster learners' CT ability and motivation.

KEYWORDS: critical thinking, motivation

INTRODUCTION

Recent trends in the education domain emphasize the importance of critical thinking skills for academic success and life. Critical thinking has been called one of the most important attributes for success in the 21st century (Hui, 1998). Meyers (1986) argued that for students to reach their fullest potential in today's society, they must learn to think and reason critically. Critical thinking is a reasonable reflective thinking that is focused on deciding on what to believe or do (Ennis, 1986, 1996). When we think critically, we are evaluating the solutions of our thinking processes. In another words, critical thinking, as described by Marzano, Pickering and Pollack (2001), includes reflective thinking that is focused on understanding an issue, creating and weighing solutions, and making informed decisions. It is one of the objectives of education that students obtain critical thinking skills enabling easy access to knowledge and overcoming challenges more easily (Hudgins & Edelman, 1988; Halpern, 1993, cited in Semerci, 2011). Besides, "critical thinking is the use of those cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. It is used to describe thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal directed" (Halpern, 1997). However, a lot of factors contributed to a rich decision making and critical thinking environment (Legant, 2010, cited in Semerci, 2011). One of the influencing factors that enhance critical thinking ability is motivation (Lai, 2011).

Motivation has been widely accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second/foreign language (L2) learning. Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement (Dornyei, 1998). Because of the central importance attached to it by practitioners and researchers alike, L2 motivation has been the target of a great deal of research during the past decades (Dornyei, 1998). Motivation refers to "cognitive, emotional, and behavioral indicators of student investment in and attachment to education" (Tucker, Zayco, & Herman, 2002, p. 477). It is obvious that students who are not motivated to succeed will not work hard. A student with a high degree of

motivation towards success in a course will likely be more successful. Student motivation has been shown to influence student attitudes and achievement in learning (Berg, 2001; Shih & Gamon, 2001).

Although a considerable body of research has addressed motivation and critical thinking, there has been little research on the relationship between them. The aim of this study is to investigate whether there is any significant relationship between motivation and critical thinking.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Critical Thinking

Educators have long been aware of the importance of critical thinking skills as an outcome of student learning. More recently, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills has identified critical thinking as one of several learning and innovation skills necessary to prepare students for post-secondary education and the workforce. In addition, the newly created Common Core State Standards reflect critical thinking as a cross-disciplinary skill vital for college and employment. Despite widespread recognition of its importance, there is a notable lack of consensus regarding the definition of critical thinking (Lai, 2011).

The literature on critical thinking has roots in two primary academic disciplines: philosophy and psychology (Lewis & Smith, 1993). These two separate academic strands, through different approaches, define critical thinking with reflection of their own concerns. The third approach to critical thinking is within the field of education (Sternberg, 1986). According to the study of Paul and Elder (2001), critical thinking can be defined as a mode of thinking about any subject, content, or problem. With critical thinking college students can manage their thinking structures, employ intellectual criteria and finally improve their thinking quality. In the words of Lai (2011), "Critical thinking includes the component skills of analyzing arguments, making inferences using inductive or deductive reasoning, judging or evaluating, and making decisions or solving problems"(p.2). It is a kind of purposeful and self-regulatory judgment, ending in interpretation, analysis, evaluation and inference. It also involves conceptual and contextual basis of judgments (Facione & Facione, 1996). In the eyes of Dewey (1933), learning to think is the central purpose of education. For the term "Critical Thinking", one of its most recent definition was put forward by Browne and Keeley (2007). They defined "Critical Thinking" as "an awareness of a set of interrelated questions, an ability to pose and answer critical questions at appropriate time and a desire to actively use the critical questions"(p.2). Although the definition they provide has some similarities and is in the same trend with the precedent definitions, their emphasis has been placed on asking questions. Critical thinking is reasoned, reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or what to do (Ennis, 1996). People think critically when they are trying to solve a problem, assess an argument, decide about a belief, or make a decision in general. To achieve these ends, critical thinking assesses not only the products and results of thought -that is, beliefs, choices, conclusions, hypotheses, etc., but also the processes that have generated them, that being, the reasoning that led to such conclusions and the nature of the decision-making process leading to that alternative. Thus, critical thinking is a higher-order process and, as such, is not automatic, requiring self-determination, reflection, effort, self-control and metacognition. In other words, it is a conscious and deliberate process involving the interpretation and evaluation of information or experiences (Mertes, 1991).

