THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STRATEGIC INSTRUCTION ON METACOGNITION OF EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
Strategy instruction is an important component in language learning curriculum. Strategy instruction can have an impact on students' learning. Thus, this study examined the effectiveness of using self-regulated strategy development (SRSD) instruction on the development of metacognition of Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners to see whether the instruction can improve metacognition of EFL learners, and also compare the effectiveness of such instruction with non-strategic (i.e., traditional) instruction. To achieve the goal of the study, 70 Iranian L2 learners in two groups at intermediate language proficiency level were assigned to a control and an experimental group. Both groups received instruction through one-month period of instruction; the analysis of t test on the data indicated that explicit strategy instruction (SRSD) had a significant positive impact on the participants' metacognition in the experimental group (i.e., SRSD group). By implication, self-regulated strategy can be incorporated into the language learning to help L2 learners improve their metacognition.

KEYWORDS: Language learning, metacognition, strategy instruction

INTRODUCTION
Strategies for language learning and language use have been receiving attention in the areas of foreign language teaching and learning (Oxford 1990; O'Malley & Chamot 1990). Oxford (1990) points out that strategies allow second/foreign language (L2) learners to take responsibility for their own language learning and solve learning problems. Learning strategies are defined by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) as "special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (p.1). Oxford (1994) defines them as "actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques students use, often unconsciously, to improve their progress in apprehending, internalizing, and using the L2" (p.1).

1

I J L L A L W

More importantly, second language researchers have stressed the importance of training language learners to be strategic readers. As Manchon (2008) states, researchers agree that using strategy is closely linked to success in language learning; if learners become conscious about using different strategy, and become more responsible for the selection, use, and evaluation of their learning strategies, they will become more successful language learners by taking more control on their own language learning. Thus, language educators in many different contexts have been looking for ways to help L2 learners become more successful in foreign language   learning (Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1998). As they state, strategy use can be viewed as one vehicle for promoting greater success; it can be considered effective if it provides positive support to the L2 learners. For this reason, Self-regulated learning (SRL) has attracted attention in L2 research. Zimmerman (1989, p. 4), one of the leading researchers in this field, describes self-regulated learners as those who are "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviorally active participants in their own learning". Self-regulated L2 learners personally direct their own efforts to acquire knowledge and skill rather than relying on others, such as teachers or other kind of instruction.

To move further, developing metacognition awareness is necessary for academic attainment. Anderson (2008) defines metacognition as a thinking about thinking. It is "the ability to reflect on what is known. Metacognition results in critical but healthy reflection and evaluation of thinking that may result in making specific changes in how learning is managed, and in the strategies chosen for this purpose" (p. 99). Flavell (1979, p. 907) also defines metacognition as "the knowledge about and regulation of one's cognitive activities in learning processes"; it involves awareness of strengths, weaknesses, resources, processes of learning, and conditions in which specific processes work for the learner (Nelson, 1999). In the light of the above issues, this study was an attempt to examine the effectiveness of self-regulated strategy development on the metacognition of Iranian L2 learners to see whether such an explicit strategy instruction (SRSD) can effect positively on Iranian L2 learners metacognition.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Strategies are defined as "a set of operations or actions that a person consciously undertakes to accomplish a desired goal" (Graham, Harris, & Santangelo, 2008, p. 81). As Reid and Lienemann (2006) state, strategies are much like tools; we use strategies to make a task easier. Oxford (1990) argues that strategies are important for L2 learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence.

Furthermore, strategy instruction is a method of direct and explicit teaching of strategies to help L2 learners become more proficient with the ability to use effective strategies to increase their understanding. In a large number of research studies, (Koda, 2004; Lee, 2003; Pressley, 2006), strategy instruction has been considered beneficial to L2 learners and improve their L2 learning, due to importance of strategy instruction, educational policy makers have emphasizes strategy instruction in methods of language learning and teaching method.

Furthermore, many studies revealed that students perform better if they use learning strategies appropriately. For example, Koşar and Bedir (2014) conducted a study on Turkish L2 learners to

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find out the progress of Turkish L2 learners in the speaking skill. In the study, the experimental group was exposed to strategy training relevant to speaking and the control group was not trained specifically on language learning strategies. The CALLA (The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach) instructional design, comprised of five phases (preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion) was employed in strategy training for the experimental group. Findings showed that the students in the experimental group made a meaningful improvement in their speaking skills as compared to those in the comparison group. Furthermore, Fan (2010) investigated the effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) on Taiwanese university students' reading comprehension. He adopted a pretest and post-test design with a control group. The findings indicated that CSR had a positive effect on the Taiwanese university learners' reading comprehension. In another research, Mousapour Negari (2011) studied the effect of concept mapping strategy on EFL learners' writing performance. Sixty Iranian EFL students at the intermediate level of language proficiency participated in the study. The results revealed that the instruction of concept mapping strategy had a positive effect on EFL learners' writing achievements.

Moreover, in studies on L1/L2 learning strategies, self-regulated learning has become one of the most exciting developments in L2 learning. Self-regulated is an integrated learning process, which consists of behavior growth that affects students learning. The learning process is planned and adjusted according to the students' objective, so changes will be made in the learning situation. In other words, self-regulated can be used to describe learning that is guided by metacognition, strategic action (planning, monitoring and evaluating personal progress against a standard) and motivation to learn (Zimmerman, 1990; Winne & Perry, 2000; Perry, Phillips, & Hutchinson, 2006).

According to Pintrich, (2002) self-regulated learners are students who are aware of their metacognitive knowledge of strategies. These learners are able to transfer their metacognitive knowledge to all contexts. Students who are self-regulated learners will likely use strategies to help them think about and solve new problems. Further, students who know their strengths and weaknesses and self-knowledge will adjust their learning strategies to be adaptive to further their learning and academic success (Pintrich, 2002).

Furthermore, the majority of investigations into classroom interventions which incorporate metacognition as a part of their programs consider the impact of metacognitive training on L2 learners' academic success (Kassaian & Ghadiri, 2011; Sheory & Mokhtari, 2001; Zhang & Wu, 2009). Different studies have shown that L2 learners develop metacognitive awareness in response to interventions. For example, Everson and Tobias (1998) investigated connections between L2 learners' metacognitive awareness of vocabulary and academic performance as measured by grades. All the participants increased both vocabulary knowledge and awareness of their vocabulary knowledge. In another study, Burchard and Swerdzewski's (2009) investigated a strategic learning course, including students with and without disabilities. The result demonstrated that students who participated in the course made gains in metacognition from the beginning of the course to the end of the course. Moreover, Hong-Nam and Leavel (2011) conducted a study to see the effect of reading strategy instruction on metacognition for college readers in Texas University. The instruction emphasized word meaning, understanding the main

ideas and supporting details, identifying writer's purpose, and using strategies for critical analyses of passages. The result of study demonstrated that the reading strategy instruction made positive effects on students' metacognitive strategic reading.

Apparently, it is necessary for L2 teachers to be trained in strategy instruction, and they should assess L2 learners' awareness of strategy use and raise awareness of the importance of strategy to help them improve their L2 learning. In addition, as Cohen, Weaver, and Li (1998) state L2 teachers should systematically introduce and reinforce learning strategies to improve their performance and be independent learners. However, the review of literature shows that almost, to the best of our knowledge, almost no research has studied the effectiveness of self-regulatory strategy on metacognition of EFL learners in Iranian context. Furthermore, almost no studies, to the best of our smattering knowledge, have investigated course-based strategy (SRSD) in terms of metacognition among EFL learners.

RESEARCH QUESTION
In light of the above issues, this study sought to address the following research question:
- Do Iranian L2 learners who take the SRSD reading-based instruction improve their metacognition?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
For the purpose of this study, the participants of the study were 70 female Iranian EFL students taking part in Navid English institute in Iran. All the participants were females and their age range were from 16-26. Participants were assigned into two classes and were considered at intermediate level of language proficiency in term of the scores on the Oxford Placement Test. One of the classes was randomly selected as the control group and the other class as experimental group. The number of the students in the control was 35 and there were 35 participants in the experimental group.

Instruments
Two instruments were used in this study. The first one was Oxford Placement Test (OPT, 2007) used as a measure to check the homogeneity of subjects in terms of language proficiency. The test had 50 multiple-choice items, which assessed the participants' knowledge of grammar and vocabulary from elementary to intermediate levels, a reading text with 10 graded comprehension questions, and an optional writing task that assesses the participants' ability to produce the L2.

The second material was the full metacognitive awareness inventory (MAI; Schraw & Dennison, 1994). This inventory was employed to measure both metacognitive awareness and metacognitive regulation. This self-report questionnaire has a 52 items, coded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 to 5. The test consists of statements describing the process of learning in general. The participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. This test was validated by Schraw and Dennison (1994).

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Procedures

At the beginning of the instruction, The OPT (2007) was administered to all participants to make sure that all participants in the study enjoyed the same level of language ability. Second, before instructions were given, the participants in both groups completed the metacognitive awareness questionnaire (Schraw & Dennison, 1994) as their pretests. Then, the control group received traditional L2 instruction (i.e., non self-regulatory strategy-based instruction) while the experimental group received SRSD instruction. Instructions in both groups were given in four weeks, for three hours each week, by the same teacher.

Following Graham and Harris (2005), the SRSD instruction of the study included five stages. The first step was *Discuss It;* the learners should discuss when and how use a strategy to accomplish specific tasks/goals. The second one was *Model It*; the learners should model the strategy such as think-aloud, self-talk, and self-instruction. The third step was *Make Its Own*; the learners should paraphrase or rename the steps in a mnemonic or create a new mnemonic name, to remember the steps. The fourth was *Support It;* they should use the strategy as often as possible, and the last one was *Independent Performance*; learners should use the strategy independently across a variety of tasks. By following an instructional sequence, L2 teachers can help their learners gain confidence in strategies and learn them to use automatically for more independent learning.

The L2 participants in experimental group also became familiar to SRSD instruction through one month. During the treatment, L2 participant's lesson consisted of (a) pre skill development, (b) discussion of the strategy, (c) teacher cognitive modeling, (d) strategy step memorization, (e) student and teacher collaborative practice, (f) partner practice, (g) independent practice. The lessons were thought by investigator and began with direct instruction, which was followed by teacher modeling, pair practice, and finally independent practice. Finally, after conducting the instructions, to examine the metacognition effects of learning strategies intervention for the L2 participants, both the experimental and control groups completed metacognitive awareness questionnaire again as posttest.

Meanwhile, *t* test was used as a statistical tool for data analysis, and pretest and posttest scores were compared to address the research question of the study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics of metacognition test scores in both experimental and control groups. The result is presented in the following table.

IJLLALW

Table 1: Descriptive Statistic of MAT Scores in Both Groups

Group	Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental	Pretest	35	122	193	149.23	12.42
	Posttest	35	209	237	220.48	8.54
Control	Pre-test	35	122	180	150.94	11.92
	Post-test	35	139	195	163.20	13.32

Note: Numbers have been rounded off.

A Table 1 demonstrates the scores range from 122 to 237. The minimum and maximum metacognitive awareness scores belonged to the pretest and posttest scores, in experimental and traditional groups respectively. According to Table 1, the pretest mean scores in experimental and traditional (non-SRSD) groups' were 149.23 and 150.94. That is, the mean score in the experimental group was smaller. The posttest mean score in experimental and control groups were 220.48 and 163.20 respectively. That is the difference was large. Besides, both groups showed an increase from the pretests to posttests.

Moreover, to find the effectiveness of self-regulated strategy instruction on L2 learners' metacognition in the experimental group, t test was done. Table 2 shows the results.

Table 2: Comparison Tests between the Pretest and Posttest MAI Scores in experimental group

	Paired Differences						Sig.
			99% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	St. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	(2-tailed)
Pretest-Posttest	-71.26	2.35	-76.04	-66.45	-30.24	34	.000

As the results show, the mean scores improved from the pretest to the posttest. The pretest mean score in the experimental group was significantly smaller than the posttest mean score in experimental group, t (34) = -71. 26, * p < .05; as the results show, scores in the posttest improved significantly more than pretest in experimental group. t test in Table 2 showed that the mean scores improved from the pretest to the posttests. The effect size statistic was also done, the eta squared was found to be .96; there was a large effect, meaning that there was a substantial difference in scores obtained before and after the intervention of Iranian L2 learners.

The results of the present study revealed that the L2 participants in experimental group who received instructions on L2 learning, improved their metacognition. Explicit and strategic

instruction given by the L2 teacher improved L2 learners' performance on metacognition. The above findings of this research are consistent with the previous researches by Koşar and Bedir (2014), Fan (2010), and Mousapour Negari (2011) who reported that strategy instruction was closely linked to success in language learning. Also, the strategy instruction intervention demonstrated a significant impact on students' metacognition. Implementing an explicit mode of instruction helped the L2 learners to plan and to monitor their learning.

The findings of the study are consistent with the results of previous findings by Hong-Nam and Leavel (2011), Burchard and Swerdzewski's (2009), who demonstrated that strategy instruction could have positive effects on students' metacognition. Therefore, strategy instruction helped L2 learners improve their awareness of the need for recognizing and applying effective strategies in L2 learning. In addition, Cohen, Weaver, and Li advise teachers to systematically introduce and reinforce learning strategies to help students use the target language more effectively. Thus, the explicit self-regulated strategy training seems to have contributed to the improvement of students' metacognition; the explicit instruction and practice that the experimental group received about how to plan their learning, and set specific goals within a time frame contributed to their improvement in metacognition. The participants in the experimental group selected the most appropriate learning strategy, monitored strategy use; used a combination of strategies, managed their time by devoting some time during their study, and finally evaluated the whole process, all these contributed to this improvement.

CONCLUSION
The major concern of the present study was to explore the effectiveness of self-regulated strategy development instruction on the metacognition of the EFL learners. The results highlighted the importance of the self-regulated learning, as it was proved to be directly related to metacognition of L2 learners. The explicit instruction in self-regulated model helped the L2 participants with the knowledge and skills needed to improve their metacognition. The results indicated that those L2 learners who had strategic instruction promoted their metacognition. The findings of the present study have implications for teachers, and textbook writers in the realm of TEFL. MAT can help teachers identify L2 learners in need of strategic learning; therefore, teachers can help L2 learners use different strategies to facilitate their learning. Textbook writers, especially those who are involved in developing L2 materials, should include a sufficient amount of information on learning strategies; such strategic instruction can be useful for L2 learners' success. In sum, there is a need to inform L2 instructors and learners about the importance of teaching self-regulatory strategies as an effective way for gaining metacognition and success in L2 learning.

There are some limitations raised from the results of the current study; they should be taken into consideration when generalizing the above findings. The results of the present study provide a basis for the implementation of self-regulated strategy instruction with L2 learners. However, the number of L2 participants in this research was small and the participants were limited to female EFL learners. Further research should examine the effects of strategic instruction with larger samples. Also, if the sample was large enough to include learners with different L2 proficiency levels, the study could address L2 proficiency as one variable to see how strategic and non-strategic instructions could affect the EFL learners' metacognition at different levels of L2

IJLLALW

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proficiency. Furthermore, a quasi-experimental research design, which lacked the element of complete randomization, was used in the present study; with random selection of the L2 participants, stronger claims about the results could have been made.

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IJLLALW

THE POSITIVE INFLUENCES OF THE APPLICATION OF COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH (CA) ON IMPROVING THE LISTENING AND SPEAKING SKILLS OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS (A CASE STUDY: ILAM CITY, IRAN)

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ABSTRACT

The major aim of conducting the study was to investigate the influence of the applying the communicative approach (CA) upon the Listening and Speaking Skills of Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) Learners. In order to address this issue, a quantitative study was done on two randomly selected intact classes in a language institution. These two classes were determined as experimental group (37 subjects) and control group (41 subjects). It was hypothesized that the learners taught according to the CA would score higher in the final test than in the pre-test and that there would be statistically meaningful differences at the level of .05 between the post-test mean scores of the two groups. However, various communicative activities were used with the experimental group while the control group was exposed to traditional, non-communicative, instruction using structurally based methods, such as the audio-lingual method. A pre-test was conducted to both groups at the outset of the experiment to ensure that they had the same language background. At the end of the experiment, a post-test was run to both groups to determine whether the CA had positively influenced the learners' listening and speaking abilities. The experiment lasted almost seven weeks of the first semester of 1393 (2014). The study has revealed that the CA had a positive impact upon the learners' listening and speaking skills. Meanwhile, the experimental group obtained somewhat higher scores in the post-test than in the pre-test, making the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores statistically significant. It was also revealed that the difference between the pre-test and the post-test for the control group was not meaningfully significant and the experimental students were more differentiated than the control students, as shown by a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of both groups in the post-test in favor of the experimental students.

KEYWORDS: communicative approach, modification, intact classes, quantitative

INTRODUCTION

Language teaching methods have been introduced in order to improve the quality of teaching and achieve the desired impact on learners. Some of these methods could not develop the learners' ability to speak the target language fluently. This has given rise to new methods designed to overcome the limitations of the previous ones. One of the most accepted trends in the field of foreign language teaching (FLT) is the communicative approach (CA), which was introduced in the 1970s by a group of European Council experts (Galloway, 1993). The communicative approach is based on the idea that learning language successfully comes through having to

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communicate real meaning. When learners are involved in real communication, their natural strategies for language acquisition will be used, and this will allow them to learn to use the language. Basically, the CA "emphasizes the fact that the learners and their communicative purposes are at the very core of the teaching program" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983, p. 17). Chowdhry (2010) wrote "when CLT was introduced, the English as a foreign language (EFL) context in which it would inevitably be applied was not considered". Akram and Mehmood (2011: 175) report an experimental study conducted to know the importance of introducing the communicative approach in ELT in teacher training programs. They write: CLT enhances the learners' confidence and it gives a sense of satisfaction to the teacher as well in the sense that s/he is successful in making the students use the foreign language in their conversation. CLT gives clarity to the expression… communicative approach is better than all the other methods of language teaching in general and Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in particular because the GTM is more concerned with teaching about language rather than language itself whereas communicative approach establishes a direct bond between the experience and the expression.

Thus, the fundamental purpose of this approach is to enable EFL learners to communicate in the target language fluently. This particular aim is important because it is based on the recognition that "we learn language most effectively by using it in realistic situations" (ibid, p. 90). This, it may be argued, requires more concentration on language use than on language usage. Due to its noticeable effectiveness, the communicative syllabus has recently been adopted in Iran. This new direction started in 1990s with textbooks written by experts at universities. Although the books have been in use for quite a long period of time, it is still hard to recognize a significant change in the Iranian learners' ability to speak English appropriately and effectively. Abu-Ras (2002), in a study conducted in order to investigate the applicability of the CA in the Saudi context, argues that "after almost sixteen years of its application, the communicative ability of the Saudi students graduating from the secondary schools is still very poor" (p. 17). The reason, in my opinion, could be attributed to EFL teachers' ignorance of the main principles of the CA. Bakarman (2004) has found out that "most Iranian EFL female teachers had only a shallow knowledge of the theory and principles of the CA" (p. 6). As a result, they could not help learners to improve their ability to speak the target language effectively. From our experience as instructors of English and as a supervisor of educational research, we can claim that there is a good deal of evidence to prove that many Iranian EFL teachers still use traditional approaches to the teaching of English, such as the grammar translation method and the audio-lingual method, which have been described by many practitioners as untrustworthy guides to classroom instruction (Gage, 1975). This fact has been addressed by Al-Subahi (1991), who says that the current English syllabuses … could not modify the traditional role played by the teacher; neither could it decrease the [teacher's] domination [of] the English class. The grammar translation method is still followed by most English teachers interchangeably with the direct method, both of which offer little chance for students to participate and consequently carry the students towards memorization instead of understanding (p. 37). What makes the situation even worse is that many teachers have not had pre-or in-service training in how to manage the classroom communicatively. Abu-Ras (2002) found 89 % of EFL teachers had not received enough pre-service training in communicative language teaching. Another possible reason for the students' limited ability to speak the target language fluently could be the textbooks. Their designers claim that they have

IJLLALW

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been written according to the CA; however, in reality, they are largely structurally based. The linguistic content of these books is of low communicative value. Furthermore, listening and speaking skills are left out of the final exams. It is little wonder, then, that the students' ability to communicate fluently and confidently in English is generally so poor. A review of the related literature has revealed that most previous studies involved identifying hindrances to the application of the CA in different contexts rather than experimentally investigating its effect on students' ability to produce and to understand communicatively meaningful messages. Examples include studies by O'Sullivan (2001) in Namibia, Musthafa (2001) in Indonesia, Yoon (2004) in Korea, Jarvis and Atsilarat (2004) in Thailand, Menking (2001) in Japan, Zhang (1997) in China, and Gahin and Myhill (2001) in Egypt. Since no previous study has – to the best of my knowledge – attempted to carry out such an experiment in the Saudi context, the present investigation seeks to fill an important gap in the literature regarding measuring the effect of the CA experimentally. In addition, it is expected that the study would encourage other researchers to conduct further empirical studies on how to effectively implement the CA in Iranian educational contexts. To sum up, a likely candidate for helping foreign language learners develop their ability to speak the target language fluently is the CA. It focuses on language use but at the same time attaches importance to language knowledge. This experimental study aims at measuring the impact of the CA on the communicative abilities of some Iranian EFL learners. Moreover, the findings would guide EFL teachers in selecting the most influential classroom interactions and would help the selection of items for the syllabus.

Statement of the Problem
Teaching methodology plays a significant role in the EFL learning process, and most learners may feel disappointed if the method of teaching is not appropriate for them.

Regarding language teaching in Iran, Bakhshi (1997) notes: "One of the problems is an old belief that just knowing about the language and its grammatical patterns suffice teaching English, so there are no rooms left for advancement through insight of linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, methodology, and pedagogy" (p.14). It seems that one of the deficiencies is that most teachers lack sufficient knowledge of various methods and skills to implement them. Teachers do not use classroom activities that increase students' commitment for learning English .This makes students feels reluctant to the task of learning. In other words, if teachers base their methodologies only on cognitive considerations, they would neglect the psychological aspect of human behavior. So, language teachers must be aware of the psychological state of learners (motivation & needs) to understand the affective condition for learning. Teaching foreign language in Iran seems to have been long out-dated. Traditional methods continue to be used regardless of the more recent ones. It should be pointed out that methods used in teaching English in Iranian schools or educational settings fail to motivate the students and instigate their involvement in class activities; these methods are, generally, of the grammar-translation type. Accordingly, textbooks are structurally oriented and often not relevant to students' needs; too much emphasis is placed on the learning of grammar and vocabulary. The four macro-skills are taught according to the audio-lingual approach, where they are introduced in the following order: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Little effort is made to actually help students learn to speak English as it is spoken by native speakers. In addition, the books concentrate on

mechanical and formally meaningful drills, but do not allow for communicative ones. Moreover, we have found out, from our experience, that teacher centered language instruction is the dominant form of ELT in Iran, where most teachers seem to prefer to focus on teaching grammar because, apparently, it does not require a high level of English proficiency on the part of the instructor. This assumption has been corroborated by Abu-Ras (2002) in Saudi Arabia, who found out that the traditional methods are compatible with the teachers' competence and training. He also found out that most teachers "do not feel linguistically, communicatively, and educationally competent" (p. 10). Consequently, they are likely to feel insecure about their English proficiency and would not be able to express themselves or to hold a conversation with a native speaker. Add to that secondary students' limited ability to speak and understand English. They are not only unable to speak English fluently, but also get low marks and experience failure in their structurally based final exams. According to Mula (1979), "the general English proficiency and achievement of the majority of Saudi students is completely unsatisfactory and disproportionately low" (cited in Jan, 1984, p. 4). Altwaijri (1982) also found out that "Saudi students spend at least ten years learning English, … but their English proficiency is generally unsatisfactory when compared to the amount of time spent in learning it" (p. 6). To rectify the current situation, a shift from structural approaches to the CA is critically needed. All in all, the focus of this study is determining the effect of communicative approach on listening and speaking ability enhancement.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
The review to be made below is mainly intended to directly link the CA to particular classroom practices, an issue that has been addressed by many practitioners. In addition, the state of ELT in the Saudi context, past and present, will be reviewed.

Methods of English language teaching prior to the communicative approach
Some of methods of English language teaching identify language with grammar and vocabulary. Others see language as an abstract set of semantic, syntactic, and lexical features. For some others, language is the ideas, concepts, and norms of social and linguistic behavior which are manifested in daily life (Richards, 1984). ELT methods before the emergence of the CA can be classified, as we shall see below, into traditional and pre-communicative methods. Each type claims to aim at helping students to communicate in the target language (Larsen-Freeman, 2004). However, some methods have succeeded to some extent in producing competent speakers whereas others have failed to achieve such goal. The grammar-translation method (GTM), the audio-lingual method, and the direct method are examples of the traditional methods. Richards and Rodgers (2006) have also described GTM as unable to help students to speak the target language fluently, frustrating the students and making few demands on the teachers. The opposition the grammar-translation method faced in the mid- and late nineteenth century laid the "foundations for the development of new ways of teaching languages" (ibid, p. 7) that grew "out of naturalistic principles of language learning, such as are seen in first language acquisition" (p. 11). This again led to the emergence of the 'natural methods', which resulted in what is known as the direct method.

IJLLALW

The new method (the direct method) is described by Richards (1984) as "a philosophy of instructional procedures rather than a specification for syllabus design and materials production", since "it could not readily be translated into textbooks and materials. And this was one reason why it failed to survive despite the support it received in high places" (p. 15) because, specifically, "it overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom" (pp. 12–13). Next, the audio-lingual method came forward, to become the most common and universally used of the traditional approaches. It resulted from the combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology (Richards & Rodgers, 2006), focusing on the principles of structural linguistics, "whose main tenets were that language is primarily oral, and that it is a rule-governed system" (Knight, 2003, p. 149). Therefore, its main concern is teaching students grammatical sentence patterns. As Papalia (1976) reminds us, "the product of the techniques in the audio-lingual classroom is memorization"(p. 59). Thus, "the most common kinds of pattern drill for presenting structure are repetition drills, transformation drills, substitution drills, and integration drills" (ibid, pp. 58–59). Furthermore, since no emphasis is placed on meaning, students are made to repeat and say things without making sense of what is repeated (Larsen-Freeman, 2004). Thus, "the theoretical failure (and greatest practical problem) of the audio-lingual method was its inability to show how to move from learned sentences to creativity" (Spolsky, 1989, p. 150). Overall, the previous three methods stress the structural aspects of the target language, requiring accuracy through drills and repetitions.

Many linguists believe that such methods failed to help learners speak the target language fluently. This led to the emergence of alternative directions for language teaching and learning. These alternative, pre-communicative, methods are total physical response, the silent way, and community language learning. The total physical response method was introduced by James Asher in the 1960s "to provide language learning experiences that reduce the stress and anxiety adults experience in foreign language learning" (Richards, 1984, p. 11). Basically, this method, which involves a link between physical activity and learning, is not based on a particular model of language. The teacher is expected to direct the class whereas the learners are required to listen and act according to the instructions given by the teacher. Thus, this method is rarely used beyond beginner level, which could be one reason for its unpopularity (Knight, 2003). Another innovative method is the silent way, devised in the 1970s by Galeb Gattegno, who believed that "to teach means to serve the learning process rather than to dominate it" (Larsen-Freeman, 2004, p. 54). Therefore, "the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom but the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible" (Richards & Rodgers, 2006, P. 81). The community language learning method was the third pre-communicative answer to the problem of FL teaching. It was developed from the counseling-learning approach introduced by Charles Curran in the 1970s. The main concern of this method is to consider students as whole persons, with teachers caring for their students' intellect as well as the relationship among their feelings, physical reactions, instinctive protective reactions, and desire to teach (Larsen-Freeman, 2004). In this way, "the teacher acts as the 'counselor', and the learners as the 'clients'" (Knight, 2003, p. 153). Although the pre-communicative methods reviewed above can be said to be superior to the traditional methods presented earlier, both types of methods have

IJLLALW

been found to lack the ability to develop the students' communicative competence in the target language, particularly beyond classroom walls. Evidently, a shift to a method where this particular aim could be achieved is needed. Against this backdrop of ineffectiveness, the communicative approach came into existence, to be one of the most successful innovative approaches in the history of ELT. It focuses on developing students' communicative competence, as shown in the next section.

The communicative Approach

Although they were introduced in order to help learners to communicate effectively using the target language, most of the previous methods were unable to fulfill this goal. Some educators and linguists began to feel that students were "at a loss to communicate in the culture of the language studied" (Galloway, 1993, p. 1) "despite years of language instruction" (Taylor, 1983, p. 69). Some others, such as Widdowson (1989), believe that learners need knowledge of the language as well as the ability to use this knowledge in real-life situations.

Therefore, the communicative approach (CA), which is also known as the functional-notional approach (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983), and communicative language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2006), has been designed "to provide learners with opportunities for communicating in the second language" (Ellis, 1993, p. 91). Thus, "it stresses the development of the learners' communicative competence and performance" (Pattison, 1989, p. 19). Hence, the very starting point for the CA as described by D. A. Wilkins was how, when, and where the learner can express himself; not "what the student communicates through languages" (Yalden, 1996, p. 67). This means that a great deal of emphasis is placed on "the communicative purpose(s) of a speech act" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983, p. 13). More specifically, the interest shifted from form to meaning. In addition, the main principles of the education process within the CA are "the learner's needs motivation, characteristics, abilities, limitations, and resources" (Yalden, 1996, p. 69). As pointed out earlier, the CA, having emerged from a dissatisfaction with traditional methods, such as the audio-lingual and grammar translation method, is based on the belief that "the second language learner must acquire not just control of the basic grammar of the sentence but all the communicative skills of a native speaker" (Spolsky, 1989, p. 139). Thus, the CA came to have characteristics that set it apart from the methods reviewed in section 2.1. These characteristics are outlined by the International Teacher Training Organization [ITTO] (2001) as follows:(1) It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language, (2) it is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures, (3) students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information that the other(s) lack, (4) students often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts, (5) classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands, (6) skills are integrated from the beginning; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and perhaps also writing, (7) the teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors, and (8) the teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately. However, being concerned with helping learners to communicate fluently in the foreign language, the CA requires a special classroom, which is described as learner-centered.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The major aim of this study is to measure the impact of the implementation of the CA on the listening and speaking skills of Iranian EFL learners. The results of the study would determine whether the application of the CA experimentally in Iran context would be successful and promising or not. In order to help Iranian learners learn English effectively this study sought to answer the following question: Will the implementation of the CA have a meaningful impact upon the listening and speaking skills of Iranian EFL learners?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

In order to investigate the problem raised by the study and to answer the related question, the following null hypotheses will be tested:
1. The implementation of the CA will have a negative effect on the listening and speaking skills of third-year secondary students.
2. Students who are taught according to the CA principles will score higher on the post-test than on the pre-test for listening and speaking skills.
3. Students who are taught according to the traditional approaches will score higher on the post-test than on the pretest for listening and speaking skills.
4. The means for the experimental group in the post-test will be the same as the means for the control group.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research population and sample

The populations selected for this experimental study were 78 Iranian EFL learners at an English language institution. The institution was selected since it is equipped with many facilities, such as language labs and spacious classrooms. It was expected that such facilities would enable the procedures for doing communicative activities.

In Iranian institutions, the learners are usually divided into two sections: science and arts. Two of the science classes were selected to be experimental group and control group. The reason for this choice is that science students are usually more motivated than arts students. The class which was selected to be the experimental group had the smallest number of students (37). This way, hindrances to communicative language teaching resulting from large classes might be avoided. Both groups consisted of a total number of 78 students: 37 experimental and 41 control. They were all aged between 17 and 18.

Moreover, they all had the same exposure to English through formal classes. Similarly, since they came from the same country, it is reasonable to assume that they shared a homogeneous EFL background. They also matched each other in grade (Bs). Moreover, they came mostly from the same neighborhood and were the same gender and age. The Experimental group included 47.43 % of the sample of the study; whereas the control group included 52.56 %.

IJLLALW

Instruments, Treatment and Procedure

The experimental and the control group were selected according to the randomized pretest-posttest experimental/control group design. As it was said, two groups were used for this study: an experimental and a control group. Random assignment was used to form the two groups. A pre-test was administered to both groups at the same time. The experimental group studied English according to the CA and the control group studied according to the traditional approach. We taught listening and speaking to the EG ourselves whereas the CG was taught by another teacher. Resources other than the textbook were used in order to gather communicative materials. At the end of the experiment, which lasted seven weeks in the first term of (2013), a post-test was administered to both groups. Moreover, of the total sample of the control group, which reached 41, only 32 completed the pre-test and the post-test. Comparisons of performance across pre-test and post-test were therefore restricted to the data of 69 subjects for both experimental and control group.

The independent variable used in this study consisted of two conditions: an experimental condition in which the students practiced listening and speaking skills according to the principles of the CA and a control condition in which the students practiced listening and speaking skills according to the traditional methods. Both groups had the same number of hours of instruction, which was four periods weekly, forty-five minutes each. The dependent variable was the listening and speaking skills of both groups.

The experimental group interacted in a learner-centered class. At the beginning, we explained the aims of the experiment and the principles that underlie the CA. We also familiarized the students with a few communicative language functions, such as greeting, apologizing, making an excuse, etc. In addition, the students were asked to learn some basic expressions necessary for expressing forgiveness, appreciation, joy, etc. Structure was mostly taught implicitly (inductively) and sometimes explicitly (deductively) whenever needed because "both usage and use are essential elements of communicative competence" (Tongue & Gibbons, 1982, p. 65). This means that students are to acquire language structures simultaneously while they are engaged in group interactions, that is, without forcing them to participate and without necessitating mastery of certain rules. In order to do that, we avoided long presentations.

Furthermore, I focused on the use of dialogues in everyday situations, using different and various authentic listening materials. In the language lab, the students' seats were arranged in groups of four or five in order to practice conversation easily. We introduced and facilitated the communicative activities, and we acted as an observer and a monitor while the students performed the tasks.

The study involved a pre-test and a post-test, which covered the listening and speaking skill. The tests were designed according to: (a) the CA principles; (b) the related literature, particularly procedures of similar studies; and (c) the textbooks *English for Iranian learners*.

The listening test targeted the following sub-skills: (1) understanding functions: listening for specific information (focusing on meaning rather than form) through multiple choice items in

order to observe the students' ability to comprehend a short talk; (2) sound discrimination and recognition of phoneme sequences by asking the students whether the pronounced words are the same or different and by circling the words they hear; and (3) guessing meaning from context by listening to short conversations and choosing the correct definition of the underlined words.

The speaking test targeted the following sub-skills: (1) discourse management: coherence and cohesion devices by reading about a given situation then choosing the best response orally; (2) making the best choices for real-life situations by providing contextually appropriate responses orally after reading four personalized situations which are described in a few sentences and end with a question; (3) pronouncing words correctly and with appropriate intonation; and (4) engaging in an interview with the examiner. Unfortunately, the third and the fourth tasks were accomplished in the pre-test only and could not be done for the post-test for administrative reasons; I had been told to stop the experiment due to the dissatisfaction of some parents with the CA treatment. Therefore, both tasks were excluded from statistical analysis.

For the total test performance, scores are tabulated out of 29. For the listening test, task one is tabulated out of 4, task two out of 7, task three out of 6, and task four out of 4. One mark is assigned for every correct answer. On the speaking test, task one is tabulated out of 4, task two out of 4, task three out of 16, and task four out of 20. As mentioned earlier, task three and four of the speaking test was excluded from the total test performance. The listening and speaking test was administered in one period of approximately 45 minutes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to analyze the pre-test and post-test, the data was computed by means of the statistical package SPSS. The kinds of analyses that were used included Pearson Product Moment Coefficient, which indicates the degree of relationship between two sets of numbers as well as the frequencies, percentage and means. The pair and the independent sample's *t*-test were also used to determine whether the difference in means between the two groups- if it existed-was significant at the .05 level. The above statistical types were additionally used to compare the following: the pre-test means for both groups, the pre-test and post-test means for both groups, and the post-test means for both groups. In order to control the influence of the pre-test on the post-test, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), which is a "method of statistically controlling for extraneous variables" (Lauer, 2006), was used. That is to say, it was employed to adjust "the post-test scores for the influence of the pre-test so that the adjusted post-test scores are not biased due to the pre-test" (ibid, p. 58). The main aim of this study was to explore whether an experimental application of the CA could positively affect Iranian EFL learners' overall listening and speaking skills. The mean scores of both the experimental and control group were used to verify or reject the research hypotheses. In addition, a *t*-test and a two-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) will be applied to see whether the differences were significant or not. The computer program called SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) was used since it has been admitted by many researchers in the field as being the best program used for the analysis of results. In order to measure the effect of the CA on the students' listening and speaking skills, a number of questions were raised. To answer these questions, this section will present the results

18

IJLLALW

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of the statistical analyses of the experimental and the control group's pre-test and post-test, as well as the results of ANCOVA.

In order to find out an answer to the main research question, which is "will the implementation of the CA have a positive effect on the listening and speaking skills of Iranian EFL learners?" it should be said clearly that there was fairly big difference between the experimental group's pre-test mean and post-test mean. More precisely, the analysis revealed that the experimental group achieved a mean score of about 18.2432 in the pre-test; whereas for the post-test, the mean score increased to 21.4054. To determine whether this difference between the pre-and the posttests is statistically significant, a *t*-test was applied. However, we saw that the *t*-test value was -5.720, which is greater than the tabulated *t*-test value. The correlation between the pre- and the post-tests was significant (r = -3.16216, p < .05). This means that there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental groups' pre- and post-tests. Hence, the null hypothesis, which stated that "Students who are taught according to the CA principles will score higher on the post-test than on the pre-test for listening and speaking skills" was retained. Such result indicated that the listening and the speaking skills of this group improved since the application of the experiment. One can conclude, then, that the CA positively affected the learners in the measured skills.

CONCLUSION

The previous results showed a significant difference between the pre and post-test in favor of the post-test for the EG and no significant difference between the pre- and post-test for the CG. However, to ensure that the external validity of the adopted tool was not affected by an interaction of the pre-test with the experimental treatment, a two-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used. In other words, the purpose was to make sure that the extraneous variables were effectively controlled. Such analysis was used because "ANCOVA adjusts the posttest scores for differences between the experimental and control group on the corresponding pre-test" (Borg & Gall, 1989, p. 677). Students and even teachers in the traditional classroom cannot be expected to care for skills that are not tested. This evidently explains the small difference between the control groups' pre-test and post-test. In conclusion, although the application of the experiment was faced with myriads of difficulties caused by the students themselves, the textbooks, and the school administration, it appeared clear that the listening and the speaking skills of the experimental group improved in nearly the desirable way. This, it may be argued, would not have been attained without the application of the CA.

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IJLLALW

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20

IJLLALW

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IJLLALW

PORTRAYAL OF PSYCHOANALYSIS, WOUNDED FEMALE PARTICIPANTS AND SELF-KNOWLEDGE IN ATWOOD'S *THE HANDMAID'S TALE, CAT'S EYE* AND *THE ROBBER BRIDE*

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ABSTRACT

In the existing literature every text has an important role for portraying a traumatized woman and her intractable problem in the novel. Atwood summarizes and analyses the trauma theory and practice of identity, language, victim, and survival by the help of psychoanalysts such as Sigmund Freud, Shoshana Felman, and Cathy Caruth to keep trauma theory completely up-to-date. In The Handmaid's Tale, the writer focuses on the re-telling of her story as a form of resistance to patriarchal values and narrates the difficulty of living and producing the new Gileadian generation when she cannot passionately believe what they offer as social, political and religious doctrines as new method of treatment. In Cat's Eye, Atwood combines the traumatic effects of the narrative with a photograph in order to give a sense of the past to the audience and enriches the chance of multi interpretations. So, novel is used to present trauma in a photograph to increase the horizontal dimension of the traumatized thought. The Robber Bride is the other novel which has a traumatized woman who likes to escape from the dominated and controlled circumstances that the other sex or the same sex creates for her. So, it is difficult for triad friends to live with the complexity of Zenia which is in contrast of their simplicity that makes the intimate relationship with the so-called female friends. Atwood also believes men have had the power not only to define but also to create images of women as they have chosen in their texts. As Haraway suggests people should undermine these hierarchies. No longer, men dominate women; the aim is to blur the borders.

KEYWORDS: Margaret Atwood, Trauma, Psychoanalysis, Wound, Literature

INTRODUCTION

Psychoanalytical reading of Atwood's narrative is for presenting the recovery of repressed memories. For Elaine in *Cat's Eye*, the repressed trauma of her childhood centers on Cordelia when moving to Toronto which is symbolic. It means that Elaine moves into expressing a complex psychology, that is caused by Cordelia who is feared and hated as a dangerous person,

even though mature Elaine desire and wish her when she says: " Cordelia is my friend … I want to please" (*Cat's Eye*,120). Elaine returns to her imaginary state and her unconscious double. Cordelia influences Elaine: "I'm not afraid of seeing Cordelia. I'm afraid of being Cordelia. Because in some way we changed places, and I've forgotten when" (*Cat's Eye,* 227). Through her narrative, she creates Cordelia as she creates a new self. Elaine finds the "other" identity in herself. She can see the "other" self. She is afraid of this sense. She is transformed in the new shape of identity. It is in the form of postmodernism. Similarly, the other work of Atwood, *The Robber Bride,* is written in the same form. Susan Hekman argues that: "both feminism and postmodernism challenge the epistemological foundations of western thought …" (Hekman, 1990,10).

This kind of challenge brings the "other" shape. In *The Robber Bride* the "other" shape forms Zenia who apparently has the figure of a demonic woman. Howells describes her: "female sexuality – like Zenia – is still outside the fold and on the loose, a powerfully transgressive element which continues to threaten feminist attempts to transform gender relations and concepts of sexual power politics" (Howells, 1995, 133). Zenia has the destructive force to change the lives of Tony, Charis, and Roz. "'The other woman will soon be with us, the feminists used to say'. But how long will it take, thinks Roz, and why hasn't it happened yet?" (*The Robber Bride*, 392). They know Zenia is a subversive participant, so they are aware of her power and admire her. They realize even though Zenia is villain, she accepts to be silent. Nevertheless, Zenia is the reflection of these three characters. Howells remarks: "It would appear that Zenia is threatening not because she is the other of these women, but because she is their double, forcing them to look at repressed dimensions of otherness within themselves"(Howells, 2002, 205). Wisely, Zenia listens to the story of each character, then she pastes the pieces together to make a new story of herself; Tony's childhood story is that "she [my mother] abandoned me" says Tony. "My own mother sold me" says Zenia, (*Robber Bride,* 163). With a sign, Zenia shows both of them are motherless, babies of war, and they have the same childhood (*Robber Bride*, 166). The next female character is Charis who takes Zenia into her home and nurtures her.

Truly, they look at Zenia as a reflection of their own desire and fears. Zenia declares: "my mother was a Roumanian gypsy" (*The Robber Bride*, 271). Charis finds the embodiment of Karen in Zenia. At last, Zenia attempts to reflect on Roz; by knowing that Roz's father brings insecurities for her daughter and to be absent in wartime. These stories give the opportunities for her to suggest a mixture, "So Zenia is a mixture, like herself!" (*The Robber Bride*, 360). Possibly, Zenia is their double. For Tony, Tnomerf Ynot, is her imaginary twin. She searches a stronger and braver self; Zenia provides this: "Tony looks into her blue-black eyes, and sees her own reflection: herself, as she would like to be. *Tnomerf Ynot.* Herself turned inside out" (*The Robber Bride*, l67). Karen is Charis repressed childhood: "Karen is coming back. Charis can't keep her away anymore ... She no longer looks like Karen. She looks like Zenia" (*Robber Bride*, 266). For Roz, Zenia is a desire: "Sometimes - for a day at least, or even for an hour, or if nothing else was available then five minutes would do – sometimes she would like to be Zenia" (*The Robber Bride*, 393). Therefore, every character creates Zenia as the reflection of her life.
Significantly, every Atwood's protagonist is able to achieve a new perception of the psychological trauma. The narrators of her novels try to put together what they remember of past

23

IJLLALW

traumatized life. They are aware of the self-consciousness, even though some of the women are silenced, like Serena Joy, the wife of Offred's commander. The traumatized characters try to heal wound properly by weaving the non-liner narrative. They have traumatic extensive experiences and attempt to represent the events of the past to become witnessed (Rogers, 340).

DISCUSSION
Psychoanalysis and Atwood's Fiction

When somebody is wounded it means there is a scar in her mind which is not seen but felt. The psyche of that innocent character is sick. Psychoanalysis is an important component in self-knowledge as an overwhelming feeling that plays a significant role in Atwood's fictional world. A participant who tries to heal herself believes in femininity, identity, personality, and individuality. For healing herself, Offred, in *The Handmaid's Tale*, focuses on the re-telling of her story as a form of resistance to patriarchal values and narrates the difficulty of females as her friends, or her master in this novel. The aim of the story is to present their wounded psyche and how they live in that limited society where its name is Gilead. She records her double voice and narrates in order to make a safe place for herself in unsafe Gilead. The confirmation of her voice provokes the unconscious mind of herself by remembrance of the past events and traumatized situation that the commander and his wife have made for her. She suggests multi-voices and multi-opinions to find a solution.

For this reason, Offred wears disguises, her red garment, or uses false name as Of Fred, or multi-identities as daughter, mother, wife, commander's mistress and as a friend. For instance, dream, memory or memoir are the devices which have the ability to help her to express inner feelings of the character that have remained hidden in her mind. Campbell states Lacan "insists that truth discloses itself, not in plain propositions, but in lies, mistakes, trickery, and tall stories" (Campbell, 2000, 200). Here the long novel by Atwood progresses the psychoanalytical narratology of the narrator who records her narration.

Amazingly enough, psychoanalysis interpretation of Atwood's fictions verifies that Cordelia, Offred's schoolgirl friend, in *The Handmaid's Tale* and Zenia, as Tony, Roz and Charis's seemingly intimate friend in *The Robber Bride* are trickster-figures to cause a bit of a scar in the mind of others or to traumatize them by their tricks or their duplicity. In addition, the names of these two tricksters have the special meanings to increase their evil characterization. Z can be Zombie, Zenith, Zombi, Zonbi, and finally Zenia. There is an attempt to mix the several meanings of Z in order to create the same protagonist as Zenia. By presenting a shadow of

Zombie, the living dead, she can carry a powerful message for the female character. Emotionally, everybody disconnects from her. Because of being in shadow, she is not only mysterious but also rebellious without any positive or negative emotions. She is a rebel without any sense of sympathy or empathy. Zenia is a disapproving person who seems to act rebelliously without any conventional opinion. She is a dead person who is believed to have been brought back to life by powerful magic. Currently, she is outside life. She takes her authority from absolute magic as if by a special magical power in order to state her message of knowledge and to become aware of

24

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (1), January 2016; 22-32   *Heidarizadeh, N., et al*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

circumstances in daily life and emotional issues that are difficult to face. In Haitian folklore, a zombie is an animated corpse raised by magical witchcraft. Zenia is a Zombie who does not remain under the control as a slave; conversely, she has the power of selection, desire, will, to entrap, and enslave the others.

Significantly, Zenia for Atwood is a talented messenger of brilliant, marvelous and tremendous news, rather than bad news; we thought her friends are traumatized but apparently not. Truly, she tricks them in order to give the sympathetic news; she exposes vicious lies. However, some of the critics believe that all of her behavior is for giving knowledge to others, or for breaking the prison of patriarchy that enslave her friends. We accept that Zenia's dubious actions need more investigation.

For the name of Cordelia, Jessie Givner examines the implications of the choice of Cordelia's name in an article entitled "Names, Faces and Signatures in Margaret Atwood's *Cat's Eye* and *The Handmaid's Tale*". As you know, Cordelia is the King Lear's rejected daughter who suffers from a deep desire to please her father because she cannot satisfy him. Cordelia in Atwood's novel is expelled from several schools (*Cat's Eye*, 219), and her letters to Elaine are less convincing (*Cat's Eye*, 236). In fragmented parts her attitude with boys indicates her notice in them and her giggles sound too high (*Cat's Eye*, 261, 262, 275). She pretends sickness so as to avoid school (*Cat's Eye*, 271). Eventually, making friendship with Cordelia gives a feeling of harm and injury to Elaine (*Cat's Eye*, 275). Nevertheless, Elaine does not want to be her victim; she realizes her multi-faces with theatrical mask.

> This is the only picture I ever did of Cordelia, Cordelia by herself.
> Half a Face, it's called: an odd title, because Cordelia's entire face is
> visible. But behind her, hanging on the wall, like emblems in the
> Renaissance, or those heads of animals, moose or bear, you used to
> find in northern bars, is another face, covered with a white cloth.
> The effect is of a theatrical mask. Perhaps (*Cat's Eye*, 243).

Cordelia as well as Zenia is the source of mental trauma and repeatedly attempts to build her personality in relation to other people's wishes. She imitates the effective action and the conversational speech of others. Due to these facts her artificial behaviors are memorized by Elaine: "She [Cordelia] has a smile like a grown-up's, as if she's learned it and is doing it out of politeness" (*Cat's Eye*, 74). She can charm Elaine's parents by her "voice for adults" and her good manners (*Cat's Eye*, 124). Similarly, Elaine's inferiority is revealed by her mimicry strategies when she tells: "Playing with girls is different and at first I feel strange as I do it, self-conscious, as if I'm only doing an imitation of a girl" (*Cat's Eye*, 55). However, the mimic behavior of girls and wearing skirts give her the unpleasant feeling (*Cat's Eye*, 81). She knows her three tormentors (Cordelia, Coral, Grace) keep an eye on her (*Cat's Eye*, 124, 127, and 128). Constantly, Elaine thinks about something: "I worry about what I've said today, the expression on my face, how I walk, what I wear, because all of these things need improvement" (*Cat's Eye*, 125). The improvement or the transformation forces her to rebel against her friends. She realizes the new attitude towards them; when she realizes these changes it is the first step of initiating the

25

IJLLALW

inner quest. "I can hear this for what it is. It's an imitation, it's acting. It's an impersonation, of someone much older. It's a game. There was never anything about me that needed to be improved. It was always a game, and I have been fooled. I have been stupid (*Cat's Eye*, 207). However, she does not accept to be stupid; it is an emotional trauma in her mind and she must make a decision to show the others that she also has the talent to transform her life even though by art. As it is shown, Cordelia and Zenia are two black characters who apparently try to deceive the others. Do you think these two characters are totally evil? There is a reasonable answer that we must think about it, when we realize that being with Zenia can give a lesson of knowledge to other female protagonists, such as Tony, Charis and Roz. The important point is that they gradually learn how to have challenge to the trickster and how to initiate their quests. As Campbell declares "Indeed, the four heroines engage in a journey of self-discovery: they want to know why they have become insecure individuals struggling daily to conceal their "otherness" (2000, 296).

In addition to psychological trauma, emotional traumatized characters and continued survival are the main terms in Atwood's adventure novels; now it is necessary to declare something about witness, and belatedness in traumatizing narration. For more explanation, the investigation of mental trauma and self-knowledge allude to the traumatized character that forms the beginning of the story. It refers to the past and present and again turns to past time to express that her narration bears witness and belatedness as a gift of survival. In *Unclaimed Experience: Trauma, Narrative, and History*, Caruth characterizes the belatedness of trauma as the interesting paradox. She writes "What returns to haunt the victim is not only the reality of the violent event but also the reality of the way that its violence has not yet been fully known" (1996, 6). The unknown fact makes the traumatic paradox for the victim in her notion; the main question is how trauma is represented in *The Handmaid's Tale* and other stories in schools of psychoanalytic thought. For finding an answer the researchers refer to childhood and adulthood as a key factor in the unknown world which is full of secrets and ambiguity. Recent developments have highlighted the need for the "self" of individual in these two periods that wants to disclose the dark to light and the evil to angel by a quest from the unknown to the known. On the basis of the evidence currently available, it seems fair to suggest that to pass the labyrinth of trauma we need the speech of the female characters that use language to express the difficulty of living in the patriarchal family or society and the limitations of achieving ambitions.

In *Beyond the Pleasure Principle* Freud represents trauma as an experience that repeats itself. The traumatized experience is not located in the original event but "in the nightmares and repetitive actions of the survivor" (4). So, she needs therapy and recovery. It has been mentioned, Caruth suggests the traumatic paradox and the double wound of trauma-a wound of the body and a wound of mind, it is "a wound that cries out", that attempts "to tell us of a reality or truth that is not otherwise available" (1996, 4). Nevertheless, it is vital. The "truth" of trauma thus lays in its belated address, in its repetition, a repetition that can be re-traumatizing and even life-threatening for the survival (1996, 63). Caruth declares: it is the "striking juxtaposition of the unknowing, injurious repetition and the witness of the crying voice-that best represents Freud's intuition of... traumatic experiences" (1996, 3). Atwood hears the voice of the unvoiced female character, her character cries and it is the starting point for her to listen to the speech of the muted

female protagonist who attempts to find a way to escape from the traumatized land to the land of freedom. If she finds that land, it is the great transformation.

Moreover, the first novel, *The Handmaid's Tale* is a psychoanalytic story of a traumatized character that searches a listener for the belated repetition of her trauma, just as the tape of handmaid needs an audience to witness the survivor's story. One could listen or read the voice of Offred as the "other" within the self or as an indication of how "one's own trauma is tied up with the trauma of another" (*The Handmaid's Tale,* 8). Freud's notion is an increasingly important area of the double wound of trauma. He reveals how trauma repeats itself and is known belatedly. At all*,* Offred is a sample of an introspective narrator who wants to reveal the suppressed and repressed wishes that have been saved in her mind and she tries to escape from them.

In the second novel, *Cat's Eye*, Elaine, the protagonist as a traumatized artist begins with a return to Toronto. She narrates her revisiting the location of her childhood after many years of absence. She sighed deeply. The wounded artist, Elaine, says "I'm having a retrospective, my first" (*Cat's Eye,* 15) to present the association of art with the unconscious processes of memory. She makes an inner journey; It is a quest of knowledge that is filled with "self" after neglecting the past traumatized experiences. This association makes the moment of anagnorisis. So, the retrospective episodes revealed that Elaine suffered a traumatic period of childhood that is the same as whatever Freud has described as the neurotic patients who must find their therapy: "They have, indeed, driven it out of consciousness and out of memory, and apparently saved themselves a great amount of psychic pain, *but in the unconscious the suppressed wish still exists*, only waiting for its chance to become active […]" ("Psychoanalysis", 195-96). Recent developments in psychoanalysis have heightened the need for unconscious mind that is a place for the existence of the suppressed events. The significant point is that only years later does Elaine attain knowledge of her traumatized past. Freud notes: "It was quite impossible to reach the first and often most essential trauma directly, without first clearing away those coming later" ("Psychoanalysis", 185). Eventually in the same way, Elaine takes her "essential trauma"; for solving this kind of trauma she uses an object, cat's eye marble, which can help her recovering: "I look into it, and see my life entire" (*Cat's Eye,* 398). She believes in cat's eye that manifests the moment of revelation.

In the third novel, *The Robber Bride,* Tony, Charis and Roz speak about their suppressed actions by Zenia who presents her tricks, lies, and seizes the day in order to traumatize the other protagonists. The psychoanalytical interpretation of Atwood's fiction, such as, *The Robber Bride,* makes the basis of the revenge; fantasy in the novel becomes the trauma of not experiencing death or death is not directly experienced by Zenia. She is killed as the revival in the fantasy of Tony, Roz, and Charis who point to trauma as the dark side of Zenia. The fantasy at the end of *The Robber Bride* could be realized as a way to master the traumatic stimulus retrospectively, or, as Caruth argues "to master what was never fully grasped in the first place" (1996, 62).

However, research has consistently shown that accepting and understanding of revelation can reduce the pain and the tolerance of the suppressed wishes, so that the protagonist moves from trauma to self-knowledge. The data gathered in this research study suggests that Offred relies on recording; it means: recording is a provoking action for her. Elaine sticks on art and painting, so,

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (1), January 2016; 22-32   *Heidarizadeh, N., et al*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

art and painting can help her to reveal whatever she has in her hidden side of her mind that encourages her to move from trauma to self-knowledge.

Tony, Charis and Roz trust narration to expect a better situation for themselves. Narration or narratology is full of revelation. It, reveals the traumatized behavior of somebody, or Zenia, as torturous remarks or as Zenia's atrocities to repress them; however, they, Tony, Charis and Roz, by the help of self-knowledge, self-expression and self- actualization safeguard their society. Anyway, the traumatized past extends the action of revelation in recording, art, and narration. These actions suggest different kinds of revelation that is the time when something is revealed in the psyche of the protagonists to find trauma in their mind and get the new knowledge. It furnishes Freud's "cathartic treatment" ("Psychoanalysis", 188) which is the process of revealing the feeling and emotion. By walking in Toronto, Elaine says: "I can feel my throat tightening, a pain along the jawline. I've started to chew my fingers again. There's blood, a taste I remember" (*Cat's Eye,* 9). This event shows her emotion that is full of stress and pain, the pain in mind as trauma and the pain in her body as a scar. As Tolan claims "The city becomes a manifestation of her unconscious; a repository of memory" (99). It is obvious, Toronto is a place for the existence of her unconscious mind by looking everywhere she sees a panic past memory that was suppressed. Toronto sparks anxiously and it leads to self-knowledge.