Motivation

Motivation to learn is an important component of learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Motivation is typically defined in terms of an internal state of arousal that guides and sustains behavior. Although 'motivation' is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how little agreement there is in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of this concept. Researchers seem to agree that motivation is responsible for determining human behavior by energizing it and giving it direction, but the great variety of accounts put forward in the literature of how this happens may surprise even the seasoned researcher (Dornyei, 1998). Motivation is defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal seeking acts (Ames & Ames, 1989). It involves four aspects: goal, effort, desire to attain the goal, and favorite attitude towards the activity in question (Gardner, 1985). They are important because they "determine the extent of the learner's active involvement and attitude toward learning" (Ngeow, 1998).

Motivation would probably be identified as the most powerful influences on learning to most teachers. SLA research also views motivation as a key factor in L2/FL learning. Brown (1994) gave the definition of motivation as “the extent to which you make choices about (a) a goal to pursue and (b) the effort you will devote to the pursuit”. Relating motivation to learn a second language (L2), Gardner (1985) proposed, “Motivation is a term which is often used with respect to second language learning as a simple explanation of achievement”. Gardner’s (1985) definition of motivation in language learning was the “effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language”. There are also literally dozens of complementary theories of motivation in psychology. From the behavioristic psychologists’ perspectives, the role of drive and reinforcement are emphasized, and motivation is defined as “the anticipation of reinforcement” (Brown, 1994). Beginning in the 1990s, there was a transformation of defining motivation as a more dynamic and cognitive term (Vandergrift, 2005). Cognitive view of motivation centers on individual making decisions about their own actions as opposed to being at the mercy of external factors over which they have no control (Williams & Burden, 1997). Social constructivists stressed motivation as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (Williams & Burden, 1997). In summary, L2 motivation is necessarily a multifaceted construct, and describing its nature and its core features requires particular care.

Critical thinking and motivation

Critical thinking is related to motivation. Most researchers view critical thinking as including both skills, or abilities, and dispositions. The disposition to think critically has been defined as the “consistent internal motivation to engage problems and make decisions by using critical thinking” (Facione, 2000, p. 65). Thus, student motivation is viewed as a necessary precondition for critical thinking skills and abilities. Similarly, Halonen (1995) notes that a person’s propensity, or disposition, to demonstrate higher-order thinking relates to their motivation. Halpern (1998) argues that effort and persistence are two of the principal dispositions that support critical thinking, and Paul maintains that perseverance is one of the “traits of mind” that renders someone a critical thinker (1992, p. 13). Thus, like metacognition, motivation appears to be a supporting condition for critical thinking in that unmotivated individuals are unlikely to exhibit critical thinking. On the other hand, some motivation research has suggested that the causal link goes the other way. In particular, some motivation research suggests that difficult or challenging tasks, particularly those emphasizing higher-order thinking skills, may be more motivating to students than easy tasks that can be solved through the rote application of a pre-determined algorithm (Turner, 1995). Therefore the aim of this study is to investigate whether there is any significant relationship between students’ motivation and critical thinking ability.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In order to investigate the relationship between motivation and critical thinking ability of the EFL learners, the following research question was raised:

Q: Is there any significant relationship between motivation and critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners?

In addressing the research question, the following null hypothesis was raised:

H₀: There is no significant relationship between motivation and critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 101 male and female freshman university students studying English Teaching at Science and Art University in Yazd, the capital of a province in center of Iran. Their age varied between 18-34. Regarding general English proficiency, approximately most of them were at pre-intermediate level based on their marks in the university entrance exam in Iran. They have all passed some general English courses at high school before entering university. These participants were selected non-randomly based on convenient sampling as they were the only available students to the researchers.

Instruments

For the purpose of this study the following instruments were used:

Peter Honey's (2000) 30-item critical thinking questionnaire adopted from Naieni (2005) to evaluate the skills of analysis, inference, evaluation, and reasoning. The questionnaire is based on a Likert scale, sequentially assigning values of 1,2,3,4, and 5 to options of never, seldom, sometimes, often, and always. The participants' scores were calculated by adding the numbers of the scores. In this regard the result could vary from 30 to 150. It is self-evident that the higher the mark, the higher critical thinker the participant is. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated to be 0.86 by Naieni (2005).