Cordelia, Elain's friend, in addition to Toronto, traumatizes her, when Elaine realizes "Get me out of this Cordelia", the protagonist attempts to open her mind to the new attitude, or she wants to escape from being capsule in suppressed mind, but she finds out something else when she says: "I'm locked in. I don't want to be nine years old for ever" (*Cat's Eye,* 400). Elaine realizes that she is still trapped within the childhood past and needs help of someone or something to promote the quest of trauma to self-knowledge. Maybe, her retrospective exhibition of art, as a repository of repressed trauma can help her to reveal her inner world in order to heal herself; she is empowered by art and by joining an artistic club as a therapy for her alienation, suppression and loneliness; so that it can give her power and make her strong; she draws the separated pictures of her life in different times, with different persons and their diverse traumatizing actions. We infer the fragmented images and figure by Elaine cannot be closed down. Howells notes: "While Elaine's discursive narrative remains incomplete, her paintings offer a different figuration, acting as a kind of corrective to the distortions and suppressions of memory" (2006, 114), and Laurie Vickroy suggests that Elaine's "artistic expression reveals trauma but also provides evidence and structure with which to work through it" (*2002,* 129). In fact, it is the association of art and the unconscious mind that brings a gift of recovery. "Art expresses Elaine's unconscious trauma, but it also marks her moment of recovery" (Tolen, 101). Ultimately, there is a combination of art, unconscious mind and recovery. Past time lives in her unconscious, Elaine gives life to past by her art of painting, she imagines that time and something as a thunderbolt comes in her hands of painting, as she says these things happen spontaneously, "not as a fear but as a temptation" (*Cat's Eye,* 200). Indeed, for Atwood, as for Freud, trauma "must first be recovered before it can be relinquished" (Tolan, 101). It means that the recovery of the repression is needed before the flame of the suppressed wishes will unwillingly stop holding.

Deception and Psychoanalytical Portrayal of Wounded Characters

IJLLALW

We accept when somebody is deceived, she is psychologically, traumatized and need to release herself from the deception of others. If she is clever she tries to discover the creative way to solve the mysterious problem; so that she can suggest a theory for delivering self-knowledge after passing the traumatized complexities. This study determines the importance of dishonesty in the psychoanalytical analysis of Atwood's protagonists in *The Handmaid's Tale*, *Cat's Eye*, and *The Robber Bride;* the trickery action brings ambiguity in their behavior. Now, we chronologically consider them; the analysis of *The Handmaid's Tale* illustrates how to use fraud in a subversive way by accepting that not only women but also men deceive each other. Offred is deceived by the people like commander and his wife, by time like past and present, and by land like Gilead that its name is taken from Bible as a place near the east of Jordan River, famous as a place for its drugs of herbs; in similar way, it is for healing the psychologically wounded patients. In *The Handmaid's Tale,* Atwood shows Offred to become self-conscious of the cheating of the other with the act of narrating a tale. Due to this fact, she explores the opportunities and restrictions of her narration.

She recalls her former life as a free woman with identity, uniqueness, individuality, subjectivity and independence. Furthermore, we regard Atwood's *Cat's Eye* and *The Robber Bride,* as multiply the quest in order to underline the similarities in their various characters' experiences. They display Atwood's first truly dark trickster figures, Cordelia and Zenia. However, Atwood uses flashback, introspection, retrospection, memory, dream, and metafictional reflections as the necessities of storytelling for narrating the wounded mind of a female traumatized character. As has been mentioned, the double female tricksters exist in two novels, such as *The Robber Bride*, in which Atwood explains the attitudes of others (Tony, Charis, and Roz) to Zenia. Interestingly, they clarify their cheated minds and their psychological portrayal of wounded minds so that they would attempt to transform it in a new desired shape, "Tony herself, lacking strength, will have to rely on cunning. In order to defeat Zenia she will have to become Zenia" (*The Robber Bride*, 191). Similarly, Tony has strengthened herself through being a trickster by defeating Zenia. The significant point is to realize a relation between being a trickster and getting power. The second one is *Cat's Eye* that demonstrates the deception and psychoanalytical portrayal of wounded experiences that have been done on Elaine by her intimate friends. Both *Cat's Eye* and *The Robber Bride* are narrated by their heroines' confrontation with an utterly evil form of female power. In the first novel, Elaine Risley, a painter, returns to Toronto for a retrospective exhibition of her work. In the exhibition, she gradually remembers her tormented childhood. As a shy girl, Elaine became the victim of her three classmates i.e. Carol, Grace, and Cordelia. The latter is a cruel child and constantly imitates adult behavior. She constantly causes the new problems for Elaine. In fact, she attempts that Elaine loses her ability to do anything. Revealingly, Cordelia initially designs for Elaine to be well aware that she is "otherness", when Elaine says*:* "I am not normal; I am not like other girls. Cordelia tells me so, but she will help me. Grace and Carol will help me too. It will take hard work and a long time" (*Cat's Eye,* 125). Years later, by returning to Toronto Elaine examines the influence of Cordelia; she still believes that Cordelia can make a mental or physical effort on her life. She eventually thinks about her psychological feeling and the deception which is the best source of her mental injury.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (1), January 2016; 22-32   *Heidarizadeh, N., et al*
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Considerably, *The Robber Bride* focuses on Zenia with destructive schemes of a female character. She particularly places herself in the minds and the lives of the other three protagonists. She shrewdly uses their weaknesses in order to destroy them or badly damage their marriage. Like Elaine Risley in *Cat's Eye,* the three heroines of *The Robber Bride* suffer from the meaning of "otherness". To be "other" is connected with a sense of being foreign; this sense is negative and full of trauma. The feeling of inferiority facilitates Zenia's attack for coming into their private life. Tony is a historical academic person who does not have enough confidence in her womanhood. At the beginning, she welcomes Zenia; then, Zenia becomes a friend for Tony, hence, she deceives her and runs away with her husband. At this time, Zenia with her trickery cheats Charis when she finds a path through her life. She takes an advantage of her pity. Charis, a new-age yoga teacher, abused by her uncle during her childhood. She becomes the incarnation of goodness. She made a mistake and could not infer the evil nature in Zenia. She only watches Zenia when she steals her boyfriend. Finally, the last friend is Roz, a practical business woman, she deeply loves her family. Zenia also as a seizure seizes her husband and a considerable amount of money; and then she seems to disappear forever.

Significantly, at the beginning of *The Robber Bride,* the three female protagonists were astonished by the news about the death of Zenia. They attended Zenia's funeral, but they heard that Zenia has returned. Finally, we conclude that a trickster in every novel can give the power to the author to say more about the victimized character, the traumatizers, and the dystopian world. The trickster as an antagonist is a device to deceive the protagonists and traumatize them, may be to force them to think about the unfamiliar events, to make them think about the social, political, and cultural trauma of the society that must be solved by the hands of these protagonists as heroines who have the wounded psychology but they change the victimization to non-victimization.

Offred, as a survivor narrator, exposes oppressive material conditions, violence, and trauma; she gives voice to heretofore silent histories; she helps to shape public or social consciousness about violence against women; and thus she alters history's narrative. Moreover, there is strong evidence that the process of telling one's story and writing about personal trauma can be essential elements of recovery and self-knowledge. Atwood uses her female characters to reinforce moral, social, and political projects; they are capable of becoming a source of resistance of narrating, giving message, and accepting transformation to improve their progression.

CONCLUSION
Accordingly, the portrayal of psychoanalysis, wounded female participants and self-knowledge in Atwood's *The Handmaid's Tale, Cat's Eye* and *The Robber Bride* designate the interdisciplinary role of literature and psychoanalysis so that it can illustrate their unique role to consider the important function for solving the social, political and cultural multi-dimensional studies.

Women in literature have intractable problems because they live in phallocentric societies in reality and in texts; however, in the existing investigation two factors: 1. Psychoanalysis and Atwood's fiction, 2. Deception and psychoanalytical portrayal of wounded characters are used in

IJLLALW

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order to demonstrate the significant discourses such as traumatized women, therapeutic discourses of psychic trauma, knowledge and discovery. Literature, as Felman states, is a testimony to express trauma even though in the form of a novel or short story. As it has been shown, slavery is important in Atwood's narration not only in historical dimension, but also as one important origin for patriarchal society to dominate and subjugate the female participants. Consequently, the traumatized women make their struggle to break the bounds of being slaves as well as victims.

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IJLLALW

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THE INSTRUCTION OF CONNECTED SPEECH FEATURES FOR IMPROVING EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

The present study discusses whether the instruction of connected speech features can affect English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' listening skills. In this study, a total of 82 Japanese public university students were given explicit instruction of connected speech features for four weeks. Dictation tests and listening complehension tests were conducted before and after the treatment to determine whether the participants had come to be able to recognize individual words in connected speech, and to determine if the instruction of connected speech features enhanced listening comprehension. In order to discover whether and how the students' listening strategies and attitudes toward prosody changed through the instruction, the participants were asked to complete two questionnaires before and after the treatment. Four major findings were obtained. Firstly, the results showed significant improvement in students' ability to recognize individual words in connected speech through the instruction of connected speech features. Secondly, the instruction of connected speech features partially enhanced listening comprehension. Thirdly, some participants slightly modified their listening strategies in such ways as reducing reliance on the first language and planning ahead for listening. Finally, students tended to feel that they were able to recognize English prosody including connected speech features better after the instruction. Based on these findings, pedagogical implications such as why and how connected speech features should be taught are discussed. Although there are some limitations on the present study such as the problem of control group, this study clearly shows the importance and usefulness of teaching conneted speech features.

KEYWORDS: instruction of connected speech features, listening instruction, EFL learners

INTRODUCTION
It has been gradually acknowledged that listening ability is perhaps even more essential for communicative purposes than the ability to speak. There are two reasons for making this claim. First of all, listening ability is needed before speaking ability (Taylor, 1981, p. 44). If one cannot understand what their conversation partner has said, fostering communication becomes an impossible challenge. The second reason is that listeners must adapt to the speakers' tempo and vocabulary (Vandergrift, 1999, p. 169). These points show that developing listening skills is clearly a requirement for successful communication.

While listening skills are an essential part of successful communication, EFL learners, whose L1 languages are syllable-timed languages like Japanese, are considered to be relatively weak in

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English listening skills (Ikeda, 2003, p. 72: Norris, 1993, p. 49: Lauer, 1999, p. 39: Tanaka, 2008, p. 62). Indeed, it can be deduced from the scores of TOEIC or TOEFL iBT test (ETS, 2014a, p. 5: ETS, 2014b, p. 5, p. 14). Therefore, since listening skills are important in communication and there is the problem of the lack of listening skills, it worth investigating whether explicit instruction can help to improve students' listening skills.

There are various potential factors for EFL learners' weakness in listening English. Amongst various factors, linguistic differences between learners' L1 languages and English could be a major factor. For example, Japanese and English differ greatly in prosody such as rhythm, stress, or intonation (Tanaka & Yamanishi, 2011, p. 51). The difference of prosody may cause serious problems in conversation between native speakers and non-native speakers (Clennell, 1997, p. 118). Among prosodic features, the existence of connected speech features (i.e. sound changes caused by rhythm structure of English) is of the areas which learners should be made aware of (Ito, 2006a, p. 18: Iizuka, 2010, p. 42). When learners hear native speech with connected speech features, they would feel that it is difficult to discriminate individual words as sounds undergo elision, linking, assimilation, or contraction. Hence, it would be useful for EFL learners to pay attention to connected speech features.

CONNECTED SPEECH FEATURES

Connected speech features represent the phenomena that the sounds in unstressed syllables change, and include nine features: word stress, sentence stress and timing, reduction, citation and weak forms of words, elision, intrusion, assimilation, juncture (including liaison), and contraction (Brown & Kondo-Brown, 2006, p. 2). This phenomena is also called *Sandhi-variation* (Henrichsen, 1984), or *fluency devices* (Mahmood, Khan, & Uzair, 2012) although the broadest term which represents the phenomena would be *sound changes* (Nakamura, 2000).

Among the various terms, the specific term used most widely seems to be *reduced forms* which refer to "contracted forms, elision, liaison, and reduction" (Brown & Hilferty, 1989, p. 26). This term can be found in earlier studies of this area such as Brown and Hilferty 1986a, 1986b as well as Richards, 1983. Since then, many researchers have used this term (Norris, 1994: Norris, 1995: Field, 2003: Ito, 2006a: Ito, 2006b: Matsuzawa, 2006: Rogerson, 2006: Carreira, 2008: Kawamoto & Iwai, 2009: Crawford & Ueyama, 2011: Khaghaninezhad & Jafarzadeh, 2014). However, in 2006, Brown started to employ the term *connected speech* because he realized the necessity for understanding underlying processes (Brown, 2006, p. 15). Because *connected speech* describes a broader concept than *reduced forms*, the term, *connected speech* seems to describe the process better. More recently, *connected speech features* (Ahmadian & Matour, 2014) or *connected speech forms* (Baghrahi, Shariati, & Tajadini, 2014) have been used to describe the same phenomena, and are perhaps yet more suitable than Brown's, as connected speech can also be interpreted as just the fluent stream of the speech. In order to avoid such ambiguity, either *connected speech features* or *connected speech forms* should be appropriate for representing the concept of sound changes. As each process (contraction, elision, assimilation, etc.) of the features resulted from connected speech (i.e. the flow of the natural speech), rather

IJLLALW

than as individual forms used in connected speech, the author in this study has elected to employ the term *connected speech features*.

The Importance of Teaching Connected Speech Features

This section addresses the four major reasons why connected speech features should be instructed explicitly. The first reason is that some EFL learners may not be familiar with the rhythm of English. The rhythm structure of English (stress-timed language) and syllable-timed languages are completely different from each other. Therefore, the difference of rhythm may interfere with the listening greatly, if listeners are expecting each individual sound to be delivered with a similar clarity, as in syllable-timed languages. Since connected speech features result from the rhythm structure of English (Norris, 1995, para. 5-7), it is essential to teach connected speech features in order to familiarize learners with English rhythm structure.

The second reason is that to identify word boundaries may be difficult for learners because of connected speech features. Norris (1995) claims that learners have difficulty in comprehending what is being said because of connected speech features (Norris, 1995, para. 4). In accordance with this claim, Ito (2006b) conducted an experiment and found that unlike a native speaker (NS) group, dictation test scores for the absence and presence of connected speech features differed in a non-native speaker (NNS) group. The NNS group's dictation test score without connected speech features was significantly higher than that with connected speech features (Ito, 2006b). This implies that it is challenging for NNS to recognize individual words in connected speech. This is because connected speech features affect the sounds in a word or between words, and the sounds are altered. For example, suppose that a listener hears "send you" with the pronunciation of /séndʒu/ (Fukasawa, 2000, pp. 106-107). If the learner has no knowledge on assimilation, he/she might consider it as one word or simply he/she cannot understand what was said. Same things go for every type of connected speech features.

The third reason is that learners usually hear the texts without connected speech features in the class because teachers and recorded materials provided in the class speak too clearly and carefully (Norris, 1994, para. 1: Rogerson, 2006, p. 85). Therefore, teaching connected speech features is required to prepare for listening and conversation in real world, particularly considering the following.

Perhaps the most obvious reason for teaching connected speech features is that there is a strong likelihood that learners will encounter spoken language with connected speech features. It is said that connected speech features appear in every level of speech including very formal speech (Brown & Kondo-Brown, 2006, p. 5). If teachers anticipate that learners will face connected speech features sooner or later, they should teach these features.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous studies on the instruction of connected speech features as listening instruction can be divided into two categories. Firstly, the instruction of connected speech features and word recognition, secondly, the instruction and listening comprehension.

Instruction of Connected Speech Features and Word Recognition

The effects of the instruction of connected speech features toward word recognition are usually measured by dictation tests. One of the earliest studies is Brown and Hilferty (1986a: 1986b: 2006). They taught connected speech features selected by the researchers to Chinese graduate students (16 for treatment group, 16 for control group) who wanted to go abroad for four weeks. Each daily 10 minutes' instruction treated five to ten features and presented them. In addition, dictation exercises were also conducted. As a result, a significant difference was found in the mean score of reduced forms dictation tests of two groups at the post-test.

The results of more recent studies agree to this outcome. For example, in Baghrahi, *et al*. (2014), 42 Iranian junior high school students (21 for treatment group, 21 for control group) took part in the experiment. The students received the instruction of assimilation and elision for six weeks. The lessons were given two days a week and approximately 45 minutes per day. The students took pre- and post-dictation tests consisted of ten questions (i.e. five for assimilation and five for elision). As the result, a significant difference between two groups was found in the mean score of dictation test at post-test although there were no significant differences between two groups at the pre-test.

Other recent studies such as Carreira (2008), Kawamoto and Iwai (2009), Ahmadian and Matour (2014), and Khaghaninezhad and Jafarzadeh (2014) , which conducted research on the instruction of connected speech features and word recognition have shown the result that word recognition measured by dictation tests improved significantly through the instruction of connected speech features.

Instruction of Connected Speech Features and Listening Comprehension

The effects of the instruction of connected speech features toward listening comprehension are usually measured by listening comprehension tests.

In fact, some studies were not able to find the positive effects of the instruction of connected speech features. For example, Brown and Hilferty (1986a: 1986b: 2006) conducted UCLA English as a Second Language Placement Examination (ESLPE) listening comprehension subtest as pre- and post-listening comprehension tests. At the post-test, no significant difference was confirmed between the treatment group and the control group. Similarly, Carreira (2008) measured the improvement by using TOEIC listening section, but the results obtained from *t*-test shows that there were no significant differences between pre- and post-listening tests.

On the other hand, some studies have found the positive effects of teaching connected speech features. For instance, in Baghrahi, *et al*. (2014), the students took the listening section of Cambridge Preliminary English Test (PET) before and after the experiment. The paired *t*-test for comparison of pre- and post-test showed that while no significant difference was found between two groups (control group and treatment group) at pre-test, significant difference was found between two groups at post-test.

IJLLALW

Nakamura (1997), Nakamura (2000), and Khaghaninezhad and Jafarzadeh (2014), have also reported the positive effects of teaching connected speech features.

As has been shown above, the results are inconsistent: some studies indicate that the listening comprehension improved through instruction, other studies were not able to find significant differences.

The Problems of Previous Studies

As we have seen, the results of previous research have not been consistent. More research is required to discover why this is. Another problem is that few studies have described what connected speech features they taught and how they were taught specifically. Even if teachers realize that it is important to teach connected speech features, they do not have access to information regarding what and how to teach connected speech features. Therefore, the detailed information of how and what to teach is needed to implement the instruction in the classroom systematically. In addition, few studies have examined changes in listening strategies or recognition of connected speech features through instruction. These problems suggest that further research is needed to investigate the effects of teaching connected speech features.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The aim of the present paper is to discuss whether the instruction of connected speech features can affect EFL learners' listening skills. To achieve this aim, three research questions were addressed:

RQ1. Do EFL learners become able to recognize individual words in connected speech through the instruction of connected speech features such as contraction, linking, elision, and assimilation?
RQ2. Does the instruction of connected speech features enhance listening comprehension?
RQ3. Do learners' listening strategies and attitudes toward prosody change through the instruction of connected speech features?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants of the study were 82 Japanese EFL learners studying at a Japanese public university in the Kansai district. A total of 31 participants were second year university students studying architecture (Class A) and 51 participants were first year university students studying social welfare (Class B). Among the participants, 13 were excluded from the data analysis of dictation tests because they were absent from more than one class during the treatment, or they did not take pre- or post-tests. Also, 12 participants were excluded from the data analysis of listening comprehension tests since they did not attend more than one class during the treatment, or they did not take pre- or post- tests.

IJLLALW

Materials and instruments

Handouts

During the treatment, four handouts (A3 size) were distributed to the participants. The first handouts were printed on both sides. The front side of the first handout explained the difference between stress-timed languages like English and syllable-timed languages like Japanese. It also explained why connected speech features happen. The back side of the first handout explained contraction. The second handout dealt with linking, the third handout was about elision, and the fourth handout treated assimilation. The basic format was the same throughout four handouts. Each handout was divided into seven parts. General explanations part, two sets of example sentences parts (ten sentences each), two sets of detailed explanations parts, and two sets of dictation exercises parts (ten exercises each). The general explanations and detailed examples of all handouts were based on Roach, 1991: Matsui, 1995: Davis, 1998: Fukasawa, 2000. Exercises were selected from Fukasawa, 2000. The audio of the example sentences and exercises were chosen from CDs attached to Fukasawa, 2000. An example of the handouts used in this study appears in Appendix A.

Dictation tests

In order to answer the first research question, two dictation tests of connected speech features were made for pre-test and post-test. Each dictation test consisted of 40 sentences. The breakdown of these 40 sentences was as follows: ten for contraction, ten for linking, ten for elision, and ten for assimilation. The sentences used in the two tests were the same, but in order to avoid the practice effect, the order of the sentences was different. The 40 sentences were extracted from Fukasawa, 2000. In the dictation tests, the participants were asked to listen to a CD in which each sentence with connected speech features was read, and asked to fill in the blanks with what they heard (See Appendix B). Internal-consistency reliability was calculated by Cronbach's alpha: $\alpha = .75$ at the pre-test, and $\alpha = .79$ at the post-test.

Listening comprehension tests

For the purpose of examining the second research question, TOEFL practice tests were used (ETS, 1995). Practice test A was used for the pre-test, and Practice test B was used for the post-test. The tests were constructed in the TOEFL iBT style. In Part A, participants listened to a conversation between two people and answered the questions. There were 30 conversations and questions in Part A. In Part B, they listened to two longer conversations and answered seven questions for each conversation. In Part C, the participants listened to three short talks and answered 13 questions for each talk. In total, the participants answered 50 questions in the listening comprehension test.

Metacognitive awareness of listening questionnaire (MALQ)

To consider the third research question, two types of questionnaires were conducted before and after the treatment. One of them was the Metacognitive awareness of listening questionnaire (MALQ) developed by Vandergrift and other researchers (Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, & Tafaghodtari, 2006: Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). MALQ consists of 21 items and the items can assess five factors: Problem-solving, Planning and Evaluation, Mental translation, Directed attention, and Person knowledge (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 94). According to Vandergrift and

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Goh (2012), this questionnaire was developed to "elicit L2 listeners' perceived use of strategies while listening to spoken texts" (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 94). Therefore, MALQ seemed appropriate to answer the third research question. This questionnaire asked the learners' degree of agreement to statements about strategies used during listening on a six-point Likert scale. The original version of MALQ was written in English. However, it was translated into Japanese by the author for learners' convenience (See Appendix C).

Questionnaire on the recognition of prosody
The other questionnaire for answering the third research question was a questionnaire on the recognition of prosody. It was utilized to examine the change of participants' attitudes toward prosody. This questionnaire was based on the list of the micro-skills of listening (Richards, 1983, pp. 228-229: Field, 2008, pp. 101-102). Seven items related to prosody were selected from the list and reproduced to assess their recognition toward prosody. This questionnaire asked the participants' agreement to the statement about their ability of prosody recognition on a six-point Likert scale. For each item, simple examples were added to avoid participants' misunderstandings. This questionnaire was also translated into Japanese by the author (See Appendix D). Internal-consistency reliability was confirmed by Cronbach's alpha. The results were as follows: $\alpha = .83$ at the pre-questionnaire survey and $\alpha = .82$ at the post-questionnaire survey.

Questionnaire on the instruction of connected speech features
To understand the participants' backgrounds about the instruction of connected speech features and to elicit their impressions on the instruction, a questionnaire on the instruction of connected speech features was created by the author and conducted after the treatment. This questionnaire included five items, and the first item of the questionnaire asked the participants whether they had received the instruction of connected speech features before. If they had received prior instruction, participants were asked to write when, where, and how they received the instruction (second item). The third item asked participants' impressions about difficulty on each connected speech feature. The fourth item asked whether participants felt that the instruction was interesting. The fifth item asked whether they thought that the instruction was useful. From the third item to fifth item, a five-point Likert scale was used. Lastly, the questionnaire asked overall impressions on the instruction where the participants were able to write their impressions freely.

Procedures
After the listening comprehension pre-test, the dictation pre-test and the pre-questionnaire survey were conducted. Then, a total of four lessons were conducted. Each lesson on connected speech features was designed to last approximately twenty minutes. As for this point, while some previous studies (Ahmadian & Matour, 2014: Baghrahi, *et al*., 2014) have reported that their instruction lasted more than 40 minutes, other studies have seemed to adopt small scale instruction (Brown & Hilferty, 1986a: 1986b: 2006, Kawamoto & Iwai, 2009). The present study decided to adopt small scale instruction since a process approach, which is one of the current approaches of listening education, requires focused small-scale exercises (Field, 2008, p. 113). After the four lessons, listening comprehension post-test, dictation post-test, and the post-questionnaire survey were conducted. During each of the four classes, one connected speech

IJLLALW

feature was instructed. Since the author conducted the experiment in general English classes (Class A and B) at the university, the instruction of connected speech features was followed by ordinary classes.

The flow of the instruction in each lesson was as follows: first of all, the rules of one of the connected speech features were explained explicitly. This explanation was relatively general. Then, learners listened to five example sentences with the connected speech feature. After that, more detailed explanations of the connected speech feature were given. In addition, learners were asked to do dictation exercises related to detailed explanation. Learners listened to ten sentences with the connected speech feature and were required to fill in the blanks with a citation form. Correct answers were checked after the exercises. Then, another five examples, more detailed explanations, and a further ten dictation exercises related to the explanation were conducted.

Data Analysis

To identify the effects of the instruction of connected speech features, the means of participants' scores of pre- and post-dictation tests were calculated. In addition to the means of total scores, the mean scores of each category (contraction, linking, elision, assimilation) were also calculated. Then, the data of the pre-test and the post-test were analyzed in a dependent *t*-test to see if there were any significant differences between pre-test and post-test.

Similarly, the mean scores of the listening comprehension pre-test and post-test were calculated to discover the effects of the instruction. Not only the means of total scores but also the means of each part (Part A, B, and C) were calculated. A dependent *t*-test was employed to analyze the data of listening comprehension pre- and post-tests.

As for MALQ, the procedure of analysis followed the *Metacognitive Awareness of Listening Questionnaire* (*MALQ) Scoring Guide* (Vandergrift & Goh, n.d.). Firstly, 21 items were classified into five categories (Problem-solving, Planning/evaluation, Mental translation, Directed attention, Person knowledge) and participants' mean scores for each category were calculated (Readers should be cautious of the interpretation of the results in the Directed attention category since a mistranslation was found in Item 2 after the pre-questionnaire survey, and it was excluded from the analysis. The translation appears in Appendix C is the revised version.). Then, the mean scores of the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire for each category were analyzed using dependent *t*-test. Since lower scores are favorable for Item 16 in the Directed attention category and Item 3, and 8 in the Person knowledge category, reverse scoring was adopted to those items (ex. 1→6, 2→5). However, with regard to the Mental translation category, reverse scoring was not adopted because lower scores are favorable for all of the items (Item 4, 11, and 18). In short, lower scores are favorable for Mental translation but higher scores are desirable for other four categories.

Regarding the questionnaire of prosody, the mean scores of each item in pre and post were calculated, and the mean scores for each item were analyzed in a dependent *t*-test. Since one participant did not answer Q7, his/her data was excluded from the analysis of Q7.

IJLLALW

With regard to the questionnaire about impression, Item 1 was analyzed by percentage. From the Item 3 to Item 5, the mean scores were calculated. Item 4 and Item 5 were analyzed by percentage, in addition to their mean scores.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Dictation Test
The results of dictation tests for Class A, Class B, and Class A + Class B (Total) will be described here.

Class A
The results of dependent *t*-tests for dictation pre- and post-tests for Class A appear in Table 1. As has been shown in Table 1, for linking, there was a significant difference between pre-test and post-test (t (23) = -2.871, p = .009, r = .51). There was also a significant difference between the score of assimilation in pre-test and the score of the post-test (t (23) = -3.308, p = .003, r = .57). The total score of pre-test and post-test were also significantly different (t (23) = -3.883, p = .001, r = .63). Therefore, in Class A, the scores of linking, assimilation, and the total score improved significantly.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for dictation test (Class A)

	Pre-test	Post-test	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Contraction	2.04 (1.30)	2.46 (1.29)	-1.683	23	.106
Linking	2.08 (1.32)	2.88 (1.51)	-2.871	23	.009**
Elision	1.38 (1.28)	1.63 (1.17)	-1.141	23	.266
Assimilation	2.54 (1.38)	3.42 (1.32)	-3.308	23	.003**
Total	8.04 (3.88)	10.38 (3.99)	-3.883	23	.001**

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. N = 24, **p < .01.

Class B
As shown in Table 2, the scores of all four categories and total scores in post-test significantly improved from the pre-test (Contraction: t (44) = -5.906, p < .001, r = .67, Linking: t (44) = -6.049, p < .001, r = .67, Elision: t (44) = -4.342, p < .001, r = .55, Assimilation: t (44) = -6.919, p < .001, r = .72, Total: t (44) = -10.594, p < .001, r = .85). Hence, it suggests that all of the four categories and the total score for Class B improved significantly.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for dictation test (Class B)

	Pre-test	Post-test	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Contraction	2.42 (1.32)	3.78 (1.72)	-5.906	44	.000***
Linking	2.78 (1.29)	3.60 (1.44)	-6.049	44	.000***
Elision	1.76 (1.38)	2.56 (1.42)	-4.342	44	.000***
Assimilation	2.53 (1.36)	3.76 (1.30)	-6.919	44	.000***
Total	9.49 (4.08)	13.69 (4.58)	-10.594	44	.000***

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. $N = 45$, ***$p < .001$

Class A + Class B (Total)

As shown in Table 3, the scores of all of four connected speech features and total score in pre-test and post-test for Total (Class A + Class B) improved significantly. The result of Contraction was: $t(68) = -5.718$, $p < .001$, $r = .57$, the results of Linking was: $t(68) = -6.273$, $p < .001$, $r = .61$, the result of Elision was: $t(68) = -4.202$, $p < .001$, $r = .46$, and the result of Assimilation was: $t(68) = -7.460$, $p < .001$, $r = .67$. In Total, the result was: $t(68) = -10.232$, $p < .001$, $r = .78$.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for dictation test (Class A +Class B)

	Pre-test	Post-test	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Contraction	2.29 (1.32)	3.32 (1.69)	-5.718	68	.000***
Linking	2.54 (1.33)	3.35 (1.49)	-6.273	68	.000***
Elision	1.62 (1.35)	2.23 (1.41)	-4.202	68	.000***
Assimilation	2.54 (1.36)	3.64 (1.31)	-7.460	68	.000***
Total	8.99 (4.04)	12.54 (4.63)	-10.232	68	.000***

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. $N = 69$, ***$p < .001$

IJLLALW

Listening Comprehension Test

The results of listening comprehension tests for Class A, Class B, and Class A + Class B (Total) will be shown here.

Class A

The results obtained from *t*-tests which analyzed listening comprehension pre- and post- tests show that no significant differences were found between the scores of the listening comprehension pre-test and the scores of the listening comprehension post-test for Class A.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for listening comprehension test (Class A)

	Pre-test	Post-test	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Part 1	10.13 (3.49)	10.46 (3.04)	-.475	23	.639
Part 2	2.08 (1.32)	2.04 (1.27)	.116	23	.908
Part 3	4.54 (2.30)	3.79 (1.74)	1.775	23	.089
Total	16.75 (5.11)	16.29 (4.67)	.561	23	.580

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. $N = 24$

Class B

As displayed in Table 5, there was a significant difference between the scores of Part 2 (*t* (45) = -2.374, *p* = .022, *r* = .33), while there was no significant difference between the scores of Part 1 and Part 3. Therefore, only the score of Part 2 improved significantly.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for listening comprehension test (Class B)

	Pre-test	Post-test	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Part 1	10.91 (3.16)	11.35 (2.92)	-.839	45	.406
Part 2	1.87 (1.11)	2.43 (1.26)	-2.374	45	.022*
Part 3	4.39 (2.18)	3.89 (1.89)	1.476	45	.147
Total	17.17 (4.75)	17.67 (4.43)	-.728	45	.470

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. $N = 46$, *$p < .05$.

IJLLALW

Class A + Class B (Total)
As appeared in Table 6, only the difference between the score of Part 3 in the pre-test and the score of Part 3 in the post-test was significantly different (*t* (69) = 2.217, *p* = .030, *r* = .26). However, as the mean score shows, the score of Part C declined significantly.

Table 6: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for listening comprehension test (Class A + B)

	Pre-test	Post-test	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Part 1	10.64 (3.28)	11.04 (2.97)	-.967	69	.337
Part 2	1.94 (1.18)	2.30 (1.27)	-1.782	69	.079
Part 3	4.44 (2.20)	3.86 (1.83)	2.217	69	.030*
Total	17.03 (4.84)	17.20 (4.53)	-.323	69	.747

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. *N* = 70, *p* < .05.

Metacognitive awareness of listening questionnaire (MALQ)
Class A
Table 7 shows the mean scores of each category in MALQ for Class A. The results of *t*-tests to identify the difference between pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire are shown in Table 7 as well.

Table 7:Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for MALQ (Class A)

	Pre	Post	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Problem-solving	3.75 (.77)	3.87 (.65)	-.888	23	.383
Planning/evaluation	3.08 (.69)	3.29 (.75)	-1.819	23	.082
Mental translation	3.51 (.63)	3.11 (.81)	3.175	23	.004**
Person knowledge	2.69 (.90)	2.82 (.82)	-1.088	23	.288
Directed attention	3.65 (.68)	3.89 (.60)	-1.526	23	.141

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. *N* = 24, **p* < .01.

44

IJLLALW

As has been shown above, a significant difference was found in the category of Mental translation (t (23) = 3.175, p = .004, r = .55). The mean score decreased significantly. According to *MALQ scoring guide*, this means that their processing through Japanese "which may interfere with attention to and overall processing of input" decreased (Vandergrift & Goh, n.d., p.1).

Class B
The mean scores of each category in MALQ, and the results of dependent t-tests for Class B are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for MALQ (Class B)

	Pre	Post	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Problem-solving	3.47 (.68)	3.63 (.77)	-1.696	44	.097
Planning/evaluation	2.81 (.70)	3.03 (.83)	-2.009	44	.051
Mental translation	3.54 (.82)	3.51 (1.00)	.259	44	.797
Person knowledge	2.82 (.94)	2.91 (.88)	-.947	44	.349
Directed attention	3.79 (.82)	3.86 (.68)	-.760	44	.452

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. N = 45.

Based on Table 8, no significant differences can be found from the results, although the category of Planning/evaluation gained near significance (t (44) = -2.009, p = .051, r = .29). As Table 8 shows, the mean score increased. According to *MALQ scoring guide*, this indicates that their "ability to plan ahead for listening, to reflect on difficulties and consider alternatives" improved (Vandergrift & Goh, n.d., p.1).

Class A + Class B (Total)
Table 9 illustrates the descriptive statistics for pre and post MALQ results (Class A + Class B). The results of dependent t-tests to explore the difference between pre and post MALQ results (Class A + Class B) are also presented in Table 9.

IJLLALW

Table 9: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for MALQ (Class A + B)

	Pre	Post	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Problem-solving	3.57 (.72)	3.71 (.74)	-1.890	68	.063
Planning/evaluation	2.91 (.70)	3.12 (.80)	-2.660	68	.010*
Mental translation	3.53 (.75)	3.37 (.95)	1.795	68	.077
Person knowledge	2.78 (.92)	2.88 (.85)	-1.404	68	.165
Directed attention	3.74 (.77)	3.87 (.65)	-1.552	68	.125

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. $N = 69$, $^*p < .05$.

As has been shown, the category Planning/evaluation shows a significant difference (t (68) = -2.660, p = .010, r = .31). Considering that the mean score improved significantly (See Table 9), this indicates that the students can "plan ahead for listening", "reflect on difficulties and consider alternatives" better than before (Vandergrift & Goh, n.d., p.1).

Questionnaire on the recognition of prosody
Class A + Class B (Total)
Table 10 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the means and standard deviations of pre- and post-questionnaires on the recognition of prosody for Class A + Class B. The results of dependent *t*-tests are also illustrated in Table 10.

Table 10: Descriptive statistics and Dependent t-test results for Questionnaire on the recognition of prosody (Class A + B)

	Pre	Post	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Q1	2.84 (1.23)	3.00 (1.07)	-1.131	67	.262
Q2	3.21 (1.26)	3.56 (1.11)	-2.256	67	.027*
Q3	3.37 (1.21)	3.69 (1.01)	-2.020	67	.047*
Q4	3.74 (1.17)	3.81 (1.14)	-.481	67	.632
Q5	2.57 (.89)	2.93 (.78)	-3.197	67	.002**
Q6	2.93 (1.08)	3.32 (1.00)	-2.703	67	.009**
Q7	3.48 (.97)	3.34 (.99)	1.085	66	.282

Note. Upper numbers show means and lower numbers in parentheses represent standard deviations. $N = 68$ (Q1~Q6), $N = 67$ (Q7), $^*p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$.

IJLLALW

As has been presented in Table 10, significant differences were found in Q2 (t (67) = -2.256, p = .027, r = .27), in Q3 (t (67) = -2.020, p = .047, r = .24), in Q5 (t (67) = -3.197, p = .002, r = .36), and in Q6 (t (67) = -2.703, p = .009, r = .31). The mean scores of those questions rose significantly. The improvement of the mean score of Q2 suggests that the participants thought that they became able to recognize stress pattern of English. Since the mean score of Q3 improved significantly, it seems that the participants felt that they became able to recognize the rhythmic structure of English. The mean score of Q5 also improved significantly. This means that the participants considered that they were able to identify individual words in both stressed and unstressed situations better after the treatment. Similarly, the mean score of Q6 improved significantly. This means that the participants thought that they became able to recognize connected speech features of words better than before.

Questionnaire on the instruction of connected speech features
Class A + Class B (Total)
Q1 of this questionnaire asked the participants whether they had been given instruction of connected speech features before or not. The results were as follows: 63 out of 72 participants (87.5 %) marked Choice 1, which means they had never received instruction of connected speech features before. On the other hand, 9 out of 72 participants (12.5 %) marked Choice 2, which means that they had been given instruction of connected speech features before.

From Q3 (1) to Q3 (4), the participants were asked what degree they felt each connected speech features difficult. Table 11 present the breakdowns of results of Q3 (1) through Q3 (4) for Class A + Class B.

Table 11: The mean scores of from Q3 (1) to Q3 (4)

	Q3 (1)	Q3 (2)	Q3 (3)	Q3 (4)	N
Class A	3.04	3.44	3.92	3.36	25
Class B	3.57	3.68	3.91	3.72	47
Total	3.39	3.6	3.92	3.6	72

As shown in Table 11, the mean scores from Q3 (1) to Q3 (4) are, in descending order, Q3 (3): 3.92, Q3 (2): 3.6, Q3 (4): 3.6, and Q3 (1): 3.39. The higher score represents that the participants felt that connected speech features more difficult. Therefore, it represents that the participants overall thought that elision was the most difficult and linking and assimilation were the second, and contraction was the least.

Table 12: The mean scores of Q4 and Q5

	Q4	Q5	N
Class A	4.04	4.32	25
Class B	3.81	4.28	47
Total	3.89	4.29	72

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The mean score of Q4, which asked the participants whether the instruction of connected speech features was interesting for them, was 3.89 (See Table 12), and 48 out of 72 participants (66.7%) marked Choice 4. This indicates that the participants felt the instruction of connected speech features was interesting for them. The mean score of Q5, which asked them how much they felt the instruction of connected speech features useful, was 4.29 (See Table 12), and 42 out of 72 (58.3%) participants marked Choice 4 and 26 out of 72 participants (36.1%) marked Choice 5. This indicates that the participants thought that the instruction was useful for them.

Discussion

Instruction of Connected Speech Features and Word Recognition

To answer the first research question, the scores of dictation tests were analyzed. As a result, in Class A, significant improvement was found in the category of linking, assimilation, and total score. In Class B and in Class A + Class B (Total), significant improvement was observed in all four categories of connected speech features and total score. Thus, it may be concluded that mean scores of dictation tests were improved through teaching of connected speech features. In other words, we could conclude that Japanese EFL learners become able to recognize individual words in connected speech through instruction of connected speech features such as contraction, linking, elision, and assimilation.

However, we should consider why the category of contraction and elision did not improve in Class A. One possible explanation is related to the difficulty. As displayed in Table 1, the mean scores of dictation pre- and post-tests of elision were the lowest of the four. Another possible explanation is homonyms. For example, in contraction, not a few participants gave the mistaken answer *is* when they heard *he's* although the correct answer was *has*. In addition, the students' majors may have been a factor. Unlike participants in Class B, participants in Class A were science students and they may have felt that English was a tough subject for them. Nevertheless, as the results of total (Class A + Class B) shows, the participants became able to recognize individual words in connected speech.

The results that the ability to recognize individual words improved suggest that the participants have come to be able to decode sounds better after the instruction. This situation is ideal because it is said that decoding automatically is challenging for novice L2 listeners (Vandergrift, 2004, p. 4) and the automatic decoding is the goal of learning listening (Field, 2008, p. 137). The existence of connected speech features is one of the factors which hinder automatic decoding. This is partly because when words are pronounced with connected speech features, they cannot identify individual words smoothly. When listeners hear unknown sounds, they cannot transfer each sound into words successfully. It is fatal for listeners. Listening is an on-going activity, so the sound is passing-by whether learners can decode successfully or not. In addition, the burden of working memory should be considered. Through knowing the rules of connected speech features, listeners can decode the text smoothly, and the burden to working memory decreases because they don't have to focus more attention on the details of the speech. As a result, they can use working memory more for other things like thinking about overall meanings of the passages (Field, 2008, p.136). Therefore, it can be considered that the participants developed their ability of automatic decoding through instruction, and this is one of the reasons why their scores of dictation tests improved.

IJLLALW

The increase of the amount of exposure to connected speech features and explicit instruction of the rules of connected speech features may have contributed to the developing the students' abilities of automatic decoding. The first point is the amount of exposure. The effectiveness of exposure to language has been argued for a long time. Input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985, 1989), output hypothesis (Swain, 1985), and interaction hypothesis (Long & Porter, 1985: Long, 1996) are connected with exposure to target language to some extent. In fact, some listeners may really become more proficient listeners as their chances of L2 listening increases (Field, 2008, p. 29: Shiozawa, Yoshikawa, & Ishikawa, 2010, p. 38: Mikami, 2014, p. 90). All things considered, it can be said that the more learners are exposed to L2 language, the chance that they can improve their listening skills would increase. In the present study, the participants were exposed to the sounds of connected speech features through example sentences and exercises. Therefore, through exposure to connected speech features, the participants in this study may have become familiar with the sound of connected speech features. This may have led to the successful decoding.

Of course, Effective methods of listening instruction are required in addition to exposure. In the present study, the rules of each connected speech features were taught explicitly. Such explicit instruction has some advantages. Firstly, it avoids variation between learners. If the rules of connected speech features are taught implicitly, some students may be able to discover the rules of connected speech features but others may fail to do so. Secondly, it avoids inefficient learning. The explicit instruction may lead to learners noticing these features earlier. Since connected speech features are one of the fields that can be taught intensively, it should be taught intensively and explicitly. Therefore, the author thinks that this combination, namely, both the increase the amount of exposure and the explicit instruction helped enable participants to decode the sound with connected speech features automatically and to decrease their burden on working memory, and this contributed to the improvement of recognizing each word in connected speech better.

Instruction of Connected Speech Features and Listening Comprehension
To respond to the second research question, the scores of listening comprehension tests were analyzed, and the results were as follows: In Class A, no significant differences were found between the scores of the pre-test and the scores of the post-test. In Class B, there was a significant difference between the scores of Part 2. In Class A + Class B (Total), the score of Part 3 declined significantly. Therefore, it may be said that instruction of connected speech features partially enhanced participants' listening comprehension since the scores of listening comprehension questions partly improved through the instruction, especially in the long conversation questions.

It is notable that the score of Part 2 improved. The need of automatic decoding and lexical coverage, could explain why the scores in Part 2 improved. The length of each passage in Part 2 was relatively long. Hence, listeners had to decode automatically to catch up with the flow of the conversation and build meanings. Since the passages in Part 2 were relatively long, automatic decoding was much more needed than Part 1. Therefore, the instruction of connected speech features must have played an important role in learners' successful decoding of Part 2. The second reason is related to lexical coverage. There were relatively few technical terms in the

49

IJLLALW

passages of Part 2. Hence, lexical coverage would be adequate for them. In listening, the lexical coverage required to understand spoken texts is said to be 95 % (van Zeeland and Schmitt, 2013). However, if listeners do not know the connected speech features, the number of words which they can identify during listening decrease. The participants in this study learned the rules and actual sounds of connected speech features through the instruction, thus through correct identification of words, their lexical coverage may have increased.

Considering the results of Part 2, it may be considered that the instruction of connected speech features is especially useful for listening to long conversations. However, if technical terms are taught in advance, it may be useful for academic listening settings like listening to lectures. Then, why did the scores of listening comprehension test not improve in Part 1 and in Part 3? There are three possible reasons for explaining this situation, including decoding, vocabulary and meaning building.

The first point is related to decoding. In Part 1, both the conversations and the questions are relatively simple and short. It means that learners could attempt to answer the questions as long as they were able to understand interrogatives such as 'when', 'why', 'where' and so forth. Even if they are not able to decode successfully, they might manage to answer the questions. The second point is related to vocabulary. Unlike Part 2, Part 3 was academic material, and the topics varied from architecture to medical service. Therefore, there were a lot of unfamiliar words and terms for EFL students in the passages. For example, "halo" (ETS, 1995, p. 53), "grotto" (p. 99), "spear points" (p. 99), "protoplasm" (p. 100), and so forth. It is possible that the learners simply did not know the vocabularies used in the passages in the first place. As a result, the limited lexical coverage may have prevented them from successful decoding and meaning building. When learners encounter unfamiliar words, they may infer the meanings from co-text incorrectly. This leads to ambiguity in the accuracy of their decoding (Field, 2008, pp. 239-240). In addition, the availability of context and co-text to compensate were limited in the listening tests. The third point is meaning building. The process of listening has two stages: one is the decoding stage and the other is the meaning building stage (Field, 2008, pp. 113-120). Consequently, the listeners recognizing individual words successfully are not always able to succeed listening comprehension. Especially in Part 3, some listeners may have recognized each individual words successfully, but it is possible that they were not able to build meanings because of various factors such as understanding background of conversation, grasping context and the speaker's intention, using selecting information, and so forth (Field, 2008, pp. 209-242) .

Teaching connected speech features is, however, vital for helping learners to comprehend the spoken text. The biggest reason is because meaning building is mainly based on the results of decoding (Field, 2008, pp. 209-210). The listeners have to build meanings from what they have decoded. Hence, to decode successfully is the first step for comprehending the contents. If not, as Field says, "limitations to the listener's decoding ability might result in there being much less raw material for her to draw upon than she is used to in L1" (Field, 2008, p.213). Consequently, learners may misunderstand the utterances or may not able to understand the utterances. It is said that the decoding process progresses from phoneme level, to the syllable, and the word-form level (Field, 2008, p. 114). Therefore, if learners have trouble decoding at the level of word-form,

IJLLALW

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meaning building, which is the next step from decoding, becomes much more difficult. In addition, if they have trouble decoding, the amount of attention able to be given meaning building will be limited (Field, 2008, p. 213).

This study shows that learners became able to decode the individual words correctly. Appropriate training for meaning building may help to further learners toward successful listening. In contrast, without training for decoding, it may be almost impossible to comprehending the full meaning successfully.

Instruction of connected speech features and listening strategies
In response to the third research question, MALQ and a questionnaire on the recognition of prosody were conducted. As for MALQ, differences were found in the Mental translation category, and the Planning/evaluation category.

As has been noted, the mean scores of Mental translation for Class A declined significantly. This suggests, their processing through Japanese, which can "interfere with attention to and overall processing of input", decreased (Vandergrift & Goh, n.d., p. 1). How can this result be interpreted? One possible interpretation is that the learners became able to decode smoothly by the instruction. As a result, they did not have to depend on L1 language to decode the spoken text. L1's interference with L2 tends to be a disadvantage since Japanese is such a different language from English. For example, if they depend on their mental translation system, it is almost impossible for them to decode automatically. Also, if they depend on what is called Japanese-English pronunciation, they may misunderstand the utterances or they cannot understand words. In both cases, to depend on L1 is risky. Therefore, the ideal situation is that learners can decode L2 language without depending on L1 language. Thus, if the instruction of connected speech features help them to decode L2 through L2, it must be useful for learners. The difference of the Mental translation category is only found in Class A. This may be due to the fact that Class A was a science course and most of the students are not proficient at English. They may have tended to depend on L1, while Class B was a humanities course and most students were relatively good at English, so they tended not to depend on L1.

The results also present that the mean scores of the Planning/evaluation category rose significantly in Class A + Class B (Total). This suggests that the students' "ability to plan ahead for listening, to reflect on difficulties and consider alternatives" improved (Vandergrift & Goh, n.d., p. 1). By teaching the rules of connected speech features, learners may have acquired a new listening strategy that pay attention to connected speech features. They started to plan how to listen before listening. Of course, in real conversation, there is no time to plan how to listen before listening. Still, for listening practice, to plan and evaluate listening is useful, and will likely contribute to future listening.

These results would match the importance of teaching listening strategy or strategy instruction such as metacognitive instruction. Then, the instruction of connected speech features may be an ideal because it contributes not only to development of language knowledge but also to development of listening strategy.

51

Instruction of connected speech features and the recognition of prosody
In addition to MALQ, a questionnaire on the recognition of prosody was conducted. Significant differences were found in Q2, Q3, Q5, and Q6 for Class A + Class B. These improvements of the mean scores suggest that the participants thought that they became able to recognize the stress pattern of English, the rhythmic structure of English, to identify words in both stressed and unstressed situations, and to recognize connected speech features of words better than before.

Richards (1983) suggests that those micro-skills are needed for conversational listening (Richards, 1983, p. 228). Although Field (2008) criticizes this list (Field, 2008, p. 108), he admits that some of the process that L2 listeners need to master overlap the list of Richards (Field, 2008, p. 113). Therefore, while the concept of micro-skills or sub-skills are relatively out of date, but the list of Richards still serve as the list of what listeners have to master. Thus, if the participants really improve their micro-skills related to prosody, it can be said that the instruction achieve one of the aims.

Moreover, the learners' belief that they can do so is considered to be important whether they really become able to recognize the features (stress pattern, rhythm structure, words, and connected speech features) or not. This is called *Self-efficacy* (Graham, 2011). Graham (2011) argues that self-efficacy is "crucial to the development of effective listening skills" (Graham, 2011, p. 113). Of course we cannot say that self-efficacy is everything, but we can say that self-efficacy may play an important role in listening. Although more studies on this area should be conducted, if the self-efficacy of the listeners on identifying stress pattern, rhythmic structure and connected speech features improves, it may be useful for listeners to develop listening skills.

Instruction of connected speech features and learners' views
It is notable that 63 out of 72 participants (87.5 %) answered that they had never received instruction of connected speech features before. This fact implies that junior high schools and high schools have not taught connected speech features. Therefore, it is necessary that junior and senior high school teachers should consider teaching prosody including connected speech features to their students from now on.

The participants overall evaluated elision as the most difficult feature and linking and assimilation were the second, and contraction was the least difficult. This evaluation implies the difference of difficulty they felt. It may suggest that the order of the instruction of connected speech features should be considered. Teachers may be better to introduce contraction first because they are familiar with contraction. If teachers introduce elision first, they may feel that connected speech features is too difficult for them and may lose motivation to study.

The results of Q4 showed that a lot of participants thought that the instruction was interesting for them (the mean score was 3.89 out of 5). Similarly, the results of Q5 suggest that most of the participants felt that the instruction of connected speech features was useful for them (the means was 4.29 out of 5). Of course the size of sample is too small to generalize this tendency, if the learners regard the instruction of connected speech features as interesting and useful, the

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instruction may be effective in meeting their needs. The combination of the good results in decoding and the match to their needs suggests that connected speech features should be taught.

CONCLUSION

This study discussed whether the instruction of connected speech features could affect EFL learners' listening skills. The study attempted to determine whether the instruction of connected speech features could develop EFL learners' ability to recognize individual words in connected speech, whether it could enhance listening comprehension, and whether learners' listening strategies and attitudes toward prosody change through the instruction of connected speech features.

The findings obtained from the study were about listening skills. As far as the results of the dictation tests and listening comprehension tests have shown, the effectiveness of teaching connected speech features in the development of listening skills, especially regarding the development of decoding skills was supported. However, this does not always mean that they can build meanings from what they have decoded. The questionnaire data have shown that some learners slightly modified their strategy use in such ways as reducing dependence on L1 language, and planning ahead for listening, reflecting on difficulties, and considering alternatives. Additionally, some participants felt that they became able to recognize stress patterns and the rhythmic structure of English, identify each word in both stressed and unstressed situations, and recognize connected speech features better than before.

The pedagogical implications of this study include why and how connected speech features should explicitly be taught. At least, two reasons can be claimed for the value of instructing connected speech features. Firstly, instruction of connected speech features is able to contribute to the development of decoding skills. Decoding skills are essential for listening comprehension since the first stage of listening comprehension is decoding the sounds. If learners have trouble decoding sounds or individual words because of connected speech features, they can hardly understand what is spoken. Teaching connected speech features explicitly may have a positive effect on the development of decoding, thus preparing learners for this first stage of listening comprehension. Secondly, teaching connected speech features can serve to help learners adjust their listening strategies, as well as having a positive effect on learners' self-confidence on recognizing prosody. This self-efficacy may help learners get motivated to learning to listen.

Teaching the rules of connected speech features with dictation exercises may be useful as a method of instruction. Firstly, the rules of connected speech features should be taught explicitly in order to enable learners to learn them efficiently and to avoid failure in listening. Then, learners should be exposed to the sound of connected speech features. Dictation exercises may help learners to improve their ability of recognizing connected speech features. Through the exposure to connected speech features by dictation exercises, learners may be able to tune their ears to connected speech features and understand them by sounds. In addition, the sounds of connected speech features are to be demonstrated to help learners understand how connected speech features can be pronounced.

Limitations of the study

There are at least two limitations on the present study, the problem of the control group, and the problem of practice effect. The first limitation is that this study employs a pre-post style and did not set a control group. Practically, the author had to conduct this study within ordinary classes, making a control group unfeasible. Therefore, it cannot be denied that various factors may have affected the results. The second limitation is practice effect. The dictation test used as pre-test and post-test was the same. In order to reduce the practice effect as much as possible, the order of the sentences in pre and post tests was completely different and post-test was conducted about one month after the pre-test without notice.

Admittedly, further research should investigate the effects of long term instruction and the effects of the number of connected speech features to teach. However, as far as the data obtained from this study have shown, it would be useful to teach connected speech features as a way of improving EFL learners' listening skills.

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APPENDICES
Appendix A: Handout for Elision

音声変化第 3 回：脱落

●脱落とは？

> 発話中の 1 語の中や語と語の間で、ある音が消失する現象のこと。丁寧で、はっきりとゆっくり話される発話においては発音される音楽子音や母音が、主に〜だけど発話になると、スピードの増加に伴って無くなったり落ちてしまう現象のこと。脱落した箇所には多くの「間」ができる。

●例文
1. novelist　　/nάv(ə)list/
2. usually　　 /júːʒu(ə)li/
3. specialist　/spéʃ(ə)list/
4. liberal　　 /líb(ə)rəl/
5. get another /get(ə)nʌðər/

●脱落①：母音の脱落
(1) あいまい母音/ə/の脱落
・直後に/l/がある場合：例：chocolate /tʃɔ(ː)k(ə)lit/, family /fǽm(ə)li/, easily /íːz(ə)li/
・直後に/r/がある場合：例：general /dʒén(ə)rəl/, natural /nǽtʃ(ə)rəl/, temporal /témp(ə)rəl/
・直後に/n/がある場合：例：national /nǽʃ(ə)nəl/, personal /pə́ːrs(ə)nəl/, fashionable /fǽʃ(ə)nəbl/
(2) 強勢のない音節の母音/i/の脱落　例：believe /b(i)líːv/など

●練習問題
1. I found that ( )( ) of the eggs were broken.
2. We only drink wine on ( )( ).
3. The ( )( ) in April was 18C.
4. ( )( ) the mind.
5. She has a ( ) for ( ) music.
6. They are now living ( ).
7. One of the ( )( ) in the wall is broken.
8. Privacy is ( )( ) to him.
9. He is ( )( ) now.
10. He kicked him ( )( ) hard.