The motivation questionnaire of this study was the same questionnaire that Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) used in their study (for Iranian context), that is, the Persian-translated Iranian version of the L2 Motivation questionnaire designed by Dörnyei and Taguchi (see Dörnyei 2010). The questionnaire is mainly based on Dörnyei, Csizer, and Nemeth's (2006) study and, among other things, includes items related to 'The L2 Motivational Self System' such as ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. The original questionnaire was designed in Japanese language and was later adapted for use in China and Iran for Taguchi, Magid, and Papi's (2009) study. All the three versions of the questionnaire (Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian versions) are based on Likert scales and have two sections. The items of the first section are statement type and the items of the second section are question type. However, the total number of items in the three versions of the questionnaire varies, and in the Iranian version there are 76 items. This questionnaire is also based on a 6-point Likert-scale, sequentially assigning values of 1, 2,3,4,5, and 6 to options of strongly disagree, disagree, to some extent disagree, to some extent agree, agree, and strongly agree for the first section and no/not at all, not a lot, have no feeling, to some extent yes, yes a lot, and yes very much for the second section. The participants' scores were calculated by adding the numbers of the scores. Therefore, the result could vary from 76 to 456. The rationale for choosing this questionnaire in this research was, first and foremost, the fact that the questionnaire is comprehensive and inclusive, and has managed to cover diverse aspects of L2 Motivation. Besides, the design of the questionnaire has gone through a rigorous procedure with repeated piloting which has led to a questionnaire with appropriate and acceptable reliability (see Dörnyei 2010).

Procedure

In order to test the research hypothesis of this study, the following steps were taken by the researchers. First, 101 students were selected as participants of this study based on convenient non-random sampling selection as these students were the only sample the researcher had easy access to. It must be mentioned that due to the nature of correlational study, no criterion for establishing homogeneity was adopted. Then, the selected L2 Motivation questionnaire was administered to all the participants. The questionnaires were collected about an hour later in order to avoid any pressure of time on student's answers. The highest mark for this questionnaire could be 456 and the lowest 76. In the next session, the participants were given the critical thinking questionnaire. These questionnaires were also collected about half an hour later, there was no pressure of time and the students had enough time to answer the questions. The highest mark could be 150 and the lowest 30. To avoid any misunderstandings, the researchers used the translated versions of the two questionnaires and explained how to answer them. In addition, the students were informed that the results of their answers to these questionnaires would have no influence on their course scores. Finally the researchers conducted Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to investigate whether there is any significant relationship between motivation and critical thinking ability of EFL learners.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to investigate whether there is any significant relationship between EFL learners' motivation and critical thinking ability; the researcher conducted a series of calculations and statistical analysis.

The data analysis of this study consisted of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. First, descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean were obtained. Afterwards, inferential statistics were obtained. In order to use the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation, the assumptions of linear correlation were first checked to legitimize using this parametric correlation:

Linear Relation between Variables

To check the linearity of the relations, a scattergram was created which is presented in Figure 1.

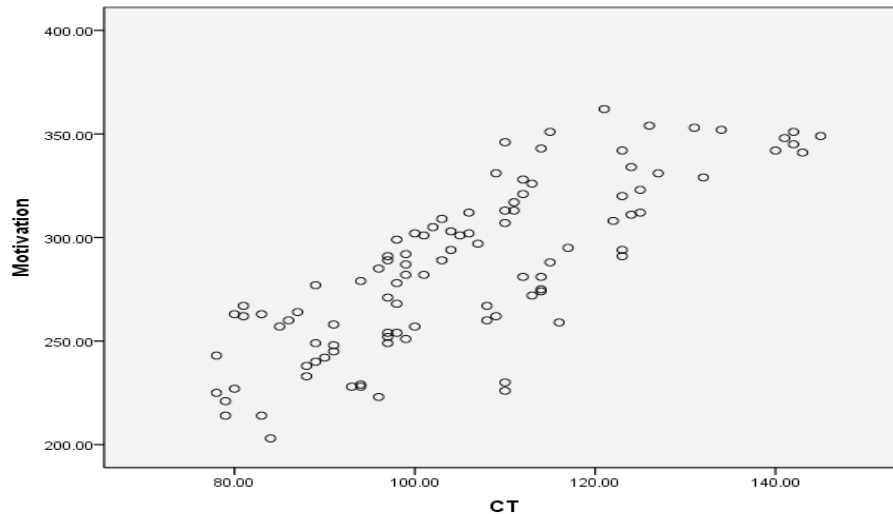


Figure 1: Scattergram Showing the correlation between CT and Motivation

As the figure shows the relationship between the scores on CT and motivation is linear as the data points cluster around an imaginary straight line. Therefore, it was appropriate to test for a linear relationship in the data by performing a correlation considering this assumption.