1

●例文
1. just now　　 /dʒʌstnau/
2. kept back　　/képtbæk/
3. doesn't know /dʌz(ə)ntnou/
4. could have　 /kúd(h)(ə)v/
5. always　　　 /ɔː(l)w(e)iz/

●脱落②：子音の脱落
(1) /t/, /d/が脱落するパターン
・継続音+t/or/d+子音：例：[-st(t), -ft(t), -ʃt(t), -nd(d), -ld(d), -zd(d), -ðd(d), -vd(d)]+子音
　例：soft lights /sɔ(ː)ftlaits/, old man /ouldmæn/, lend me /léndmi:/
・破裂音 or 破擦音+t/or/d+子音：例：[-pt(t), -kt(t), -tʃt(t), -bd(d), -ɡd(d), -tʃt(ə)n]+子音
　例：baked bread /béiktbréd/, reached Boston /riːtʃtbɒst(ə)n/
(2) /t/の脱落
・否定の短縮形+n't+子音
　例：wouldn't go /wud(ə)ntgou/, mustn't tell /mʌsnttel/
(3) /h/の脱落：例：call him /kɔːl(h)im/
(4) /l/の脱落　（/ɔː/に続く/l/が落ちる）：例：although /ɔː(l)ðou/

●練習問題
1. You really ( )( ).
2. She ( )( ) soup to the guests.
3. Can you ( )( ) some money?
4. They ( )( ) to their limit.
5. He caught the ( )( ) home in the evening.
6. You ( )( ) said that.
7. The goalkeeper ( )( ) goals.
8. She ( )( ) well on very little money.
9. She's the ( )( ) person I've ever met.
10. I ( )( ) told her the news.

> ・発話速度の速い日常会話では、音が落ちることがよくあります。
> ・脱落によって音が落ちると、響きが大きく変わることがあり、単語の識別が難しくなってしまうので、注意が必要です。

次回は、「同化」を扱う予定です。

2

Appendix B: Pre-dictation test

音声変化ディクテーションテスト

学生番号（　　）

注意事項
・音声を聞き、下線部に入る単語を書いてください。下線部には2語以上入ります。
・各文の後には短い休止が置かれますが、できるだけ間を取りながら解答してください。
・音声は休止を入れて一度最後まで放送された後、次に休止なしで放送されます。
・1語でも聞き取れた単語は書いてください。
・つづりが思い出せない場合でもできる限り解答してください。
・解答に短縮形が含まれる場合は、元の形に戻して解答してください。
　例：I'm なら I am と書いてください。

● 問題

1. I can _____ thoughts.
2. We'll have _____ and salad.
3. She hit him _____ the face.
4. It was a _____ evening.
5. _____ he won't agree.
6. Those _____ their leaves in autumn.
7. It _____ own fault.
8. He threw away those _____ .
9. If _____ been his first time, it could have been different.
10. I think he _____ 40.
11. _____ the show be like?
12. I can _____ up anytime.
13. That cloud _____ like a car.
14. The post office _____ this street.
15. My _____ upset.
16. We'll _____ meeting next week.
17. I'd rather you didn't _____
18. That _____ been sleeping on a bench all day.
19. He hasn't completed the work _____ .

20. They _____ have arrived yet.
21. Half the _____ below the poverty line
22. He _____ come tomorrow.
23. You have four days to _____ .
24. The boy doesn't know his _____ his right.
25. _____ be a great help.
26. The traffic will _____ in a few minutes.
27. _____ you got to say about the climate?
28. Can you _____ with him?
29. We have to map _____ in detail.
30. There are some sandwiches left, if _____ hungry.
31. We'll go to Spain _____ .
32. _____ be a lot of wine served at the party.
33. What was the most moving _____ ever delivered?
34. He believes _____ less in UFOs.
35. Do _____ time.
36. Bottling _____ feelings leads to trouble.
37. The newspaper _____ with age.
38. She suddenly _____ the room.
39. Don't _____ to such a plot.
40. You needn't do it _____ .

1

2

59

Appendix C: Metacognitive awareness of listening questionnaire (MALQ)

リスニング方略に関するアンケート

学生番号（　　　　　　　）

以下のアンケートは、あなたがどのようにリスニングをしているかを調査するものです。
下記のそれぞれの記述について、以下の6段階からあなたに最もあてはまるものを一つ選んでください。
質問には正解や不正解はありませんので、あまり考えすぎず率直に回答してください。

1.全くそう思わない　2.そう思わない　3.あまりそう思わない　4.少しそう思う　5.そう思う　6.とてもそう思う

1	リスニングをする前に、どのようにリスニングをするか頭の中に計画がある。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	理解に困難を感じるとき、より集中しようとする。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	英語でのリスニングは、リーディング、スピーキング、ライティングより難しいと思う。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	リスニングをしながら、頭の中で日本語に訳している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	知っている単語を使って、分からない単語の意味を推測している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	注意が散漫になっても、すぐに集中力を取り戻している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	リスニングをしながら、聞いて分かったことと、その話題について自分が知っていることを比較している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	英語のリスニングは自分にとって挑戦的なことだと感じる。	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	自分の経験と知識を理解の助けとして使っている。	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	リスニングをする前に、以前に聞いたかもしれない似たような文章のことを考えている。	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	リスニングをしながらキーワードを日本語に訳している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	集中力を失ったとき、もう一度集中しようと努力している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	リスニングをしながら、自分の解釈が正しくないと分かったとき、すぐに自分の解釈を調整している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	リスニングをした後、自分がどのようにリスニングをしたか、また次回どのようにリスニングをするつもりなのか思い返している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	英語のリスニングをするとき、緊張を感じない。	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	聞いていることを理解するのが難しいとき、リスニングするのをあきらめ、やめてしまう。	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	わからない単語の意味を推測するのを助けるため、文章の全体的な考えを使う。	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	リスニングをしながら、一つ一つの単語を日本語に訳している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	単語の意味を推測するとき、聞いたこと全てを思い返し、自分の推測が意味を成すか確かめている。	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	リスニングをしながら、自分の理解の程度に満足しているかどうか定期的に自問している。	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	リスニングをするとき、心の中で目標を持っている。	1	2	3	4	5	6

(Vandergrift, *et al.*, 2006: Vandergrift, *et al.*, 2012)

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Appendix D: Questionnaire on the recognition of prosody

プロソディーの認識に関するアンケート

学生番号（　　　　　　）

以下のアンケートは、あなたのプロソディー認識に関して調査するものです。
下記のそれぞれの記述について、以下の6段階からあなたに最もあてはまるものを一つ選んでください。
質問には正解や不正解はありませんので、あまり考えすぎず率直に回答してください。

1.全くそう思わない　2.そう思わない　3.あまりそう思わない　4.少しそう思う　5.そう思う　6.とてもそう思う

1	英語の個々の音を区別することができる。 　例 :/l/と/r/、/f/と/θ/など。	1　2　3　4　5　6
2	英語のストレスパターンを認識することができる。 　例 :動詞や名詞などの内容語は強く読まれ、前置詞や接続詞などの機能語は弱く読まれる。	1　2　3　4　5　6
3	英語のリズム体系を認識することができる。 　例 :英語では、強く読まれるところと弱く読まれるところが比較的等間隔に生じること(強勢拍リズム)。例えば、It's hard to say I'm sorryなら、hard, say, sorryが強く読まれる。	1　2　3　4　5　6
4	発話の情報構造を示すストレスやイントネーションの役割を認識できる。 　例 :文中アクセントの位置による意味の変化：She's an English teacher.' という文で、'She' にアクセントを置くと「彼女が」先生であることを強調しているのに対し、'English' にアクセントを置くと「英語の」先生であることを強調している。 　イントネーションの違いによる意味の変化：You are tired, aren't you?' の語尾を上げて発音すれば疑問の意味になり、下げて発音すると念押しの意味になるなど。	1　2　3　4　5　6
5	ストレスがあるときもないときも、単語を特定することができる。 　例 :弱く読まれるときと強く読まれるときで単語の発音が少し変化する。例えばtoならば、アクセントがある状況では、しっかり「トゥー」と発音されるが、アクセントがない状況では、「タ」に近く弱く発音されるなど。	1　2　3　4　5　6
6	発話の音声変化を認識することができる。 　例 :語と語がつながって音声が変化し、I haveがアイヴ(短縮)、should haveがシュドゥブ(脱落)、bad youがリージュー(同化)などと発音される現象。	1　2　3　4　5　6
7	語と語の境界を区別することができる。	1　2　3　4　5　6

(Richards, 1983: Field, 2008, pp.101-102)

PROCESSING INSTRUCTION:AN INPUT-BASED INSTRUCTION ON COMPOUND SENTENCES

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ABSTRACT

Teaching is the innovation of teachers in the classroom. Type of instruction in one pole and learner`s individual differences in another pole lead the learning in the classroom. The researcher focuses on type of the instruction in the classroom. Traditional instruction is a kind of output-based instruction that has centered in teaching for many years in Iran. Input-based instructions are input enhancement and processing instruction. The effect of processing instruction as a kind of input oriented instruction considered on learning compound sentences. Processing instruction is based on input processing strategies that was coined by VanPatten.To achieve the objective, 60 Iranian intermediate English foriegn language learners took part in this study. It was a quasi-experimental research.It was pretests-treatment-posttests design. The assessments were interpretation test and production test.An independent t-test for homogeneity of PET, two multivariate ANOVA for comparing pretest and posttest was run to verify the null hypothesis. The result shows there is statistically significant difference between mean scores of posttest in traditional instruction and processing instruction group in interpretation test and production test. The result of the study shows processing instruction group had better improvement in interpretation and production test. In this study the student`s interpretation ability and production ability improved via structured input tasks.

KEYWORDS: Processing instruction, input processing,input-based instruction

INTRODUCTION

Metamorphoses of ideas in teaching during different decades lead second language acquisition researchers to focus on multidimensional aspects of learning. Learning is a Phenomena in the context of classroom. The classroom may be considered as a factory for providing high quality products. Students, teacher, and the atmosphere in the classroom are non-detachable parts of learning. Teacher provide input and the output with high quality is the intake forever life as a product. Researcher focused on the way of presenting input in the classroom. The way to provide input for students to stick in their minds leads the researcher to consider input oriented research on compound sentences. Compound sentences are difficult structures for Persian learners that cause learning problems. The historical backdrop of learning is related to the time of connectionism in the 1940s. Father of connectionism is Donald Hebb. Connectionism is kind of

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approach about cognitive psychology and science of mind. Mental processes like attention, memory, perception are considered in cognitive psychology. Psychological approaches like skill approach theory and connectionism were developed in the 1990s.

New theories of processability and input processing were introduced in connectionism time. Two sorts of instruction are input-based and output-based instruction. In Input-based instruction the manipulated linguistic knowledgeis served to students to process (Ellis, 2012). There are different forms of input-oriented teaching.

One form of input-based instruction takes the form of Van Patten's model of input processing and its pedagogical spinoff Processing Instruction (PI) (e.g., Lee & VanPatten, 2003; VanPatten, 1993, 1996, 2002). In this type of instruction learners are pushed to process input by being asked to show that they have understood the meaning of a target feature in input by providing a non-verbal or minimally verbal response such as choosing between two pictures while listening to a sentence that describes one of the pictures (Ellis, 2012).

Another way to implement input-based instruction more pertinent to the study is to manipulate the input in some way in order to make some target features more noticeable to learners.In contrast to input-oriented approaches to L2 acquisition, there are some researchers who allocate more positive and causal role to output in developing L2 system. These researchers do not deny the essential role of input in L2 acquisition. They do, however, reject the view that input alone is sufficient for language acquisition and gives rise to the development of linguistic system (e.g., Krashen, 1985; Schwartz, 1993, Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi et al., 1999; Swain, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Toth, 2006).

Swain (1985, 1995, 2000, 2005) states that output is as salient as input in improving L2 knowledge to high levels of target-like precision. Swain (1985) claims that output that compel learners from the processing of meaning is necessary for comprehending input toward processing of syntax that is needed for enciphering meaning.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Processing Instruction (PI) is a sort of focus on form instruction that ispredicated on a model of input processing. The objective of PI is to avail L2 learners infer richer intake frominput by having them engage in structured input activities that push them awayfrom the strategies they ordinarily use on aggravate form-meaning associations. He depicts the three mainaspects of PI: (1) explicit information about the target structure, (2) explicit information about processing strategies, and (3) structured inputactivities(Van Patten, 2004).Two types of SI activities are utilized in PI: referential and affective. Referential activities require learners to fixateon form in order to get meaning and have a right or erroneous answer so the instructor can check whether or not the learner has genuinely made the congruous form-meaning connection.

Affective activities, on the other hand, do not have right or wrong answers. Instead, they require learners to opine notion or some other affective replication as they are engaged in processing

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information about the authentic world because referential activities sanction instructors to ascertain that learners are fixating on the germane grammatical information to derive meaning, instruction should commence with these activities (Van Patten, 2004).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Taking the importance of learning compound sentences into account on the one hand and the role of instruction in language teaching on the other, the following question is posed to fulfill the purpose of the present study:

1. Does processing instruction have any significant effect on learning compound sentences among Iranian intermediate students?
2. Does Traditional instruction have any significant effect on learning compound sentencesamong Iranian intermediate students?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Consequently, the following hypothesisis formed based on the research questions:

H1. Processing instruction does not have any significant effect on learning compound sentencesamong Iranian intermediate students.

H2. Traditional instruction does not have any significant effect on learning compound sentencesamong Iranian intermediate students.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The subjects were Iranian students of English in an English Institute, in the winter Term of 2014-2015.Their language level was intermediate and determined by the PET placement test to homogenize students at intermediate level. The participants were males and females. Both groups were taught by the researcher. Gender and age was not variables in this study. 60 students participated for the research with ages around the 16 and 29 years old.

Instruments

The interpretation test consisted of 20 multiple choice test, The interpretation test scored correct answers for one point each (total=20 points) .The production test consisted of 20 items. The target structure in this study was the English compound sentences. The teacher made tests piloted by 30 students.A package consisted of story and compound sentences grammar was considered as a context of the study. The material was chosen from intermediate stories and a package consisted of teacher made structured input tasks based on the story of queen bee and other. Input processing strategies were used.Sentence location principle was used for processing compound sentences.

Procedures

The research held in 10 sessions. The experimental group was taught with processing instruction. Time was forty-five minutes. Experimental group students were taught based on structured input

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tasks (teacher-made tasks such as matching sentences/agreement, disagreement). One day before first session the pretest was held.First step in teaching Processing instruction was warm up. Teacher set the situation via characters of story with examples. Secondly, the grammar was taught via the explicit focus on form through inductive method. Thirdly, Teacher explained the input processing strategies then parsed the words in the sentences. Fourth, teacher presented the input via storytelling. Then students have done structured input activities based on the story text. Fifth, teacher gave explicit feedback on referential and affective activities orally and written.The FANBOYS was taught with past tense, passive tense in negative and question form superlative and comparative form in negative and question form. It has taught in experimental group based on input processing principles and structured input activities.

Design
The design of the research was a quasi-experimental design. There was no randomization. It was a pretest-treatment-posttest design. Two groups were considered as experimental group and control group. The IF, ID, CD were considered.KR-21 formula was used for reliability and construct validity was considered for teacher made tests.

Data Collection and Data Analysis
This experimental study has examined the effects of processing instruction and traditional instruction on the learners' development of English compound sentences. The participants in this study were L2 learners studying English at intermediate level.They were divided into two groups: (1) experimental group (2) control group. Interpretation items (multiple choice test) and production items (picture cued test) were developed and administered to both groups to measure the effects of the treatment. The pretest was exactly the same as the posttest. An independent samples t-test was run to compare the means of two group in PET test. Two Multivariate Anovas were run to compare the means of pretest and posttest in both group.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
The study is a quantitative research. Data is gathered in a real classroom context by the teacher. The tests were scored by the researcher. The data were entered the SPSS software to calculate the result.The normality test for PET and two Multivariate Anova were run to calculate the result of the study.

Descriptive Statistics of Preliminary English Test
The Researcher used a placement test to homogenize the two groups. Theresearcher considered the descriptive statistics of each group to explain the normality.This study explores the effects of processing instruction and tradition method on the Iranian EFL learners' interpretation and production of compound sentences. The data were analyzed through independent t-test and multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) which has a common assumption, i.e. normality of the data. As displayed in Table 1 the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors were lower than +/- 1.96.

Table 1: Testing Normality Assumption

Group		N Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Kurtosis Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Experimental	PET	30	-.213	.427	-0.50	-1.435	.833	-1.72
	Pre-Interpretation	29	-.095	.434	-0.04	-.988	.833	-1.18
	Post-Interpretation	30	-.605	.427	-1.42	-.820	.833	-0.98
	Pre-Production	30	.375	.427	0.88	.071	.833	0.09
	Post-Production	30	-.239	.427	-0.56	-1.133	.833	-1.36
Control	PET	30	-.088	.427	-0.21	-1.442	.833	-1.73
	Pre-Interpretation	30	-.211	.427	-0.49	-1.344	.833	-1.61
	Post-Interpretation	30	.237	.427	0.56	-1.495	.833	-1.79
	Pre-Production	30	.112	.427	0.26	-.812	.833	-0.97
	Post-Production	30	.393	.427	0.92	-.583	.833	-0.70

The assumption homogeneity of variances will be discussed within the main report of independent t-test.

PET General Language Proficiency Test

An independent t-test is run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the PET test in order to prove that both groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the administration of the treatment. As displayed in Table 2 the experimental (M = 20.67, SD = 8.64) and control (M = 21.23, SD = 837) groups showed almost the same means on the PET test.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics PET by Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PET	Control	30	21.23	8.378	1.530
	Experimental	30	20.67	8.648	1.579

The results of the independent t-test (t (58) = .258, P = .797, r = .034 representing a weak effect size). Table 3 indicated that there was not any significant difference between the two groups' mean scores on the PET. Thus it can be concluded that they enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the administration of the treatment.

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Table 3: Independent Samples Test, PET by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.096	.757	.258	58	.797	.567	2.198	-3.834	4.967
Equal variances not assumed			.258	57.94	.797	.567	2.198	-3.834	4.967

Note. The negative lower bound of the 95 % confidence interval of –3.83 indicated that the difference between the two groups' means may be zero. Thus the above mentioned conclusion as no significant difference between the two groups' means was correctly made.It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 098, P = .757). That is why the first row of Table 3, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" was reported.
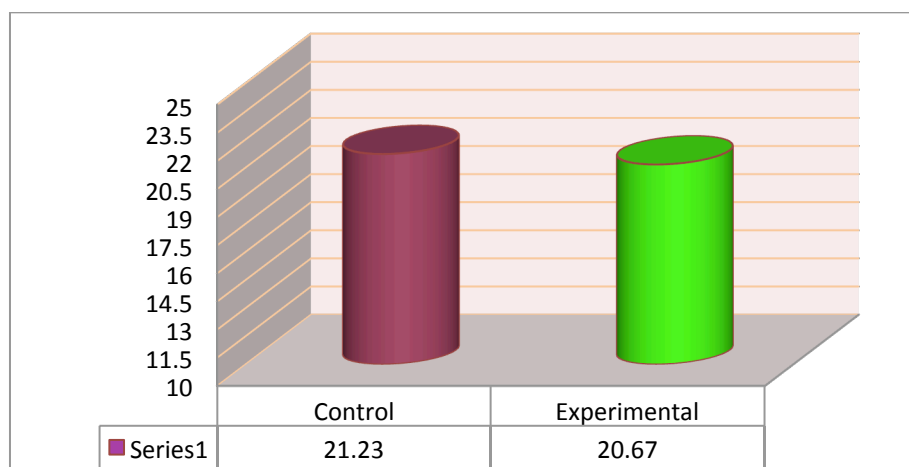
Figure 1: PET by Group

First Research Question
Does Processing Instruction have significant effect on learning Compound sentences?A multivariate ANOVA was run to compare the experimental (processing instruction) group's means on the pretests and posttests of interpretation and production in order to probe the first research question. Based on the results displayed in Table 4 there was a significant difference between experimental group's overall means on the pretest and posttest (F (1, 29) = 79.048, p = .000, Partial η^2 = .73 representing a large effect size).Based on these results it can be claimed that the first null-hypothesis as processing instruction did not haveany significant effect on learning compound sentenceswas rejected.

Table 4: Multivariate Tests; Pretests and Posttests of Interpretation and production (Experimental Group)

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Test	Pillai's Trace	.040	1.216	1	29	.279	.040
	Wilks' Lambda	.960	1.216	1	29	.279	.040
	Hotelling's Trace	.042	1.216	1	29	.279	.040
	Roy's Largest Root	.042	1.216	1	29	.279	.040
Time	Pillai's Trace	.732	79.048	1	29	.000	.732
	Wilks' Lambda	.268	79.048	1	29	.000	.732
	Hotelling's Trace	2.726	79.048	1	29	.000	.732
	Roy's Largest Root	2.726	79.048	1	29	.000	.732
test * time	Pillai's Trace	.119	3.908	1	29	.058	.119
	Wilks' Lambda	.881	3.908	1	29	.058	.119
	Hotelling's Trace	.135	3.908	1	29	.058	.119
	Roy's Largest Root	.135	3.908	1	29	.058	.119

The results of descriptive statistics Table 5 indicated that the experimental group had a higher mean on the posttest of interpretation (M = 14.60, SE = .68) than pretest (M = 10.44, SE = .85). They also had a higher mean on the posttest of production (M = 14.80, SE = .73) than pretest (M = 8.46, SE = .80).

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics; Interpretation and Production Test (Experimental Group)

Test	time	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interpretation	Pretest	10.448	.850	8.709	12.188
	Posttest	14.600	.682	13.204	15.996
Production	Pretest	8.467	.800	6.830	10.104
	Posttest	14.800	.734	13.299	16.301

The results of pair-wise comparisons in Table 6 indicated that;The experimental group after receiving the processing instruction had a significantly higher mean on the posttest of interpretation (M = 14.60) than pretest (M = 10.44) (MD = 4.15, p = .000, 95 % CI [2.30, 5.99]).

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Table 6: Pairwise Comparisons

| Test	(I) time	(J) time	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interpretation	Posttest	Pretest	4.152*	.903	.000	2.304	5.999
Production	Posttest	Pretest	6.333*	.699	.000	4.904	7.762

*. The mean difference is significant at the .050 level.

The experimental group after receiving the processing instruction had a significantly higher mean on the posttest of production (M = 14.80) than pretest (M = 8.46) (MD = 6.33, p = .000, 95 % CI [4.90, 7.76]).Although not considered in this study, it should be mentioned that;There was not any significant difference between the experimental group's means on the overall (posttest + pretest) of interpretation and production (F (1, 29) = 1.02, p = .279, Partial η^2 = .040 representing a weak effect size) (Table 4). As displayed in Table 7 the overall mean scores on interpretation and production were 12.52 and 11.63.

Table 7: Descriptive Statistics; Interpretation and Production Test
(Experimental Group)

Test	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interpretation	12.524	.625	11.246	13.802
Production	11.633	.684	10.235	13.032

There was not any significant interaction between the experimental group's means on the posttest and pretest of interpretation and production (F (1, 28) = 3.90, p = .058, Partial η^2 = .119 representing a moderate effect size) (Table 4). As displayed in Table 5 and Line Graph 1.2; the experimental group had higher means on the posttest of interpretation and production.

	Interpretation	Production
Pretest	10.45	8.47
Posttest	14.60	14.80
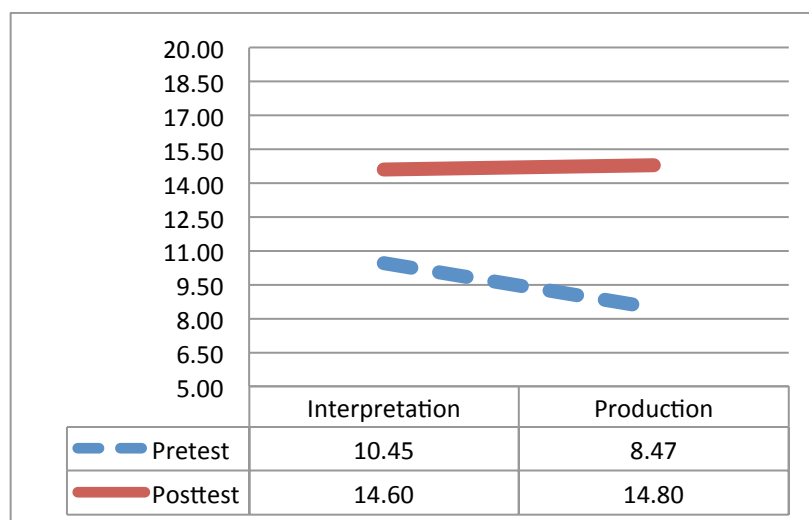
Line Graph 2: Pretests and Posttests of Interpretation and Production (Experimental Group)

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Second Research Question

Does traditional Instruction have significant effect on learning Compound sentences?
A multivariate ANOVA was run to compare the control (traditional method) group's means on the pretests and posttests of interpretation and production in order to probe the second research question. Based on the results displayed in Table 8 there was not any significant difference between control group's overall means on the pretest and posttest (F (1, 29) = .062, p = .805, Partial η^2 = .002 representing a weak effect size). Based on these results it can be claimed that the second null-hypothesis as traditional instruction did not have any significant effect on learning compound sentences was supported.

Table 8: Multivariate Tests; Pretests and Posttests of Interpretation and production (Control Group)

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Test	Pillai's Trace	.027	.801	1	29	.378	.027
	Wilks' Lambda	.973	.801	1	29	.378	.027
	Hotelling's Trace	.028	.801	1	29	.378	.027
	Roy's Largest Root	.028	.801	1	29	.378	.027
Time	Pillai's Trace	.002	.062	1	29	.805	.002
	Wilks' Lambda	.998	.062	1	29	.805	.002
	Hotelling's Trace	.002	.062	1	29	.805	.002
	Roy's Largest Root	.002	.062	1	29	.805	.002
test * time	Pillai's Trace	.001	.021	1	29	.886	.001
	Wilks' Lambda	.999	.021	1	29	.886	.001
	Hotelling's Trace	.001	.021	1	29	.886	.001
	Roy's Largest Root	.001	.021	1	29	.886	.001

The results of descriptive statistics Table 1.9 indicated that the control group had almost the same means on the pretest and posttest of interpretation (M = 9.76 vs. M = 9.70) and pretest and posttest of production (M = 9 vs. M = 8.80). The pair-wise comparisons were not produced because the F-value of .062 (Table 8) was not significant.

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics; Interpretation and Production Test (Control Group)

Test	time	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interpretation	Pretest	9.767	1.036	7.648	11.885
	Posttest	9.700	.589	8.494	10.906
Production	Pretest	9.000	.878	7.205	10.795
	Posttest	8.800	.887	6.985	10.615

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Although not considered in this study, it should be mentioned that;There was not any significant difference between the control group's means on the overall (posttest + pretest) of interpretation and production (F (1, 29) = .801, p = .378, Partial η^2 = .027 representing a weak effect size) (Table 4). As displayed in Table 10 the overall mean scores on interpretation and production were 9.73 and 8.90.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics; Interpretation and Production Test (Control Group)

Test	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interpretation	9.733	.770	8.159	11.307
Production	8.900	.804	7.255	10.545

There was not any significant interaction between the control group's means on the posttest and pretest of interpretation and production (F (1, 29) = .021, p = .886, Partial η^2 = .001 representing a weak effect size) (Table 4). As displayed in Table 9 and Line Graph 3; the control group had higher means on the pretest of interpretation and production.

	Interpretation	Production
Pretest	9.77	9.00
Posttest	9.70	8.80
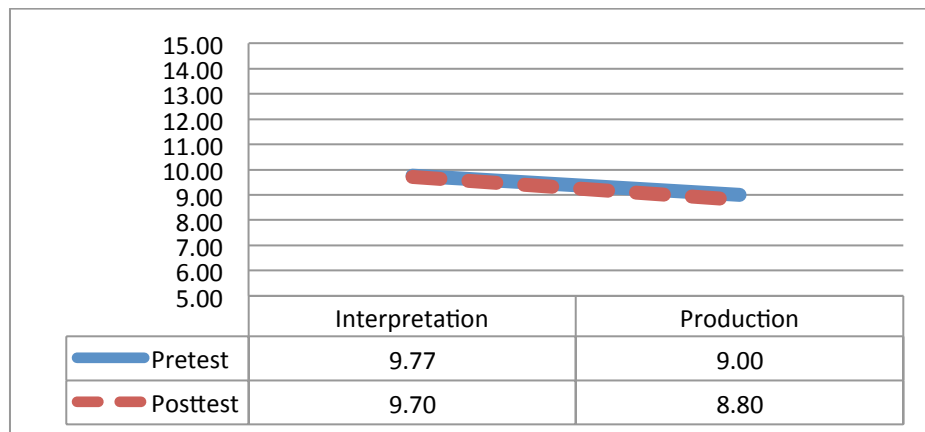
Line Graph 3: Pretests and Posttests of Interpretation and Production (Control Group)

KR-21 Reliability Indices
The KR-21 reliability indices for the PET, pretest and posttest of interpretation and pretest and posttest of production were .88, .85, .78, .80 and .88 respectively.

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Variance	KR-21
PET	60	20.95	71.336	0.88
Pre-Interpretation	60	10.11	26.602	0.85
Post-Interpretation	60	12.15	18.096	0.78
Pre-Production	60	8.73	20.877	0.80
Post-Production	60	11.80	28.705	0.88

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Construct Validity

A factor analysis through varimax rotation is carried out to underlying construct of the PET, pretest and posttest of interpretation and pretest and posttest of production. The assumptions of sampling adequacy and lack of multicollinearity were met. As displayed in Table 1.12 the KMO index of .61 was higher than the criterion of .60. Thus it can be concluded that the present sample size was adequate for the factor analysis.

Table 12: KMO and Bartlett`s Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.610
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	86.095
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

The correlation matrix used to probe the underlying structure of the tests should not suffer from multicollinearity – too high correlations among all variables. The Bartlett's chi-square of 86.09 was significant (P = .000). Thus it can be concluded that the assumption of lack of multicollinearity was also met.Table 13 displays the correlation matrix for the five tests. The determinant of .218 (> .0000) also indicated that the correlation matrix was appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 13: Correlation Matrix[a]

		PET	PreInt	PostInt	PrePro	PostPro
Correlation	PET	1.000	.402	.278	.660	.340
	PreInt	.402	1.000	.483	.274	.133
	PostInt	.278	.483	1.000	.223	.452
	PrePro	.660	.274	.223	1.000	.485
	PostPro	.340	.133	.452	.485	1.000

a. Determinant = .218

The SPSS extracted one factor which accounted for 50.09 percent of the total variance.

Table 14: Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.505	50.097	50.097	2.505	50.097	50.097
2	1.000	19.999	70.096			
3	.853	17.054	87.151			
4	.356	7.111	94.262			
5	.287	5.738	100.000			

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And finally, Table 15 displays the factor loadings of the five tests under the only extracted factor. These results suggested that the tests all contributed to the same underlying trait, i.e. measured the same construct.

Table 15: Component

	Component
	1
PET	.782
PrePro	.774
PostPro	.681
PostInt	.664
PreInt	.623

CONCLUSION

The current study confirmed the usefulness of processing instruction. In pretest, there is no statistically meaningful difference between two pair of means, In posttest, there was statisticallysignificant difference between grammar scores of the two groups in interpretation test. There was no significant difference between means scores of the two group in production posttest.Finally, the results indicated that the differences in the mean scores of the two groups were high enough to reject the null hypothesis. The present study provided evidence that PI tasks affected Iranian intermediate learners.The results of the present study demonstrated that PI group is more successful than TI group because of doing structured input tasks. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers, and learners take into account structured input tasks. It creates a new vision for material writers to consider input-based tasks in the books.Curriculum developers and syllabus designers should use more visual input to make structured input tasks. Motivation and interest can increase via presenting visual input in tasks. Any kind of linguistic knowledge presented via pictures or videos are visual input. It was found that the subjects in processing instruction group learned grammatical points better, due to input-based instruction and tasks. This may convey that input-based tasks are vital to improve interpretation ability of the students. There must be questions about individual differences in input-based and output-based classes. Some questions about high input graspers and their differences with low input graspers will lead the study to further discussions.

The present study has some limitations and delimitations which affect the results of this study. The participants were just intermediate students in one institute in Karaj. Students `age and gender were not considered in the study. Moreover, students were from various ages, experience and background. The study was delimited to compound sentences, hence it did not take account complex sentences.

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IJLLALW

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POST-METHOD PEDAGOGY PERCEPTION AND USAGE BY EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS AND ITS LIMITATIONS, SYMBOLS AND VIEW POINTS

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ABSTRACT

After early and mid- twentieth century, English language teaching has witnessed a widespread dissatisfaction with the conventional concept of method and started exploring new horizons. The notion of postmethod and its replacement by Kumaravadivelu's post-method based pedagogy free from the constraints of methods, was deemed a viable solution to the problems that methods created for both language teachers and learners. However there are few works dealing with implementation of post-method parameters of particularity, possibility and practicality and existing limitations or obstacles in the way of implementing it in Iranian private language schools. This study is a mixed-method research using both quantitative and qualitative research methods which verifies actual appearance of post-method pedagogy in Iran as an EFL context by means of a questionnaire and an interview and observation. This study examines 30 EFL teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of post-method principles, barriers, difficulties and challenges they encounter in the way of implementing post-method pedagogy. The data suggests that although the EFL teachers are familiar with post-method principles, but there is gap between their familiarity and implementation of it. Different factors, such as teachers' previous language learning/teaching experience, their current schooling and current interests come into play as teachers construct their "theoretical" knowledge about, and in the manner they reflect on their "practical" understandings of Teaching Language. The findings of the survey showed that EFL teachers in Iran, whilst aware of the achievements of post-method era, face with many limitations in implementing teaching based on its criteria.

KEYWORDS: Post-method, EFL, teachers' attitudes, barriers, implementation

INTRODUCTION
ELT has been developing rapidly in the recent 100 years. However, some problems and unsatisfactory with learning outcome made teachers and pedagogical researchers to search for

75

effective methods. Various methods, such as oral approach, audio lingual method, content-based teaching, communicative approach, appeared. As Kumaravadivelu points out, one might think that the methods listed above provide different pathways to language learning and teaching. That is not the case. In fact, there is considerable overlap in theory and practice (2006, p. 163).Scholars have noted a shift from a method-based conception of language teaching to one that takes the field "beyond methods", and have urged the field to study language teaching in its particular settings, as a situated practice, with all its contextual factors (Brown, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2001). According to Akbari (2008), one dramatic recent shift which has not been unanimously agreed upon among scholars is the emergence of the *"post-method condition"* (Kumaravadivelu, 1994). This condition has pronounced ''The Death of the Method'' (Allwright, 1991) and emergence beyond the dark ages of methods (Brown, 2002, p. 17), as the search for the best method was in practice futile(Allwright, 1991; Brown, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Nunan, 1991; Prabhu, 1990; & Pennycook, 1989), and has defined new roles and relationships for all involved in the process of learning or teaching the language, among them, learners and teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 1994).These authors have rejected any kind of predetermined teaching methodology and claim to have put "method" to rest.

Statement of the problem
There are two goals in this research. One is exploring into the nature of activities, roles and characteristics of English teachers and learners undertaken in an EFL context to see to what extent the basic features of a post-method pedagogy have been actualized or are on the way to implementation in Iran. In other words, to explore the extent of EFL teachers' familiarity with post-method pedagogy principles and their attitudes toward them and whether this new approach in teaching is applicable in Iranian English institutes and after we use this approach in the classes, in what way its rules are performed.

Second goal is to investigate difficulties and challenges teachers face in implementation of post-method principles and illuminate the barriers facing post-method pedagogy, changes happened concerning the new trends leading to post-method, and at last the teaching strategies teachers apply in their classes as the symbols of post-method pedagogy.

Objectives of the study
This research investigates the current situation of Iran's English language learning and teaching context to see to what extent post-method pedagogy is perceived and how is manifested in teachers and learners classroom environment under which limitations. The purpose of this study is bidirectional. The first direction is the manifestation of post-method pedagogy by teachers with taking into account the learners roles from teachers point of view in the classroom. Second, the representation of post-method pedagogy characteristics in teachers' teaching environment and the limitations, symbols and view points toward it. Finally, to sum up, it can be claimed that the general purpose of this study will shed light on some tangible conclusions which will finally encourage both teachers and students to have a better understanding of post method as a versatile method which will satisfy many of the demands of the ever-changing EFL contexts.

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LITERATURE REVIEW

Since the end of the Second World War and the increasing awareness of the need to understand others' languages and cultures, discussions on second and foreign language education have often focused on teaching methods. However, in the last 20 years scholars and educators have shifted from looking for the best method to realizing that there is no single best method (Prabhu, 1990), to questioning the concept of method (Pennycook,1989), and to suggesting going beyond method (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b) in the "postmethod era" (Brown, 2002). *Postmethod pedagogy*, a term which was first coined by Pennycook (1989) and which was later taken up by others, including Prabhu (1990), Allwright (1991), Stern (1992) and Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2003). The framework adopted by the researchers in the present study is Kumaravadivelu's framework based on three pedagogical principles of *practicality*, *particularity*, and *possibility* (1994, 2001, 2003a, 2003b, 2005). The first parameter (practicality), assumes a dialectical relationship between theorists having their professional theories and practitioners generating their personal theories, and enables teachers to construct their own theory of practice embarking on what Prabhu (1990, p.172) calls teachers' *sense of plausibility* (emphasis original). The second one accentuates the need for a context sensitive language education which takes into account local linguistic, socio-cultural, and political particularities. The last principle addresses the empowerment of both teachers and students to facilitate the process of identity formation and social transformation.(Hazratzad and Gheitanchian) studying post-method in Iranian high schools concluded that" EFL teachers have different attitudes towards dominant teaching methods but that there is no relationship between the teachers' attitudes towards post-method and their students' achievement" (p. 6).Razmjoo, Ranjbar and Hoomanfard (2013) conducted a study to investigate the familiarity of Iranian EFL teachers and learners with postmethod and its realization by means of a questionnaire and an interview. The findings of the study raised uncertainties about the feasibility, possibility or practicality of a fully post-method based teaching pedagogy and queried its emergence into Iranian context. The findings also revealed that Iran's language educational system is mainly based on eclectic method. In the studies mentioned above, the participants were all practicing teachers and none of them had sought the perspectives and unanimity of domain experts on postmethod pedagogy in the Iranian language education.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The Primary purpose of this study is to measure: 1-Teachers and learners familiarity with postmethod and whether can we reach to it in Iranian EFL context. 2- To recognize obstacles and limitations in our way until reach it. In order to investigate the range of familiarity, to what extent is postmethod implementable in Iranian English institutes, and those barriers in our way to implement it, this study seeks to answer the following questions:
1. To what extent post-method traits are applied in our teachers teaching environment private institutes in order to be a post-method teacher?
2. Do our English learners in private institutes perceive post-method pedagogy characteristics in their classrooms?
3. To what extent the three context-driven parameters of post-method pedagogy including practicality, particularity and possibility applied in Iran's private English institutes?

4. To what extent the teaching strategies are applied as the symbols of post-method by teachers? Under which limitations?

Statement of hypothesis

In order to investigate the problem raised by the study and to answer the related questions, the following null hypotheses will be tested:

1- In order to be a post-method teacher there is no gap between teachers familiarity with its principles and the implementation of it.

2- English learners do not completely perceive post-method characteristics because of different barriers.

3-Considering the three context-driven parameters of post-method pedagogy including practicality, particularity and possibility, are not followed by EFL teachers.

4- EFL teachers because of some barriers can't just follow post-method based instruction and according to their different materials and textbooks are more eclectic.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants in this study consist of 30 Iranian teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The researcher refers to them as Respondent Teachers (RTs). The researcher has included herself as a participant (Teacher 1) and reported her findings in a pilot case. The language of communication was determined by the participants, depending on their level of comfort. Some of RTs requested to speak Persian during the interviews, though they used English for their written responses. So, while transcribing the interviews with these teachers, their answers were translated from Persian to English.

Instruments

For this study, the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments. A questionnaire followed up with an interview and observation are used to complete each other and the results obtained would be reliable according to mixed-method research.

The attitudinal questionnaire

With each participant, the researcher distributed a questionnaire consisting of the main tenets of post-method pedagogy namely the principles of particularity, practicality, possibility, the role of teachers, and the role of learners, which was constructed and tested before by Seyyed Ayatollah Razmjoo, Hamid Ranjbar, Mohammad Hamed Hoomanfard and was used in their article, under the name of "On the familiarity of Iranian teachers and learners with post-method , and its realization". The article was published on International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW), Volume 4 (1), September 2013. So the validity and reliability of the questionnaire was determined before. It consists of 22 items (11 favorable and 11 unfavorable) which follow the Likert scale. Each statement has 4 possible responses: 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree', and 'strongly disagree'. The unfavorable statements of the questionnaire have been calculated differently from the favorable statements because they reflect the principles of the traditional methods. The highest score on the scale (4) is for 'strongly

disagree' which indicates a favorable attitude; 3 for 'disagree', 2 for 'agree' and 1 for 'strongly agree'.

A semi-structured interview

For Phase 2, the researcher distributed a semi-structured interview comprising of six open-ended questions and was divided in two parts: (1) to investigate the exact nature of teaching practice in Iran's language institutes, (2) viewpoints of Iranian EFL teachers in private language schools about the barriers of post-method teaching and the attitudes of families, learners, and government's language policies concerning new teaching methodology and at last the language teaching strategies they apply in their classes as the symbols of post-method pedagogy. Interviews lasted for 45 to 60minutes each.

The first three questions in this interview was constructed before by Seyyed Ayatollah Razmjoo, Hamid Ranjbar, Mohammad Hamed Hoomanfard and was used in their article, "On the familiarity of Iranian teachers and learners with post-method , and its realization", and the last three questions was designed and reviewed by Javad Gholami and Arshad Mirzaei for their article, "POST-METHOD EFL TEACHING IN IRAN: BARRIERS, ATTITUDES, AND SYMBOLS". The results of the interviews will be analyzed in the form of qualitative content analysis. The content of the interviews will be scrutinized to categorize the factors that were stated by the interviewees. The researcher started the interview with questions that are not sensitive but important to the interviewee. The researcher personally transcribed all the interviews. The transcripts were sent back to each participant for review. Some of them made changes to the transcripts.

1. Is your teaching practice based on one specific method for instance Audio-Lingual Method or Communicative Language Teaching?
2. Is your teaching practice fed by an eclectic selection of a number of methods?
3. Is your teaching practice grounded on a number of general principles, e.g. your own or some other scholars' theories of practice, free from the constraints of method?
4. Have you ever made any changes in your language teaching strategies and method according to post-method criteria? If so, what kind of limitations do you face on the part of language learners, their families, language institutes, and your colleagues?
5. Have you ever noticed any changes happening in the learners', their families' or government's attitudes or language policies regarding English language and its role in our life? Please give examples?
6. Which one of these post-method strategies do you apply in your real teaching classes? Strategies like: integrating four skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing; using up-to-date technology like internet and face book or other social networks; free discussion in the class; teaching based on learners' needs; teaching suitable text for social life of learners'; sharing learners in decision making process in the class; respecting differences among learners in terms of language learning strategies.

Class observation, video recorded classes

The researcher observed 30 teachers EFL classes for 8 weeks and recorded video of 30 classes. Each teacher where observed 2 sessions. As the RTs did not observe the classes' in-person, apart from the researcher, the researcher didn't edit the videos in any way in order to retain the authenticity of the classroom. Each class lasted about 1.5 hours. There were also some brief (2-10 minutes) sessions within the lessons where the instructor discussed some grammar or vocabulary points with the students. RTs filled in questionnaires and then participated in interviews and after that class observation was conducted.

Data collection and analysis

All participants were encouraged to ask questions so that they did not have any problems with respect to the content and language of the questionnaire. Moreover, the observed principles were discussed with the teachers to eradicate any doubts about the originality of the data. The data collected through language teachers' questionnaire and interview were analyzed through descriptive statistics utilizing, mean, neutral point and standard deviation. The interview was also analyzed based on the frequency measures of the responses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the study are presented and explained in this part. The researcher intends to give some information on the statistical analysis and the results of the study and also answer the research questions. Using a variety of statistical methods, showing the numbers and figures in various tables and diagrams and placing them in different formulas, the researcher tried to extract a number of significant and useful results from the raw data.

Analyzing research hypothesis one

As it was stated earlier, the first research hypothesis claimed that there is no gap between teachers' familiarity with the principles of post-method, and the implementation of them. To find evidence to accept or reject this hypothesis, the researcher distributed a questionnaire consisting of the main tenets of post-method pedagogy namely the principles of particularity, practicality, possibility, the role of teachers, and the role of learners.

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Table 1: Teacher Attitude in Terms of Frequency (F) and Percentage (P)

Items		SA+A		D+SD	
		F	P	F	P
1	My role is to transmit knowledge without altering the content.	8	27%	22	73%
2	I give learners institutional, political, social and cultural awareness.	10	33%	20	67%
3	I can't generate my own theories to teach in class.	9	30%	21	70%
4	I am not interested in the sociopolitical context and its power dimensions.	9	30%	21	70%
5	My teaching is in line with the notion that every class context is unique.	17	57%	13	43%
6	My role is to help students gain a sense of ownership of education.	12	40%	18	60%
7	My teaching does not vary from context to context.	16	53%	14	47%
8	My learners don't have a role in pedagogic decision making.	9	30%	21	70%
9	I have a fair degree of autonomy in pedagogic decision making.	15	50%	15	50%
10	I'm not interested in sociopolitical issues in my classes.	8	27%	22	73%
11	I observe, analyze, and evaluate my teaching to generate my own theories.	12	40%	18	60%
12	My learners don't search for language beyond the classroom.	12	40%	18	60%
13	My teaching is sensitive to a particular group of learners in a particular institutional or sociocultural context.	12	40%	18	60%
14	I generate my own theory of teaching.	13	43%	17	57%
15	I try to tap the sociopolitical consciousness of learners as change agents.	19	63%	11	37%
16	I try to bring about social, cultural, and political change and transformation.	11	37%	19	63%
17	I don't adjust my teaching to the particular conditions of different contexts.	11	37%	19	63%
18	My learners are active and autonomous.	13	43%	17	57%
19	I'm not interested in making my own theory of practice.	14	47%	16	53%
20	I don't encourage learners to investigate how language as ideology serves vested interests.	12	40%	18	60%
21	The system doesn't recognize my role to teach autonomously within constraints of institutions, curricula, and textbooks.	16	53%	14	47%
22	My learners explore the Internet and bring to class their own topics.	14	47%	16	53%

Table 1 shows frequency and percentage of items as chosen by the respondent teachers. Among the items, some are worded as negative statements; therefore, their results were interpreted reversely. These items were items of numbers 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 10, 12, 17, 19, 20 and 21. As it was stated earlier, the purpose of this questionnaire was to investigate respondent teachers' belief about the principles representing post-method pedagogy. In order to have a more comprehensive view of the respondents' answers to the items, the first two (strongly agree and agree) and the last two (disagree and strongly disagree) were added up together (see Table 4.1). The mean of the questionnaire items mounted to 12.00 and the standard deviation was 2.60. The neutral point is 6.00 which is half of the mean. Because the standard deviation is less than the mean over the neutral point, it can be concluded that teachers have a positive attitude toward post-method principles.

Based on the respondents' claims, post-method tenets are not greatly appreciated or implemented in Iran. For instance item 2, 67% of teachers disagree with some items which show principles of

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post-method, "I give learners institutional, political, social and cultural awareness. 30% of the RTs, for item 3, claimed that they can't generate their own theories to teach in class; however, as it was observed, in 73% of the observed classes the teachers followed the existing theories without any changes. In the same vein, for item 5, in 57% of the situations, the language teachers believed that their teaching is in line with the notion that every class context is unique, and a unique method should be planted in each class, on the contrary, in practice in 85% of the situations, the language teachers followed a similar and identical procedure for teaching.

To wrap it up, based on the results presented above, one can conclude that in spite of the relative familiarity and positive attitude that Iranian language teachers have with the principles of post method, no real account is given to the tenets of post method in language classes. Therefore, it can be claimed that the first research hypothesis, according to which there is no gap between teachers' familiarity with the principles of post-method, and its implementation, is safely rejected.

Analyzing research hypothesis two
The second hypothesis of this study claimed that from language teachers' point of view, English learners do not completely perceive post-method characteristics because of different barriers. In order to test this hypothesis, the questionnaires filled by the language teachers were reanalyzed; however, in this phase only those items concerning the language learners were taken into account. Table 2 presents the learner-related items as analyzed by the respondent teachers.

Table 2: Teacher Attitude toward Learner-role in Post Method Class in Terms of Frequency (F) and Percentage (P)

Items		SA+A		D+SD	
		F	P	F	P
2	I give learners institutional, political, social and cultural awareness.	10	33%	20	67%
6	My role is to help students gain a sense of ownership of education.	12	40%	18	60%
8	My learners don't have a role in pedagogic decision making.	9	30%	21	70%
12	My learners don't search for language beyond the classroom.	12	40%	18	60%
15	I try to tap the sociopolitical consciousness of learners as change agents.	19	63%	11	37%
16	I try to bring about social, cultural, and political change and transformation.	11	37%	19	63%
18	My learners are active and autonomous.	13	43%	17	57%
20	I don't encourage learners to investigate how language as ideology serves vested interests.	12	40%	18	60%
22	My learners explore the Internet and bring to class their own topics.	14	47%	16	53%

Items number 2, 6, 8, 12, 15, 16, 18, 20 and 22 concern the learners' role in post method classes. Figure 1 depicts the learner-related items as chosen by language teachers.
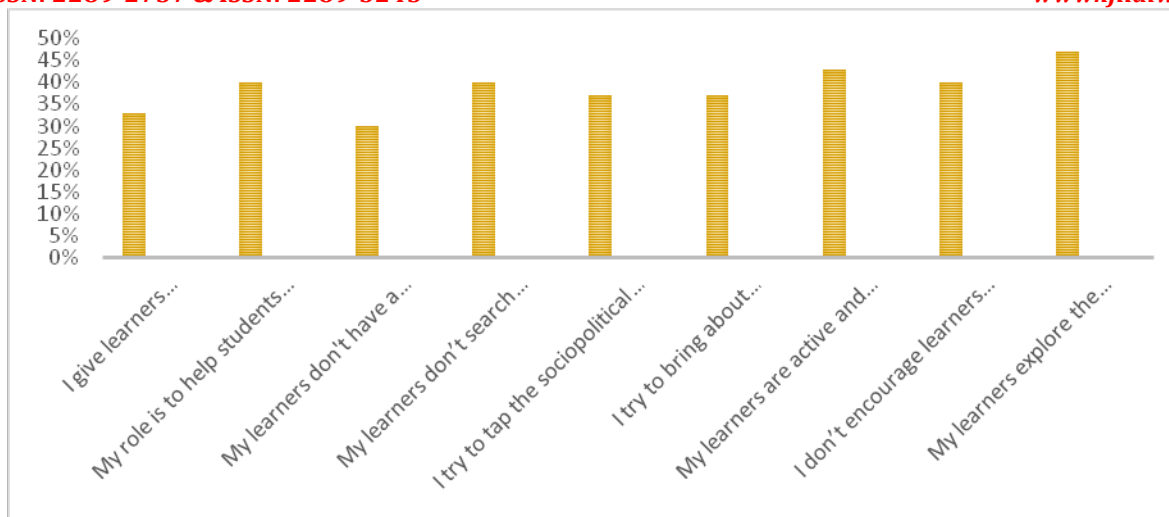
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Figure 1: Teacher Attitude toward Learner-role in Post Method Class

Among the teacher-related items, item number 18 "My learners are active and autonomous." deals with the concept of learner autonomy which is a main tenet in post method era. However only 43% of the RTs claimed that their learners are autonomous, meaning that 67% of the language learners are not well-aware of the concept of autonomy in language classes. Another item showing one of the principles of post method is the awareness and knowledge of institution, politics, society and culture. (Item 2). From teachers' point of view only 33% of the teachers give institutional, political, social and cultural awareness. The results of the observation, however, showed that in rare situations the language teachers give political and social awareness to the learners (only 7%).

According to the results presented above, the second research hypothesis of the preset study, according to which from language teachers' point of view, English learners do not completely perceive post-method characteristics because of different barriers is accepted.

Analyzing research hypothesis three
The third hypothesis of this study, considering the three context-driven parameters of post-method pedagogy including practicality, particularity and possibility are not followed by EFL teachers. To put it in other words, it was hypothesized that the parameters of post method pedagogy are not implemented in language classes. To test this hypothesis, a questionnaire was distributed among the RTs and their responses were analyzed according to the three principles of post method pedagogy. The results are presented in the following section. Table 3 presents the RTs' opinions regarding the parameter of possibility.

IJLLALW

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Table 3: The Frequency and Percentage of the Respondent teachers' Agreement with the parameter of Possibility

Questionnaire Items	percent	frequency
2	33%	10
4	30%	9
10	27%	8
15	63%	19
16	37%	11
20	40%	12

As it was stated earlier, six items of the questionnaire concerned the parameter of possibility. According to the statistics presented in Table 4.3, 40% of the participants agreed with item number 20 stating that "I don't encourage learners to investigate how language as ideology serves vested interests."

Parameter of possibility aims at providing a more comprehensive context for language teaching in terms of its social engagement and political accountability. Therefore, it can be said that item number 20 which deals with language ideology is classified in the parameter of possibility. Item 16 is agreed upon by the respondent teachers 37%. From this perspective, post-method pedagogy considers L2 teaching and learning not as grasping new linguistic and cultural knowledge but as a site of struggling between the old and new identities for teachers and learners alike.

In order to be more concise, the results of the three parameters under question are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Teacher Attitude Regarding the Five Principles of Post-method

Post method parameters	SA+A		D+SD	
	F	P	F	P
particularity	14	47%	16	53%
practicality	12	40%	18	60%
possibility	10	33%	20	67%

Table 4 presents teachers' attitudes considering the principles of post-method based pedagogy. As can be seen, 33% of the respondent teachers agree or strongly agree with the principle of possibility. Accordingly, it can be claimed that most RTs disagree with the principle of possibility, meaning that in general language teachers do not try to bring socio-political changes in class. This may be due to the fact that talking about social and political issues may endanger the teachers' status. The parameter of practicality which stresses the importance of involving teacher generated theories of practice in pedagogy deals with the connections between theory and practice and with teachers' intuitive sense of what works and what does not work in the classroom. Post-method pedagogies need to allow room for teachers to "develop the knowledge and skill, attitude, and autonomy necessary to construct their own context-sensitive theory of practice" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 173). This parameter has also received less than half acceptance, maybe because this principle necessitates that the teachers be proficient, experienced or skillful enough to be able to make up their own theories or due to the constraints imposed upon

institutions or textbooks. Another important parameter of post method pedagogy is the parameter of particularity, which deals with the importance of context. In fact, 47% of the RTs agreed with this parameter. This parameter is recognized by at least half of the Iranian teachers.

So because less than half of the Iranian teachers admit that the roles they assume are in line with those of a post-method teacher, the hypothesis that considering the three context-driven parameters of post-method pedagogy including practicality, particularity and possibility are not followed by EFL teachers is rejected

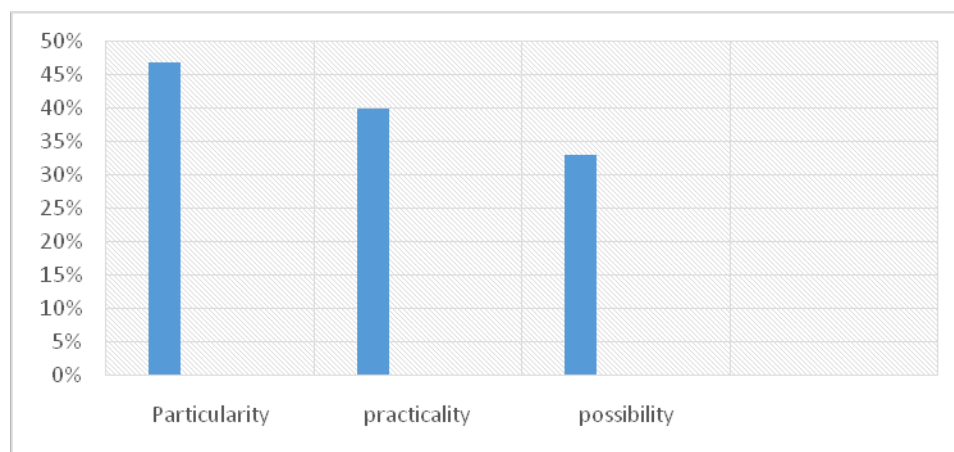Figure 2 presents the opinion of the teachers regarding the three principles of post method pedagogy

Figure 2: Teacher Attitude Regarding the Five Principles of Post-method

Analyzing research hypothesis four
The fourth hypothesis of this thesis deals with what occurs in language classes in practice. This hypothesis claims that EFL teachers because of some barriers can't just follow post-method based instruction and according to their different materials and textbooks are more eclectic. In order to find evidence regarding this hypothesis, a semi-structure interview was run among the respondent teachers.

Having run the interview among thirty respondent teachers, the researcher audio recorded the interview sessions and then transcribed them. According to the results of the interviews which have been examined and analyzed by the researcher, it was found that as far as the first research question is concerned, roughly all the interviewees believed that they didn't make use of one specific method in their language teaching practice except for some occasions like the situations when the language teachers had to option just one special method due to the specific needs of the particular learners. Through the results of the interviews, it could be seen that the classroom context was also effective in choosing the method.

The second question of the interview sought to investigate if the teaching practices of the interviewees are fed by an eclectic selection of a number of methods. The results of the interview showed that mostly the respondent do not stick to principles of just one method rather they drew

upon eclectic methods to practice their act of teaching based on particular contextual needs or conditions. Lack of a comprehensive method of teaching English was chosen to be a reason for choosing eclectic method.