Normality of the Distribution

To check the normality of the distribution, the descriptive statistics of the data were obtained which is demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of the Data

Descriptive Statistics										
	N	Mean Statistics	Std. Error	Std. Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Skewness Ratio	Kurtosis statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error	Kurtosis Ratio
CT	101	105.46	1.64	16.58	0.436	0.24	1.81	-0.327	0.476	-0.686
Motivation	101	285.28	3.96	39.79	0.051	0.24	0.21	-0.902	0.476	-0.1894

As Table 1 shows, the distribution of data for CT and Motivation came out to be normal as both skewness ratios (1.81 for CT and 0.21 for Motivation) and kurtosis ratios (-0.68 for CT and -1.89 for Motivation) fell within the range of -1.96 and +1.96 for these distributions. In addition, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was also conducted testing whether the motivation and CT are normally distributed.

Table 2: Test of Normality

Test of Normality			
Kolmogorov-Smirnov^a			
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
CT	0.077	101	0.143
Motivation	0.06	101	0.200

As table 2 indicates the significant values (0.143 for CT and 0.2 for motivation) are both higher than 0.05, therefore the variable distributions for both are normal and conducting Pearson Product-moment Correlation is legitimized.

Homoscedasticity

To check the assumptions of homoscedasticity, that is, the assumption that the variance of residuals for every pair of points is equal, the residual plots (Figure 2 and 3) were examined while inspecting both of the variables in this regard.

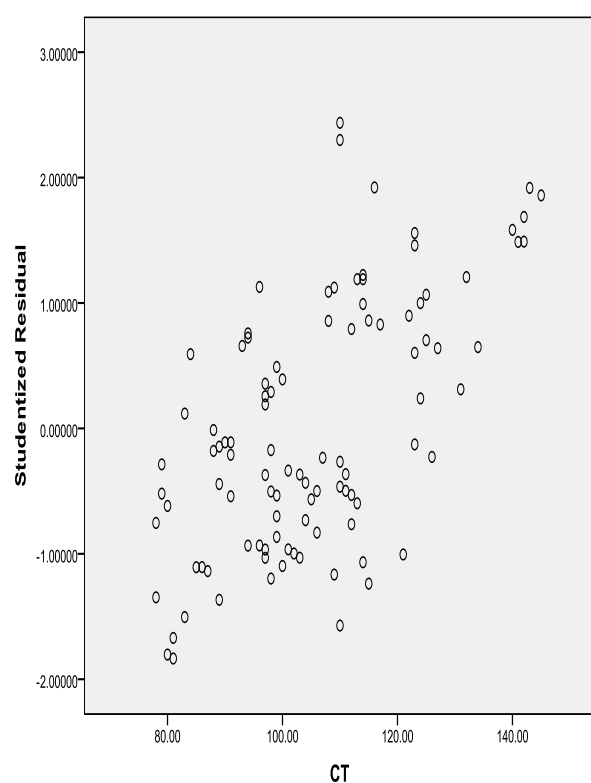


Figure 2. Plot of Studentized Residuals
for Motivation

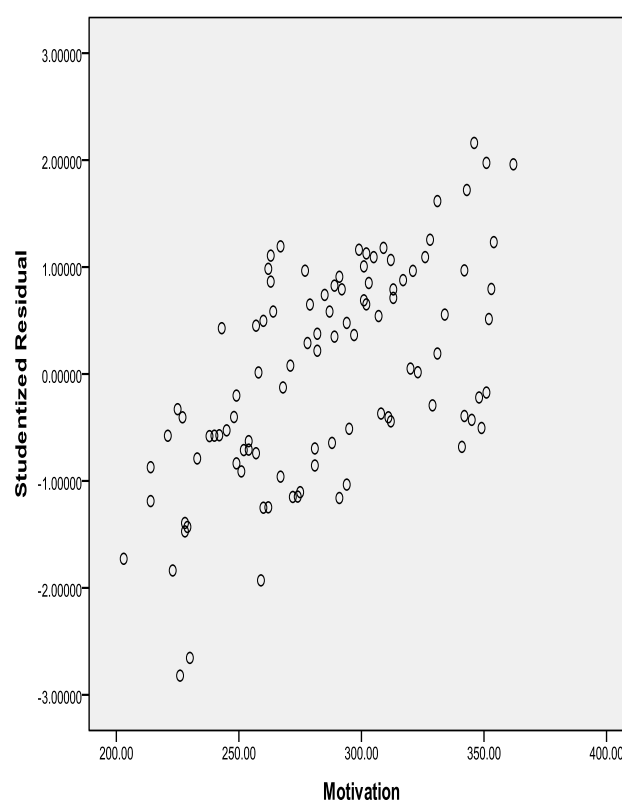


Figure 3. Plot of Studentized Residuals for Critical Thinking

As demonstrated by Figure 2 and Figure 3, the cloud of data is scattered randomly across the plot and thus the variance is homogenous. Since the assumptions of correlation were all observed for CT and motivation, the researchers ran Pearson's correlation to investigate the questions of the study.

Testing the Null Hypothesis

As it was mentioned, the normality of distribution for both of the variables provided justification for using Pearson's product-moment formula to compute the degree of relationship between the variables. The outcome of this analysis is demonstrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Pearson Correlation between CT and Motivation

Correlation			
		CT	Motivation
CT	Pearson Correlation	1	.796**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	101	101
Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.796**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	101	101

As Table 3 indicates, the correlation came out to be significant at 0.01 level ($r = 0.796$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, according to Table 4, R^2 (or common variance) which is the effect size for correlation came out to be 0.63. Common variances of 25% and above are considered to be large effect size (Cohen, 1992; Larson-Hall, 2010). Moreover, the 95% confidence interval of 0.71-0.85 is a very small confidence interval. Higher power in a study will result in smaller confidence intervals and more precision in estimating correlation. Therefore, the long effect size along with the small confidence interval indicated that the correlation between the variables was highly reliable and precise.

Table 4: Correlation Report

No of cases	R	Sig (2-tailed)	R^2	95% confidence Interval
101	0.796	0.0005	0.63	0.71-0.85

This study investigated whether there is any significant relationship between motivation and critical thinking ability of the EFL learners. On the basis of the results of the analysis of data related to the questionnaires, the researchers were able to reject the null hypothesis of this study which stated 'there is no significant relationship between motivation and critical thinking ability of EFL learners'. Therefore, it was confirmed that there is a significant and positive relationship between CT and motivation. This result extends the previous similar research indicating the relationship between CT and motivation (Garcia & Pintrich, 1992; Valenzuela, Nieto, & Saiz, 2011). In addition, this positive relation may be a replication of many previous studies concerning the effectiveness of critical thinking on the ultimate success of language learners in the challenging process of foreign language learning. There are many other investigations that confirm the effectiveness of critical thinking on different aspects of second or foreign language learning that are conducted in different countries (Neubert & Binko, 1992; Atkinson, 1997; Cairns, Gilbert, Mc Crickerd, Romig, & Younger, 2005), such as a positive correlation between critical thinking and speed of reading ($r = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$) (Semerci, 2002). In another research, a correlation of 0.41 was found between critical thinking and self leadership (Semerci, 2010). CT has been found to be associated with motivational variables such as goal orientations, self-efficacy beliefs and effort (Leung & Kember, 2003). In this study a correlation of 0.796 was found between CT ability and motivation which shows a significant relationship. Therefore this study can serve as a starting point for English teachers to evaluate their current teaching practices, and motivation to incorporate critical thinking skills in their classroom.

Since the result of the study reported that language learning motivation is significantly correlated with critical thinking, and both are significant for achieving better foreign language; therefore, an English teacher should understand more about students' motivation and critical thinking ability in order to assist students to achieve better results in language learning (Xu, 2011).

Moreover, from studying the related literature in critical thinking, one can understand that it has significant impacts on improving the traditional methods of teaching, learning and the educational system (Boloori & Naghipoor, 2013). Therefore, it can be concluded that the utilization of critical thinking strategies would help learners work better in learning foreign language.