The third question of the interview dealt with the teaching practices, and it sought to investigate if the teaching practices are grounded on a number of general principles. In response to this question, 17 teachers claimed that they utilized general principles guiding their teaching action in an irregular manner inspired by the principles of eclectic based teaching due to institutional constraints.

Question number 4 investigated if the teachers ever made any changes in their teaching strategies and methods according to post-method criteria? If so, what kind of limitations they face on the part of language learners, their families, language institutes, and your colleagues?
In response to this question, most of the interviewees claimed that different limitations exist that hinder the implementation of the principles of post method pedagogy. In some cases the teachers believed that language learners do not accept changes. Some other barriers were mentioned by the language teachers. For instance in a case an interviewee claimed that "Limitations have usually been on the part of the educational systems, policy makers that make teachers use only pre-planned teaching materials and methods. Such as textbooks. In order to have a better view of the topic under question, the barriers are presented in the following pie chart.
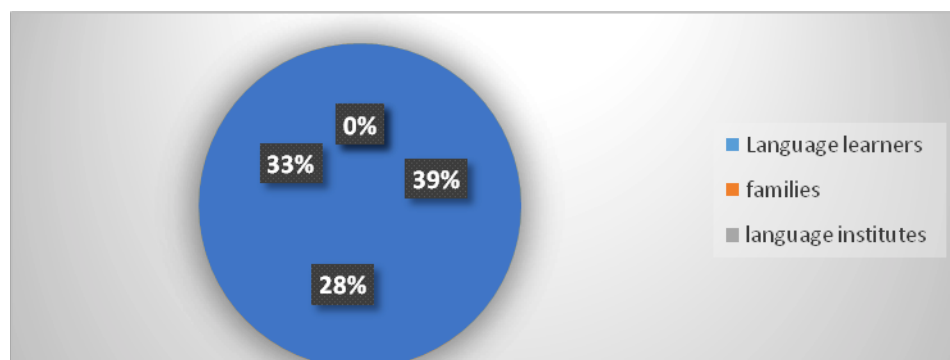

Figure 3: Barriers against the implementation of post-method teaching

According to the pie chart in figure 3, language learners were considered as the main barriers of implementing post method principles (39% of the respondent teachers). This is followed by the language institutes which accounted for 33% of the barriers by the language teachers. Finally, in 28% of the cases, the RTs chose families to be the main impediment of implementing of post method pedagogy in language classes.So This hypothesis that EFL teachers because of some barriers can't just follow post-method based instruction and according to their different materials and textbooks are more eclectic is accepted.

CONCLUSION
This study tried to investigates the current situation of Iran's English language learning and teaching context to see to what extent   post-method pedagogy is perceived and how is

manifested in teachers and learners classroom environment under which limitations. The results of the present study showed that there is uncertainty about the actual emergence or practice of post-method based pedagogy and its tenets. There is a need to high degree of contextualization or exclusion of some parts at the expense of distorting the whole principles or tenets. There are many obstacle from different sides that made the implementation of post-method pedagogy far reach. The results of the present study would be beneficial to teaching theorizers to re-modify their theories. Besides the policy makers of the Iranian educational system can benefit from this study to adapt their educational needs to the reality of classrooms and hasten the emergence of current paradigms in accordance with the international practices. Moreover, teachers can use the results of this and similar studies in making their day to day decisions. Finally, parents and students are also among the beneficiary groups. By the insights that gained from this study, they can have a better understanding of their role as active members in this multi-member investment. Due to the importance of English language teaching in the eye of both the educational system and the society in Iran, the findings of the present study can be significant from theoretical and practical perspectives. Theorizers, policy makers, language-planners, curriculum designers, textbook developers, language instructors, teachers, and also learners and their parents can benefit from the information obtained from this study. In other words, the issue addressed in this study might be of use to two groups of people.

This study can provide us with informative insight into aims and objectives, content and material, methods and activities, books and textbooks, and tests regarding language teaching and learning in Iran. New measures can also be taken in near future to pave the way so that the transition might be possible or accelerated to enable us make up for any imperfections compared to the international trend i.e. socio-political awareness raising and learner or teacher empowerment. This study can also sensitize us to the demand of adoption of a more context-specific approach toward teaching English and making our academic more and more aware of the most recent fashions in the realm of teaching. On the other hand, it could make scholars in the field halt to rethink, and reconsider or re-substantiate their hunches and claims by providing information about an EFL context. Some of the limitations of the research are : 1- The study was restricted to thirty Iranian teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching in Iran. However, the same study can be conducted with other samples. 2-The current research elaborated on EFL classes at state schools or private institutes. 3- A limited duration of time was considered in this study, for longer periods of time the results may be different. 4- Most teachers were reluctant or unwilling or perhaps afraid to take part in this study, especially at the interview phase. They just consented to being interviewed on the condition that they were going to be left unanimous so that their lives were not at all at risk.

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IJLLALW

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VIDEO CLIPS IN SPEAKING PLACEMENT TESTS

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ABSTRACT

This study was designed to investigate the impact of using video clips as an assessment tool in speaking placement tests and also to show the teachers' and learners' attitudes towards using video clips in testing. To this end, 100 elementary, intermediate, and advanced participants (28 elementary, 32 intermediate, and 40 advanced) out of 152 learners of an institute participated in two groups (experimental and control), each group received one type of placement test (oxford placement test for the control group and video placement test for the experimental group). A main interview was used as the posttest and two questionnaires (testers' and test-takers' questionnaires) were applied to find out appropriate answers to the research questions of the study. The results demonstrated that the use of video in placement tests allowed the raters to assign the participants with more accuracy in different levels of language instruction. Another concern of the research was investigating the participants' attitude towards video placement tests. Analyzing the results of the study revealed that the use of videos in placement tests helped the participants overcome their test anxiety, and there existed a significant difference between the scores of the experimental and control groups of the study regarding their speaking skills at the three proficiency levels, i.e. elementary, intermediate, and advanced.

KEYWORDS: placement test, test anxiety, video clips, speaking , and EFL learners

INTRODUCTION

We live in a testing world. Our education system is awash with various high-stakes testing (Cheng & Watanabe, 2004). McNamara (1996) maintained that language assessment is experiencing a period of rapid change. Fulchure, (1999) argued that in Language testing and assessment we test for a number of reasons: to select students for entrance into academic courses (Proficiency testing), place students into appropriate courses (Placement Testing), and to measure their achievement (Achievement Testing).

According to Bachman (1990), in many language programs students are grouped homogeneously according to factors such as level of language ability, language aptitude, language use needs, and professional and academic specialization. Probably, the most common criterion for grouping in such programs is level of language ability so that placement tests are frequently designed to measure students' language ability. In designing a test for placement, the test developer may choose to base the test content either on a theory of language proficiency or on the learning

objectives of the syllabus to be taken. If we want to assess prospective students' level of language ability in order to make the appropriate placement into a language program we may wish to determine if an appropriate test is available for use, rather than developing one of our own. The lack of attention to abilities being measured is frequently more subtle than this, however. Consider, for example, the common practice of using multiple choice grammar tests to place individuals into writing courses, or the use of dictation tests for placement into integrated skills courses. In cases such as these, the mismatch comes not from measuring completely different abilities, but from measuring only limited aspects of the criterion ability.

Luria, one of Vygotsky's most influential colleagues, contrasted 'statistical' with 'dynamic' approaches to assessment, the former although grounded in psychometric principles, inappropriately assumes that a person's solo performance on a test represents a complete picture of the individual capabilities. The latter, on the other hand, argued that a full picture requires two additional bits of information: the person's performance with assistance from someone else and the extent to which the person can benefit from this assistance not only in completing the same task or test but in transferring this mediated performance to different tasks or tests (Poehner & Lantolf, 2005).

One of the most important skills to develop is the oral proficiency. Oral proficiency testing has become one of the most central issues in language testing and with the advent of communicative language testing the role of speaking ability has become very important. Speaking ability can be examined indirectly and directly. Indirect measures such as talking about pictures, transforming the statements, following orders, retelling, explaining , giving short talks and role playing is carried out through quasi-realistic activities, while direct tests are on the basis of activities that aim to duplicate setting and the operation of real-life events, the most usual direct measure is the role of interview test (Hughes, 2003).

Statement of the Problem

Placing students in appropriate EFL courses has always been a big challenge for language institutes. Students who enroll for conversation classes answer a variety of questions, mostly discrete-point questions, which target different components or skills of language. The availability of standardized proficiency tests such as TOEFL and IELTS, many Language institutions world-wide have leaned on their own tailor made tests for the purpose of placing students in the appropriate level of language abilities. One reason for doing so is because tailor made placement test may better reflect the objective of the institute and the related syllabus in the language programs. Even though no one placement test is easily passable from one setting to another, one usual concern among any placement test practitioner is the validation of his or her tests. As it is, an evaluation procedure that is flexible and can be used in any setting or context is highly called for. These tests mostly assess learners' knowledge and the format of the test is usually anxiety provoking.

While importance and necessary, placement testing can be presented some problems. One problem with placement testing is that, in accord with LeBlance and Painchaud (1985), the process of testing itself removes examinees from taking part in their own assessment. During

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many placement tests, examinees just sit and respond test questions. They never asked to assess their own language skills, their own perceived level of second language competence, or their performance on the test. One reason, in accord with LeBlance and Painchaud is that " in participate learners have not been involved in language testing mostly it has been felt that they didn't have a great deal to contribute" (p.673).

Another problem with placement testing is that resulting placement is inaccurate. Misplacement can cause a large amount of problem at the student level, at the administration level, and at the program level. Gaffney and Mason (1983) pointed out that students may become bored and cause distribution to the rest of the class if assigned to a class that is too easy. At the administration level, administrators may face with organization problems resulting from inaccurate placement. At the program level, " no matter how dedicated a teaching staff may be or how impressive a program may at first glance appear to be, inappropriate placement…will tend to undermine staff and program effectiveness" (p.98).

The researcher, as a teacher, has experienced some fundamental placement tests problems which her colleagues and students have frequently encountered. Therefore, this study had the intention to identify the impact that videos had on assessing participants' listening and speaking skills, the perception of students about applying videos and the usage of video helped them to overcome their test anxiety in placement test. Although some new placement tests systems involves some useful ways to improve assessing all four language skills, they have not yet provided techniques and approaches for overcoming basic placement problems and speaking, and importantly accuracy of placement test.

Purpose of the Study
The present study aims to investigate the efficacy of using videos as a tool of assessment for Placement tests. This research helps test designers to create more authentic placement tests by implementation of video and exposing learners to a real situation. Authenticity is recognized as one of the most important issues in language testing. The century of this issue- authenticity to language testing has been summed up by Spolsky (1985) as follows: "in sum, the criterion of authenticity raises important pragmatic and ethical questions in language testing. Lack of authenticity in the material used in a test raises issues about the generalizability of results". This study is going to find out whether or not videos have any type of impact on the placement tests or better to say, whether videos can be regarded as a kind of facilitator in better placement and assessing of English speaking skill with more accuracy by evaluating teachers' perception and extracting all the information about this type of test or not.

Significance of the Study
Although, the use of video as a tool of assessment in language placement has not become a common fashion for the language institutes, many of them might not be well aware of the effectiveness of these. The testing of oral proficiency is an area in applied linguistics in which, until currently, practice has lagged behind theory, although speaking in a second or foreign language is without a doubt the most important of the traditional four skill areas (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). Unfortunately, it is also the most problematical to measure.

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anyhow, over the last decade, much effort has gone into the development, implementation, and evaluation of tools which assess oral ability (Bachman & Palmer, 1981, 1982). An oral test should be a true assessment of spoken ability rather than an indication of the ability. As Fulcher and Davidson (2007) pointed out that the best way of assessing speaking performance is in "the real world".

However, this paper will give an insight to the language teachers of using videos in facilitating the assessment of EFL learners' speaking skill in placement test to see the effectiveness of it on accurate placement. It is expected that the findings of the study will help the test designers and language administrators to know better about the effectiveness of using videos in language institutes. As a result, this study will be a future guideline for the English language Institutes regarding the issue.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Learners who enroll for English conversation courses are commonly given placement tests which are intended to assign students to classes at various levels. The purpose of such tests is diagnostic. Applicants' current language abilities are assessed so that they are matched to the course suitable for that level. According to Hughes (2003), the placement tests that are most successful are those constructed for particular situations. Brown (2004) too, argues that placement tests usually, but not always, include a sampling of the material to be covered in the various courses in a curriculum. Learners who take language placement tests to attend English conversation courses are expected to be evaluated based on the activities and abilities which are practiced inside the classroom.

Harrison (1983) defines "placement test" as a test that is created so as "to sort new students into teaching groups, so that they can start a course at approximately the same level as the other students in the class" (p.4). He adds that placement tests are concerned with the test-taker's present state of general language ability rather than within "specific points of learning" (p.4), and as a result "a variety of tests is necessary because a range number of activities is more likely to give an accurate overall picture of students' level than a single assessment" (p.4). Hughes provides a definition similar to that of Harrison, he states that placement test "provide information which will help to place students at the stage (or at a part) of the teaching programme most appropriate to their levels" (p.14). Alderson states that "placement tests are assigned to assess students' level of language ability so that they can be placed in the appropriate course or class. Such tests may be may be based on aspects of the syllabus taught at the institution concerned, or may be based on unrelated material (p.11).

Video is defined as the selection and order of the messages in an audio-visual context. Videos allow the students to see body rhythm and speech rhythm in second language speech through the use of authentic language and speed of speech in different situations. Videos can be offered with contextual information. In a teaching or testing situation videos can help increase visibility, to give an aural text high contrast and meaning; it can create a stable connection between the materials is learned and the practical application of it in a testing mode; the video can act as a

IJLLALW

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stimulus or catalyst to help integrate materials or aspects of the language; videos can help you deal with language and at the same time be open to a various of interpretations.

Recently, in a lecture, visuals, pictures, perceptions, mental images, numbers, impressions, similarities, animated, graphics, colors, replicas, reproductions, or anything else utilized to help one observe a direct meaning in the language might profit the students by helping to make clear the message, provided the visual works positively to improve or complement the language point. She claims that the photos or videos in the context alone can help to enhance the language, provided the learner can see immediate meaning with regard to the recognition of vocabulary in the first language. In addition, her research suggests that photo can be used to help promote the meaning of the message trying to be transferred from the speakers through the use of paralinguistic icons.

Kelly (1985) also considered three uses of video: as a device of modeling to show the target language functions, a comprehensible display input and a focus for free language tasks and a source of information. She stated that comprehension should precede production in activities that students need to produce language. She considered the use of video as a tool to enhance listening comprehension skills and referred to it as "viewing comprehension skill" (p. 53).

According to Kelly (1985), understanding discourse requires more than listening. Based on Riley (1975; cited in Kelly, 1985, p. 53), "The visual features of the discourse play an essential role in communicating meanings, as the meaning of a given communicative act is the product of verbal, paralinguistic and non-verbal behaviors". Kelly (1985) believes that "It seems clear that by providing language learners with a diet of audio tapes only we are depriving them of the wholeness, the totality of human communication, and more importantly we are depriving them of vital clues to meaning" (p. 54). Explaining that audio tapes are not authentic because they lack the visual that facilitate understanding, Kelly presents video in this manner is intended to focus the students` attention from text to the message and from form to the meaning (concept).

Weyers (1999) investigated with Spanish learners in Mexico. In his research, he studied the speaking ability of learners to produce language communicatively. The results showed that authentic television programming could be rich as an input leading to improved production. The results also showed that listening comprehension of the experimental group increased as the result of being exposed to authentic video. Weyers noticed more confidence in learners` speech and that the learners used more details in their production. The researcher argued that communicative competence has several aspects and being exposed to authentic speech like video can enhance self-confidence and use of details in learners" speech Weyers (1999, p. 347) concluded that his data showed "the effectiveness of an authentic Spanish language soap-opera in increasing the listening comprehension skills and some component parts of the communicative competence of second-semester university students of Spanish". It is argued that authentic videos enrich learners with abundance of samples in target language. Television programs like soap operas which are continuous and let learners to be familiar with the topic and plot of the story and characters can be considered as rich and valuable input. Consequently, Weyers aimed at investigating the effect of such programs on listening comprehension ability of learners and to

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
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see whether authentic input could enhance the output of learners. In fact, his main concern was to measure the oral production ability of learners as the result of being exposed to enriched input in quality and quantity.

White et al.(2000)conclude that video particularly aided the "development of listening and speaking skills, including pronunciation, "and portrayed examples of appropriate cultural use and sociolinguistic use of language. In addition, "students outlined the advantages of video, not the least of which were the affective aspects, reflecting high enjoyment levels and low anxiety, which contribute to language uptake and a positive orientation to the course."(p.174).

According to Zeidner (1998), test anxiety is a set of phenomenological, physiological and behavioral reactions accompanying the concern about potential negative effects or failed exam or similar evaluative situation. As we see from Zeidner's statement, test anxiety is closely linked to failure consequences. This connection can be observed even in (Sarason and Sarason 1990) who claim that when not in predicting, or evaluational situation, the very fearful person may not worry about the risk of failure, embarrassment (shame) and social rejection. But in evaluational situations these possibilities become active. We also need to stress the fact that students suffering from test anxiety do not necessarily lack in intellect or drive. Test anxiety and other deficits associated with test anxiety, interfere with academic acheivement (Everson & Millsap, 1991). At this point, it is important to mention Zeidner's (1998) view of the problem. He is of the opinion that the state of test anxiety cannot be interpreted away by lack of work or test performance, for diligent and highly motivated students also suffer from the effects of weakening. Knox, Schacht and Turner (1993) express that test anxiety contain performance anxiety and content anxiety. Both of these make it difficult for students to focus on tests and perform properly. Vogel and Collins (2002) inquired the effect of test anxiety on academic performance. The students with high-test anxiety as well as those students with low-test anxiety displayed lower academic performance. In addition, those students with moderate levels of test anxiety performed the best.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The current study addresses the following research questions:
1-   To what extent the use of video in placement tests allow the rater to assign the participants with more accuracy in different levels of language instruction?
2-   To what extent the use of videos in placement tests help EFL applicants overcome their test anxiety?
3-   What is the difference between the scores of the experimental and control groups of the study regarding their speaking skill?

Based on the research questions above and the nature of the study the null hypotheses are as follow:
1-   First hypothesis (H0)1: The use of video in placement tests does not allow the rater to assign the participants with more accuracy in different levels of language instruction.
2-   Second hypothesis(H0)2: The use of videos in placement tests does not help EFL applicants overcome their test anxiety

IJLLALW

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3-   Third hypothesis(H0)3: There is no significant difference between the scores of the experimental and control groups of the study regarding their speaking skill

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The present study was conducted in an English institute in Rafsanjan. 8 testers and 100 test takers took part in the study.

Testers

The testers participated in this research were 8 teachers from Language House Center. Although most of them were experienced in administering placement tests, they underwent training before administering the speaking placement test for the aim of the current research, at the outset of the study.

Test takers

One hundred Iranian EFL learners from females at three proficiency levels, i.e. elementary, intermediate and advanced, enrolled for the fall semester of an English language institute in Rafsanjan, i.e. Language House Center, were the participants of this study. The majority of the participants were adults and their ages ranged between 18 to30. These participants were selected after administering Oxford placement test (OPT) and an oral interview at the outset of the research to one hundred fifty-two English learners who registered in this institute and were placed at elementary, intermediate and advanced classes of this institute. Then each of these proficiency levels was randomly divided into two groups. 50 participants were assigned to the control groups and 50 of them to the experimental groups of the study. The participants in the control groups of the study received the regular placement tests and the learners in the experimental groups received the video placement tests.

Instrumentation

Homogeneity Test

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants at each proficiency levels, first, the Oxford Placement Test developed by Allen (2004) was administered to 152 learners at the outset of the study. The OPT test was a paper-based test which consisted of 50 items on grammatical structures and the allocated time to this part was 25 minutes. The test also included 100 three-choice questions on the learners' listening skill and the test score for the listening section was counted out of 200. The administration of this test led to the elimination of 39 learners out of 152. Therefore, 113 participants went to the next step of the study, which was the oral placement interview. The oral interview consists of a meeting in an empty room between the test-taker and a teacher as a rater, who spends sometimes interacting with the test-taker usually by asking some questions for the test-taker to answer. These questions are not standardized. There are, however, three optional interview aids available to the interviewers. A colored drawing of a crowded restaurant scene, a cartoon depicting a busy shop scene, a list of question based on the grammar points and divided into proficiency levels. Also, a chart called "Levels Chart" is available to the raters, it is given to every teacher and consists of criteria in order to place test-takers

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appropriately. The chart contains of rows and ranges of scores and columns to identify any test-taker level and provide a score which will show where him or her is within that band. In this phase, 13 more learners were excluded and 100 participants were selected to take part in all phases of the current study.

Placement tests
Two types of placement tests were utilized in the present study. The regular placement test of the considered institute (Language House Center), which was IELTS test, was used for the control group of the study, and video placement test was applied for the experimental group.

A)   Regular placement test (A sample IELTS placement test):
The sample IELTS placement test (Jakeman & Mcdowell, 2008) was utilized to investigate the participants' speaking skill. The test was utilized for the control group of the study to examine the impact of video placement test on the experimental group, by comparing the results of the two tests, i.e. the sample IELTS placement test and the video placement test.

B)   Video Placement Test:
This test was administered to the experimental group of the study. Likewise the IELTS placement test, which was administered to the control group of the study, with the difference that the sections of the video placement test were accompanied by the presentation of video clips.

Questionnaires
As we know questionnaires are useful and convenient tools for collecting a research subjects' opinions, comments and suggestions. However, the validity of questionnaires will have great impacts on the data collected by them. Therefore, questionnaires must be designed and laid out rationally. In the present study, two questionnaires, i.e. testers' and test-takers' questionnaires, were adapted from the existing questionnaires developed to fit the context of this study. These questionnaires were devised for investigating the opinions of the teachers and learners about video placement tests. These questionnaires were revised and piloted through administrating them to thirty one learners with the same proficiency levels as the target groups of the study and five raters, to establish their validity and reliability.

Procedure
To accomplish the purpose of the study, the following procedures were followed:
At the beginning of the study, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered to 152 English language learners studying at different language courses in Language House Center institute to ensure their homogeneity regarding language proficiency. One hundred thirteen of the students whose scores met the acceptability criteria were accepted at this step. Then, in order for the participants to be homogeneous in terms of their language oral abilities, they were each interviewed and reduced the number of participants to 100. After that, the learners at each level were randomly divided into two groups, i.e. control and experimental, with equal number of participants. The whole process of administrating the placement tests, which were the treatment of the study, to the participants took three month and a half. The raters in the current research were experienced IELTS teachers and had personally received the overall scores of 8 and 7.5 on

IJLLALW

the official IELTS test. Despite the fact, two raters training sessions were held each lasting for 60 minutes to get the raters more familiar with the IELTS speaking assessment descriptors and the process of the present research. The raters would score each recording and reason why they assigned a particular score to each. The control groups of the study underwent the regular placement test of the institute (Oxford placement test), while the video placement test was administered to the experimental group. The two tests were administered in a room in the Language House Center institute, in fall 2014. The room was large and well equipped with a good auditorium system for showing videos. In the experimental group, first, the researcher showed a video clip, which was taken from Four Corners and English Result, to the participants for assessing their speaking skill. The clips were chosen based on the students' level of proficiency and their practical feasibility. During the tests, each test-taker was examined by two raters and they marked the test immediately after it was finished. The whole process of the placement test was recorded. The interviews were recorded to be listened to and rated at a later time. Afterwards, the raters assessed the recordings based on four IELTS assessment criteria, i.e. fluency and coherence, lexical resource, grammatical accuracy, and pronunciation (O'connel, 2006).

The participants in the control group received the institute usual system of placement test (IELTS test). The institute usual system of placement test was to be conducted by a professional teacher. Speaking part had three phases. This part took 11 to 15 minutes to be completed. In the first phase, participants were to be greeted and they talked about their families, their jobs, and themselves. This part took 5 to 6 minutes to be completed. In the second phase, participants were to talk about particular topic for 2 to 3 minutes. Also, in the third phase, a topic was assigned to participants to be discussed in 3 to 4 minutes. Therefore, the total IELTS test time was around 2 hours and 45 minutes.

Finally, the participants in both groups, i.e. control and experimental, underwent the main oral interviews using Top Notch Placement Test, conducted by two trained and instructed interviewers, to compare and correlate the results with the placement tests and see which type of placement test revealed a higher correlation with this main interview, and, as a result, examine the efficiency and accuracy of the video placement test. During the tests, one tester managed the test through explaining what to do, asking the questions, and giving out the materials. The other one just sat and listened. He or she did not participate in the test. Both testers were assessing the participants' English during the test. Additionally, in terms of the testers and test-takers' opinions about the video placement test two five-point Likert scale questionnaires, which were piloted before, were administered at the end of the study process.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The results were depicted in following tables.

IJLLALW

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Raters' Answers on the Questionnaire

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Raters	8	37.375	6.4727	1.61022	30.9023	43.8477	28.00	45.00

As the results of the table show, the mean score of the raters' answers to the questionnaire was counted to be (M=37.375) out of the total score of 45. Therefore, it can ne concluded that the raters, as a whole, had a positive attitude toward applying video clips in language learners' placement tests and they believed that applying video clips could help the learners to understand the test items and performed better in the test compared to the regular tests.

Additionally, to ensure the accuracy of this type of placement tests, i.e. applying video clips in placement tests, correlations were conducted between the scores of the participants in each group, i.e. control and experimental, and their scores that were obtained from the main interview which was administered by experienced teachers after administrating the placement tests.

Table 2: Relationship between the main oral interview and the participants' placement scores

	Pearson Correlation	Sig. level
Experimental group	0.788*	0.000
Control group	0.551*	0.012

Finally, it can be concluded that the correlation between the scores of the experimental group participants on their placement test (applying video clips) and the main interview was significantly higher compared to the correlation between the scores of the control group participants on their placement test (OPT) and the main interview. Furthermore, to ensure whether the use of video clips in placement tests helps the participants in the experimental group overcome their test anxiety, a correlation was conducted between the answers of the experimental group participants on the questionnaire and their scores on the video placement test.

Table 3: Relationship between the Results of the Questionnaire and the Video Placement Test

	Pearson Correlation	Sig. level
Experimental group	0.853*	0.002

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

IJLLALW

According to the results of Table 3, the Pearson correlation coefficient that was employed to examine the relationship between the answers of the experimental group participants on the questionnaire and their scores on the video placement test showed that there was a strong (Cohen, 1998), direct, and positive relationship (r = 0.55) between their questionnaire results and the video placement test. Thus, it can be concluded that the use of videos in placement tests helps EFL applicants overcome their test anxiety.

Table 4: Independent Samples t-test for the Elementary-level Participants' Speaking Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
speaking	Equal variances assumed	.002	.961	.210	26	.835	.143	.679	-1.252	1.538
	Equal variances not assumed			.210	25.985	.835	.143	.679	-1.252	1.538

As table 4 reveals, the Levene's Test result was not significant (p> .05) indicating that equal variances are assumed. Thus, the first line of the table was reported; the *t*-test results showed that the difference between the mean scores of the two groups, i.e. control and experimental groups, at .05 significance level was not significant on the speaking test, [t (26) =0.21, p> .05]. Therefore, it is concluded that the elementary-level participants' speaking scores in the experimental group (who received the video clips) were not significantly better compared to those who take the regular placement test (control group).

Table 5: Independent Samples t-test for the Intermediate-level Participants' Speaking Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Speaking	Equal variances assumed	.058	.812	-3.217	30	.003	-2.444	.760	-3.996	-.892
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.163	26.077	.004	-2.444	.773	-4.033	-.856

First, the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was checked in Table 5, and since the equality of variances was assumed (F=0.05, p>.05) the first line of the table was reported. As observable in the table, the difference between the speaking scores of the intermediate-level learners in the control and experimental groups were significant [t (30) = -3.21, p<.05]. Thus, it can be

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)

Volume 11 (1), January 2016; 89-102   *Memarzadeh, M., & Shariati, M*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

concluded that the speaking scores of the intermediate-level participants in the experimental group was significantly better than the control group.

Table 6: Independent Samples t-test for the Advanced-level Participants' Speaking Scores

		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
Speaking	Equal variances assumed	.013	.908	-4.398	38	.000	-2.600	.591	-3.797	-1.403
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.398	37.732	.000	-2.600	.591	-3.797	-1.403

First, the Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was checked in Table 6, and since the equality of variances was assumed (F=0.01, p＞.05) the first line of the table was reported. As observable in the table, the difference between the speaking scores of the advanced-level learners in the control and experimental groups were significant [t (38) = -4.39, p＜.05]. Thus, it can be concluded that the speaking scores of the advanced-level participants in the experimental group was significantly better compared to the scores of the participants in the control group.