CONCLUSION

As motivation has been shown to play a significant role in student achievement, techniques that focus on increasing student motivation should be developed. Maehr and Midgley (1991) suggest that changes need to be made at the school-wide level to increase student motivation rather than only focusing on changes in individual classrooms. In addition, with motivation being as important a factor in learning success (Dornyei, 1998), teacher skills in motivating learners should be seen as central to teaching effectiveness. As Good and Brophy (1994, p.212, cited in Dornyei,

1998) summarize, 'motivation in the classroom did not receive much scholarly attention until recently, so that teachers were forced to rely on unsystematic 'bag-of-tricks' approaches or on advice coming from questionable theorizing'.

On the other hand, critical thinking enables the learners to determine their own criteria and to judge and question an idea or thought based on reliable evidence and produce assertions. They need to produce assertions that are based on relevant, accurate facts; based on credible sources; precise; unbiased; free from logical fallacies; logically consistent; and strongly reasoned" (Beyer, 1995). Therefore, critical thinking is a necessity at all levels of education for a lifelong learning. It's much easier to teach students to memorize facts and then assess them with multiple-choice tests. When thinking critically is emphasized and taught, such a habit will probably be transported to their lives. They will be individuals who are aware of their own learning, as those who can question, judge and establish healthy reasoning based on reliable evidence and fight against the fallacies and finally draw robust conclusions when they are required to solve problems and make decisions.

The EFL/ESL classroom is a place in which teachers can promote the creation of critical thinkers (Chamot, 1995). However, it is important to analyze the understanding of critical thinking teachers may have and if this understanding is appropriate for the English language class-room as pointed out by Atkinson (1997). There is a growing interest in the EFL classroom for the inclusion of critical thinking skills in the repertoire of skills it aims at developing in students. One way this is happening is through textbooks, some of which have started to include activities geared to fostering these skills. Nevertheless, there is still a lack of consensus about the right moment to introduce these skills, which skills to teach and what they mean among developers of instructional materials and educators (Beyer, 1984). Therefore, teachers need to take a more proactive role in the classroom. They need to research the topic and adapt materials at hand to turn them into event-ful thinking encounters for their students. Teachers can use questions, involve students in discussions on challenging and motivating topics, and engage students in meaningful critical thinking processes. Moreover, teachers, syllabus designers, and material developers should incorporate CT skills in to their classrooms, course books, and materials. Incorporating critical thinking in course books results in educated students who are able to effectively apply critical thinking skills to their academic studies (Kealey, Holland, & Watson, 2005). In addition, teachers will always work to motivate students. How they go about this will vary from teacher to teacher. This research lends support to the existence of a relationship between critical thinking ability and motivation. Findings show that with regard to some of the unmotivated students, improved critical thinking skills reflected an improvement of motivation to learn and it can be suggested that in order to raise students' motivation, prior importance should be attached to developing their critical thinking ability.

In the current study, the researcher employed the Motivational and CT questionnaires for Language Learning as the instruments to obtain data and perform the statistical analyses. However, every individual instrument has its strengths and weaknesses and they are not the only instruments for investigating CT and motivation, although they are commonly used by many researchers. Therefore, they may not cover all motivational variables and CT ability of EFL learners, hence, some other instruments could be taken into consideration for further relevant study. The survey technique was the only method adopted to investigate the language learning motivation and CT ability use in this study, but there are still various research methods such as interviews, classroom observations, diary analyses and experimental design which could be used to obtain more information and may help reduce the bias caused by using a single research method.

Moreover, this study has a comparatively small sample size. The participants of this study were limited at only one university in Yazd. The number of subjects was limited to students who were available for conducting this research by researchers. Further research can be done on larger sample size to add to the findings of this study. Besides, it is hard to guarantee that students could finish the questionnaire honestly, which may affect the accuracy of data information, and will hence influence the result of the experiment, although the researchers had tried their best.

In future research, it is recommended to adopt both quantitative and qualitative analyses in the research. These two kinds of research methods could mutually support each other in order to take broad and clear views of language learning process.

Moreover, in the current research, only the relationship between language learning motivation and CT ability was examined, while there are still various factors associated with critical thinking ability. Therefore, the relationship between CT and other affective factors such as attitudes, anxiety, and learners' belief about their English learning could be examined in the future research. In addition, parallel studies should be carried out on elementary and high school students and teachers concerning the relationships between motivation and critical thinking.

The results promotes the existence of an interrelationship between critical thinking and motivation, but future research should explore these findings in an attempt to further investigate the impact improved critical thinking ability may have on students with varying levels of motivation to learn.

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