Discussion
The approval of the first hypothesis indicates that most testers agreed upon the effectiveness of using videos in the placement test. According to the results of Table 3, it can be concluded that there was a higher correlation between the scores of the experimental group participants and the results of the main interview, compared to the control group of the study. As stated by Chandavimol (1988), administration of an "accurate placement test is essential" for placing language learners in appropriate proficiency levels (p.3). The result of the questionnaire data was also in the same line with Tatuski's (1999) findings that if the learners watch videos they will be better able to understand unfamiliar words and perform better on a test, since they can remember the context and scenes associated with the words. In order to answer the second research question of the study, a correlation was conducted between the scores of the participants in the experimental group and their scores on the test-takers' questionnaire. The results of the Table 4.8 demonstrate that there existed a high correlation between the two sets of scores (r=0.853). Additionally, the participants' answers to the questionnaire were analyzed (M= 53.785 out of the total score of 65) and it was revealed that the participants admitted that the video placement test could reduce their test anxiety. . The findings of the present study were also in line with the results of the study conducted by Bransford, Kinzer, Risko, and Vye (1988), which revealed that watching the videos was a valuable and motivating experience for language learners. To answer the third research question, the results taken from the findings of test-takers and testers'

questionnaire data were confidential, and the video placement test positively affected the participants' performances on the test. Sherwond, Kinzer, Hasselbring, and Bransford (1987) suggested that video help students retain and recall information sooner and better. Therefore, it can aid EFL learners in different language learning contexts. Finally, it can be concluded that the findings of the present study provide insights about the efficacy of video as an assessment tool.

CONCLUSION

Taken together, these results provided good evidences to conclude that, Iranian EFL learners at proficiency levels of this survey benefited from using video placement tests. Furthermore, because there was fitness between the teachers' opinions on the video placement test and the learners' performances on the test, it can be concluded that the raters could assign the participants with more accuracy in different levels of language instruction. . Furthermore, the results of the raters' questionnaire revealed that almost all of the raters agreed that watching movie clips helped the learners in comprehension and understanding of test items, interpreting the factual meaning of the context by using visualizers, and "figuring out" the meaning of vocabularies and the comprehension of grammar using the movie information. Additionally, the fitness between the learners' questionnaire results and their scores on the video placement test revealed that the test could help them overcome their test anxiety.

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L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING VIA ELECTRONIC GLOSSES

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ABSTRACT

Second language (L2) vocabulary development through reading is a complex process in which various components are involved and integrate with one another. Increasingly recent research has indicated that attention to the potential target items is essential for subsequent learning to take place. Glosses have been used as a textual enhancement tool to direct learners' attention to the target words. Furthermore, some researchers have argued that inferred meanings from multiple-choice glosses are more likely to be retained than provided meanings with single glosses. Another factor considered to be influential for vocabulary acquisition during the reading process is word frequency. That is, the more frequently a word appears in the context, the easier for the word to be retained. The present study was conducted to examine the effects of electronic single glosses and multiple-choice glosses with different word exposures on Taiwanese college-level learners' vocabulary learning in an online reading program. The results indicated that participants reading single glosses with multiple exposures retained the words better. The findings were contradictory to the hypothesis that a task demanding more degrees of mental efforts yield more learning gains. The results could be attributed to most of the target words in this online reading program appeared only once and learners did not have much chance retrieving and consolidating their knowledge of previously encountered words. Implications for pedagogy and future research were also suggested.

KEYWORDS: electronic glosses, attention, word exposure, vocabulary retention

INTRODUCTION

There has been considerable evidence that first language (L1) learners acquire a large amount of their vocabulary through incidental learning, that is, by means of guessing from context (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985; Nagy, & Herman, 1987; Sternberg, 1987). The frequency at which the L1 learner encounters words, and the variety of contexts in which words are encountered, ensure that the learner will come across most new words in different contexts repeatedly and acquire them eventually. However, incidental learning for L2 learners may be a problem for them because of their insufficient L2 vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, L2 learners do not have as intensive and varied exposure to the target words as compared to their L1 counterparts. As a result, recent research has suggested and attempted to prove the significance of the role of attention during the L2 vocabulary learning and acquisition process (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Rott, 2005, 2007; Schmidt, 2001). In other words, these researchers propose that L2 vocabulary learning is impossible to take place without learners' attention to input in the sense of "noticing" it repeatedly due to the fact that L2 vocabulary acquisition is both a conscious and an incremental learning process.

Studies have investigated the effects of glosses as an attention-drawing enhancement on L2 vocabulary learning (Gettys, Imhof, & Kantz, 2001; Hulstijn, Hollander, & Gredianus, 1996; Laufer & Hill, 2000; Watanabe, 1997), and research has indicated that the use of multiple choice glosses appear to enhance L2 learners' vocabulary acquisition better than single glosses do (Hulstijn, 1992; Rott, 2005, 2007; Rott & Williams, 2003). Researchers have also integrated the provision of electronic glosses into a computerized extensive reading program (Ghadirian, 2002; Huang & Liou, 2007). Overall, the results have suggested the facilitating effects of glosses on L2 vocabulary learning. Another factor considered to be influential for L2 vocabulary acquisition during the reading process is word frequency. That is, the more frequently a word appears in the context, the easier for the word to be retained. The present study investigated and compared the effects of electronic single versus multiple-choice glosses with different word exposures in an online reading program.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Overview
L2 vocabulary development through reading consists of various and complex components. The orthographic and semantic properties of a word have to be incorporated into a learner's mental lexicon so as to retain the word (Schmidt, 2001). Learners must also pay special attention to the connections between new lexical forms and their meanings as well as the existent knowledge sources to retrieve the word in working memory for rehearsal (Ellis, 1994; Hulstijn, 2001; Pulido, 2007; Rott, 2007). The researchers claim that vocabulary acquisition cannot take place unless students notice the form, understand its function, and establish a form-meaning connection during the reading process. They further claim that L2 learners need to pay special attention to the target words both quantitatively, through frequent exposures (Hulstijn, 2001), and qualitatively, that is, with more depth of elaboration (Hulstijn, 2001; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999), so as to facilitate vocabulary acquisition.

An attempt to operationalize the construct of attention is Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001) Involvement Load Hypothesis, which proposes that retention of new words depends on the degree of "need," "search," and "evaluation." The Involvement Load Hypothesis assumes that the greater the involvement in a given task, the better the retention. The Involvement Load Hypothesis has attracted increasing research interests in recent empirical studies (Laufer, 2003; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Nassaji & Hu, 2012; Pulido, 2009; Rott, 2007), but none of the studies have attempted to examine its effects on L2 vocabulary learning in a longitudinal study incorporated into a computerized extensive reading program.

Depth of processing theory
There has been a general consensus that more learning will take place if learners devote more efforts to the learning targets. On the other hand, no learning or only superficial learning will occur without sufficient elaboration from the learner's part. The above ideas were first proposed by Craik and Lockhart's (1972) "depth of processing" theory, which postulated that "rates of forgetting are a function of the type and depth of encoding information (p. 676)." In other words, the chance of a new word being stored in long-term memory is determined by the depth at which that word is processed. A greater depth refers to a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis of the new word. They argued that the retention of unfamiliar words is contingent on the amount of learner involvement while processing the meaning of these words. Fraser (1999) also argued that more extensive and elaborative processing was

undertaken while more unfamiliar words were attended to, and more appropriate meanings were derived. In a series of studies, Rott and her colleagues (Rott, 2005, 2007; Rott & Williams, 2003) claimed that tasks that require more elaborative processing behavior consolidate the knowledge of a new lexical form in memory and further strengthen the form-meaning associations.

Though with significant pedagogical implications for the teaching and learning of new words, the "depth of processing" theory has been criticized because of the difficulty associated with operationalizing different levels of processing (Craik &Tulving, 1975; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

Involvement Load Hypothesis
Due to the theoretical importance attributed to the role of attention, depth of processing and degrees of elaboration involved in a task, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) formulated the Involvement Load Hypothesis to operationalize the general labels of attention more concretely. Involvement Load Hypothesis conceptualizes attention in terms of three major task components: need, search, and evaluation. According to Laufer and Hulstijn (2001), need is a "motivational, non-cognitive dimension of involvement. It is concerned with the need to achieve a goal" (p. 14). There is no need if the target word provided is irrelevant to the task. Need is moderate when it is imposed by an external agent (e.g., to use a word in a sentence that the teacher has asked for), whereas need is strong when it is self-imposed by the learners (e.g., to look up a word in a bilingual dictionary when writing a composition). Search and evaluation are the two cognitive (information processing) dimensions of involvement, contingent upon noticing and deliberately allocating attention to the form-meaning relationship. Search is the "attempt to find the meaning of an unknown L2 word or the attempt to find the L2 word form expressing a concept by consulting a dictionary or a teacher" (Laufer & Hulstijn, p. 14). Evaluation "entails a comparison of a given word with other words, a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or comparing the word with other words in order to assess whether a word does or does not fit its context" (p. 14). The kind of evaluation that involves identifying differences between words (e.g., a fill-in task with words given) is referred to as moderate. Strong evaluation requires a decision in terms of how additional words will combine with new words in an original sentence or text (e.g., writing a composition with words in learner-generated contexts). More specifically, evaluation implies some kind of selective decision associated with semantic and formal appropriateness of the word and its context.

The use of glosses as an attention-drawing enhancement tool on L2 vocabulary learning
Research investigating L2 vocabulary learning during reading indicated that learners often fail to acquire a word's meaning because of ignoring or not attending to the word in a text. As a result of increasing the saliency of words, researchers attempt to use the provision of glosses as an enhancement tool (Gettys, Imhof, and Kantz, 2001; Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn, Hollander, & Gredianus, 1996; Jacobs, 1994; Jacobs, Dufon, & Hong, 1994; Laufer & Hill, 2000; Lomicka, 1998; Nassaji & Hu, 2012; Rott, 2005, 2007; Rott & Williams, 2003; Watanabe, 1997). Nation (2001) claims that glossing draws learner's attention to the target words. Learners can learn vocabulary incidentally from either multiple-choice gloss or single gloss when they are engaged in reading mainly for comprehension of the text. The bolded gloss can trigger learners' noticing of the new words and lead them to pay additional attention to the new words, which in turn facilitates their vocabulary learning.

Of the two gloss types, multiple-choice gloss is assumed to be more effective than single gloss in eliciting vocabulary gain and retention because of more mental processing of words and more involvement load triggered by the decision-making process in inferring word meaning. According to research in human memory, the chances that new lexicon be stored in long-term memory are determined by the depth of processing in the encoding process (Craik & Lockhart, 1972; Craik & Tulving, 1975). A learner retains a word meaning if he or she is engaged in deep processing of the particular word, which includes elaboration of word form, word meaning, their context and learners' previous knowledge (Ellis, 1994; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). In addition to in-depth processing and more mental efforts, the involvement load hypothesis (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001) also accounts for the greater effects of multiple-choice gloss. According to the hypothesis, the cognitive search and evaluation activities are essential components in lexical acquisition and retention. When learners in the multiple-choice group are given multiple-choice glosses, they are engaged in a problem-solving task. As claimed by Lin and Huang (2008), "The problem-solving task of the multiple-choice gloss presents an extrinsic need and enhances learners' motivation to assign a concrete meaning to a particular word; the need to assign a meaning in turn leads learners to allocate attention to processing the word by searching for meaning in the context and evaluating their hypothesis on the semantic information of the word" (p. 91). Thus, compared to single gloss, which requires less mental effort and involvement of learners, the use of multiple-choice multiple-choice gloss triggers a deeper processing of words, demanding more involvement from learners and thus enhances the subsequent word acquisition and retention.

As a combination of inferring from the context and attention-drawing, Hulstijn (1992) proposed multiple-choice glossing as a substitute for single glossing. In other words, more than one L2 synonym, definition, or L1 translation was given for each target word, as the distractors from which the reader had to choose the best alternative. Hulstijn argued that multiple-choice glossing not only compensated the limited information provided by the context, but reduced the possibility of incorrect inferences. Above all, the learners still had to infer the meanings of the target words, a process in which mental effort was exerted to trigger a deeper level of processing and thus enhanced subsequent word retention. This effort also involved some degree of search and evaluation—two components of the Involvement Load Hypothesis (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). When processing multiple-choice glosses, learners "first allocate attention to the search for meaning by consulting the gloss options. Next, they evaluate the different meanings and make a decision as to which alternative best fits the target word context" (Rott & Williams, 2003, p. 46). As a result, the use of multiple-choice glosses may increase the chance of establishing form-meaning connections, as compared to single glosses or unaided reading, further leading to lexical acquisition and retention. However, Hulstijn (1992) also pointed out the risk of making wrong choices associated with multiple options, which as a result frustrates subsequent learning.

Watanabe (1997) tried to eliminate the chances of making wrong inferences by offering only two alternatives in the multiple-choice glosses. Three other conditions, single glosses, appositives, and a text without any cues, were used in association with a translation task to examine their effects on vocabulary retention. The results, which were measured immediately and one week after the treatment, demonstrated a superiority of both single- and multiple-choice glosses over inferred meanings without enhancing devices. Appositives did not result in significant learning of the words, as they lacked clarity of connection between the explanations and words to be explained.

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Rott, Williams, and Cameron (2002) attempted to discover the interrelations among the factors of multiple choice L1 glosses, text reconstruction, word acquisition and retention, and text comprehension. Fourteen fifth-semester English native learners of German were required to read an adapted 535-word passage with four target words. All the target words appeared four times in the text, with the first and fourth appearances in bold type. Each successive instance contained an increasing number of contextual clues. A finding on the provision of multiple-choice L1 glosses, similar to other studies with L2 glosses (Hulstijn, 1992; Watanabe, 1997), was that it had only an immediate rather than delayed positive effect on word knowledge, whereas text reconstruction showed no enhanced learning on word acquisition. However, all three different conditions (glosses, text reconstruction, glosses plus text reconstruction) yielded better text comprehension than the control group.

Overall, there appears to be several major findings for the use of glosses in an L2 reading passage. First, there is as yet no consensus whether L1 or L2 glosses prevail. However, a significant factor that impacts a learner's vocabulary learning and reading comprehension is whether the glosses are easily understood, no matter whether L1 or L2 glosses are provided. Second, the saliency of the glosses appears to be an indicator of whether a word could be learned (Watanabe, 1997). That is, the acquisition of words is significantly impacted by highlighting the glossed words by bolding or italicizing. Finally, most research on glossing demonstrates that it contributes to immediate vocabulary learning and occasionally to reading comprehension (Nation, 2001).

Computerized glosses in an online vocabulary learning and reading program
Due to the advancement of modern technology, it becomes more and more common to address learner's attention to specific words via computers. Ghadirian (2002) designed an online extensive reading program, *TextLadder*, with controlled exposure to the target words to solve the following problems: a) the difficulty of finding texts with a high proportion of target words, b) the difficulty of knowing whether a reader has encountered a word five or more times, and c) the breakdown in learning new words because students do not have sufficient sight vocabulary. Ghadirian used the three word lists (i.e., the GSL, the UWL, and the economics specialty-word list) as criteria for screening appropriate texts. The three word lists should account for the 95% text coverage as the comprehensibility threshold (Laufer, 1992; Nation, 2001). Texts that did not make the 95% cut-off point were eliminated. Then *TextLadder* moved on to the sorting process, which sifted through the collection of texts and found the text with the smallest number of unfamiliar words by comparing the words of each text with a pool of familiar words. Once the unfamiliar words appeared in a text, they would be added to the familiar words pool afterward. The program repeated this process over and over until no more unfamiliar list words remained in any of the texts. The rationale for this design, as claimed by Ghadirian (2002), was that the "resulting superficial knowledge of the word attended to will be reinforced during the actual reading of the text and further reinforced by encounters with the word in new contexts over the course of succeeding texts" (p. 151). However, the percentage of words likely to be unfamiliar was high in the first 10 to 20 texts, ranging from 8% to 16% in a 300-word text. Besides, *TextLadder* was unable to control when or how often learners encountered the unfamiliar words again. Above all, *TextLadder* was not applied to actual language learners to testify its effects (Huang & Liou, 2007).

With an attempt to improve Ghadirian's (2002) program, Huang and Liou (2007) selected 16

articles from the computer corpus of a local Chinese-English magazine in Taiwan (i.e., Sinorama) and used them to construct an online English extensive reading program, named as the *Textgrader*. The design was aimed to supplement two major difficulties L2 learners face in processing unsimplified texts: limited vocabulary knowledge and insufficient word exposures. Huang and Liou's study followed the procedure in Ghadirian's (2002), that is, using word lists as criteria for screening appropriate texts. They adopted the GSL and the High School Frequent Word List (Cheng, 2002) as the familiar word lists, and the University Word List (Xue & Nation, as cited in Huang & Liou, 2007) as well as the Sinorama High Frequency Word List as the target word lists. Next, they chose texts from the Sinorama database with a length of 1,500 to 3,000 words. The target words were highlighted in red and glossed with Chinese translations. The words were then highlighted in green with Chinese translations after the first encounter. All the target words that had appeared once were added to the Exposed Word List, a newly created list. To ensure repeated exposures of the target words, the computer searched for a text that not only contained the highest number of familiar words and the smallest number of target words, but one that also contained the highest number of words in the Exposed Word List. The 16 texts contained 233 target words, which had different numbers of occurrences from 1-2 times to 9 times the most.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
In the present study, the following research questions were investigated:
To what extent did the single glosses and multiple-choice glosses affect vocabulary acquisition in an online extensive reading program?

Were the words with more than one exposure better retained than those with only exposure?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants were Taiwanese college-level first-year and second-year students, who have had at least 6~7 years of English learning experiences. Their age ranged from 17 to 19. They were recruited in the low to intermediate General English classes at a university of technology in Central Taiwan, and the number of participants was 30, with 15 for each of the two conditions (see below).

The texts
The ten texts selected for the study were adopted from the free website: http://www.rong-chang.com/qa2/, with 100 free short English stories for ESL learners. The text length was between 150 and 250 words, and the target words within each text did not exceed the 2~5% threshold to make word learning possible (Hu & Nation, 2000). All the stories were narrative texts, thus no expository texts were included. There were 10 stories chosen and students were required to finish reading them with one story per week. All 10 texts were re-typed and uploaded onto a self-created learning website. The participants could not answer the comprehension questions until they stayed online after 5 minutes. The maximum time for them to finish each piece of reading was 30 minutes.

The target words
The target words selected for this study were those from the Academic Word List (Coxhead,

2000). The academic words used for this study were those screened from the selected texts, and the total number of target words was 50. To pick up the target words, all texts were screened by using the http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/~alzsh3/acvocab/. The page automatically appears as a new page in a box with all the target words highlighted after submitting an original text to the website. There were 18 words occurring twice, 3 words appeared three times out of the 10 stories, and the rest 29 of them occurred only once.

Research design

The main purpose of this study was to examine how single or multiple-choice glosses affected L2 vocabulary learning in an online extensive reading program. Two conditions were included: single glosses with English synonyms, and multiple-choice glosses with three English synonym options. In condition 1, the participants read each 10 pieces of texts glossed with some target words and they had to answer some comprehension questions after finishing the text. Figure 1 demonstrates what the first condition looked like when students logged into the website:

Tornadoes in Kansas

    Kansas is known for many things -- wheat, sunflowers ... and tornadoes. What famous story   set   in   Kansas   **features**   a   tornado?

    The Wonderful Wizard of Oz, by L. Frank Baum, tells the story of Dorothy, who gets caught in a Kansas tornado and lands in the imaginary land of Oz. This story has been **dramatized**

    showed

 on stage and film. You might have seen the movie **version**, which stars Judy Garland as Dorothy.
    Tornadoes are storms with rapidly rotating winds that form a funnel cloud. Also known as "twisters," they extend downward from the huge clouds of a severe thunderstorm. The winds that rotate within a tornado usually reach a speed of almost 300 miles per hour! A tornado often sweeps through an area quickly, but it can cause **considerable** destruction. There have been a number of remarkable reports of tornadoes. In one instance, a schoolhouse was **demolished** while the 85 students originally inside it were carried more than 400 feet with none killed. There was also a case of five railway coaches, each weighing 70 tons, lifted from their tracks.

Figure 1: A reading text from condition one in the online reading program

In condition 2, the participants had to click the correct option for each multiple-choice glossed word during the reading process, and they also had to answer some comprehension questions after reading the text. Figure 2 shows what reading texts in condition 2 looked like when the students logged into the learning website.

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Tornadoes in Kansas

   Kansas is known for many things -- wheat, sunflowers ... and tornadoes. What famous story set in Kansas **(1)features** a tornado?

   The Wonderful Wizard of Oz, by L. Frank Baum, tells the story of Dorothy, who gets caught in a Kansas tornado and lands in the imaginary land of Oz. This story has been **(2)dramatized** on stage and film. You might have seen the movie **(3)version**, which stars Judy Garland as Dorothy.

   Tornadoes are storms with rapidly rotating winds that form a funnel cloud. Also known as "twisters," they extend downward from the huge clouds of a severe thunderstorm. The winds that rotate within a tornado usually reach a speed of almost 300 miles per hour! A tornado often sweeps through an area quickly, but it can cause **(4)considerable** destruction. There have been a number of remarkable reports of tornadoes. In one instance, a schoolhouse was **(5)demolished** while the 85 students originally inside it were carried more than 400 feet with none killed. There was also a case of five railway coaches, each weighing 70 tons, lifted from their tracks.

Q1.   features   :
   a. appearance
   b. emphasize
   c points of view.

Figure 2: A reading text from condition two in the online reading program

Instruments
Pretest and posttest
Before the study began, the participants were given a pretest to measure their knowledge of the target words. The pretest consisted of 50 items in total, and the participants had to match the target word with its English synonym and also provide a Chinese translation. Those who got either one correct could get 1 point and 2 points for both answers correct, thus with a maximum score of 100. One week after they finished the reading texts, they did the same posttest to compare the vocabulary learning gains.

Reading comprehension questions
While finishing reading the texts, the participants in both conditions had to answer some comprehension questions. The purpose of designing these questions was to ensure that participants would also pay attention to the content besides the highlighted target words.
Multiple-choice questions on target words

In addition to the reading comprehension questions, the participants in the second condition had to choose the correct meaning for each of the highlighted target items while going through the text (please see Figure 2).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Comparison of scores between the pretest and posttest

To answer research question 1, "To what extent did the single glosses and multiple-choice glosses affect vocabulary acquisition in an online extensive reading program?" the means and standard deviations for the pre-test and post-test in both conditions were first calculated (Table 1).

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for the pretest and posttest in the two conditions

Gloss type	N	Pretest Mean	SD	N	Posttest Mean	SD
Single glossing	15	12.76	2.968	15	26.67	2.697
M/C glossing	15	10.54	2.251	15	22.38	2.845

Then a paired t-test was conducted to examine whether there were any significant differences between the pre-test and posttest for single gloss condition (Table 2).

Table 2: A paired-test between the pretest and posttest for single gloss condition

	N	Mean	SD	Sig
Pretest	15	12.76	2.968	.014
Posttest	15	26.67	2.697	

Another paired t-test was done to compare the differences between the pretest and posttest for multiple-choice gloss condition, and no significant difference was found.

To answer research question 2, "Were the words with more than one exposure better retained than those with only exposure?" A two-way nonparametric ANOVA (Mann-Whitney) was employed to determine the statistical significance of the differences among various word exposure frequency groups (U = 46, p = .038). It was found that words with three exposures in the single gloss condition were the best retained (p = .032).

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The present study examined the effects of words with different exposures in either single or multiple-choice glossed texts on vocabulary retention. The results did not support the involvement load claims that words processed to a deeper degree with multiple-choice glosses enhanced vocabulary retention better, but words with multiple exposres were retained better. It could be attributed to that the three options in the multiple-choice glossed condition might overload the participants' working capacities and thus these low to intermediate learners were unable to process them well during a limited time period. Following Hulstijn (1992) and Watanabe (1997), it is suggested that the low to intermediate learners could be first engaged in the multiple-choice gloss conditions with only two alternatives so as to reduce the risk of making wrong choices on one hand as well as encourage their willingness to infer on the other. As a result, this further minimizes the working load of search and evaluation during the reading process (Rott & Williams, 2003).

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Although the current study supported the effects of incidental vocabulary learning to some extent, both teachers and learners should keep in mind that effective vocabulary learning does not just occur in one learning condition (Nation, 2001). In addition to having students pick up the words incidentally from reading, teachers should also remind learners that vocabulary learning is an incremental process, in which several encounters of the new words are crucial for vocabulary learning to take place. Thus, teachers should encourage students to have more exposure to vocabulary and enhance their mental processing of the words by reading extensively and inferring the word meaning from context. To build up learners' confidence in reading, teachers could also spend some time giving class instructions of the necessary skills, which will help students to handle unknown words from context (Fraser, 1999; Swanborn & de Glopper, 1999).

Another pedagogical implication concerns the necessity of a solid confirmation step so as to prevent learners from retaining wrongly inferred words into their memory. They should be informed not to make quick inferences based on their first impression of the word, but rather encouraged to triangulate their inferences, by checking against the global context associated with syntactic structure and word analysis. With the increasing technology applied in an online reading program, the confirmation can be also achieved by checking against the correct answers right after clicking the inferences.

Glosses can be beneficial in several aspects (Nation, 2001). As learners are engaged in reading, their attention to new words is drawn by the gloss and their knowledge of the unknown words is enriched by the rich context in the reading materials. Besides, the presence of gloss can lessen the time of dictionary consultation, increase the flow of reading process and prevent students from making inaccurate inference or assigning a meaning not appropriate for the unknown words in the particular context. However, some teachers are concerned that students might be lack of the opportunities to practice the inferential skills when the meanings are offered directly in the gloss. To compensate for this disadvantage, teachers can occasionally implement multiple-choice gloss to elicit learners' mental processing of the words in class, and correct feedback can be presented immediately after learners finish the multiple-choice glosses (Lin & Huang, 2008). In this way, the influence of wrong inference can be minimized; at the same time, learners can exert more mental efforts on the new words, from which their vocabulary learning can be consolidated.

In the present study, some Taiwanese college learners with low to intermediate levels were involved to examine the effects of English electronic glosses on their L2 vocabulary learning during a 10-week period. L1 glosses could be used in future studies to see whether they make better vocabulary learning gains. Besides, research could also investigate what would be the most ideal length of period for L2 vocabulary learning to take place with a group of higher proficiency level of learners.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY TRAITS AND COGNITIVE/METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES IN READING COMPREHENSION: A CASE STUDY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS AT COLLEGE LEVEL

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between personality traits (extroverts vs. introverts), cognitive/metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension of Iranian EFL students. To do so, a sample of 98 senior English translation students from Tehran University who all passed Reading two at B.A. level was selected and homogenized through Nelson proficiency test. Eysenk's personality inventory; reading comprehension test and reading strategies questionnaire were employed as instruments for gathering data. Analyzing data through Independent Sample T-test, and MANOVA, it was revealed that there was a significant difference between the extrovert/introvert groups in reading comprehension and extroverts outperformed introverts on the reading comprehension; also, the difference between introvert/extrovert students and metacognitive/cognitive strategies was significant. Extrovert learners made significantly more use of metacognitive strategies of reading comprehension (i.e. planning and monitoring), and introvert learners reported a significantly more use of cognitive strategies of reading comprehension (i.e. comprehending and retrieval) than did their counterparts in the extrovert group. The results can have implications for EFL teachers to determine which reading strategies are more appropriate for students with different personality traits of introversion and extroversion.

KEYWORDS: *Reading comprehension, Cognitive reading strategies, Metacognitive reading strategies, Personality*

INTRODUCTION
Recent research on the subject of reading has shown that reading exists as a complex cognitive activity indispensable for adequate functioning and for obtaining information in contemporary

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society (Alfassi, 2004; Zhang, 2008).Reading is the foundation of all knowledge. Reading in a foreign language (FL) is complex, dynamic and multi dimensional (Alderson, 2000). This is primarily, based on Alderson (2000), because it involves interactions among the readers' interlanguage competence (strategic), personal characteristics (learning and cognitive style, gender, and educational levels) and external contexts (topics, text characteristics, reasons to read, stakes of reading, time constraints).

A large body of research has been conducted to determine the factors that directly or indirectly affect reading comprehension. The early studies were devoted to examining the role of elements of the language (words, structures, etc.) on reading comprehension. Now a great deal of attention is devoted to the active role of the readers in the reading process. It is the reader who brings his/her knowledge to the text in order to understand the intention of the writer. One of the things that the reader may bring to the text is the ability to use reading strategies.According to Duffy (1993), reading strategies refer to the plans for readers to solve problems encountered in constructing meaning from texts. Such strategies are used by the reader to enhance reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failure. In order to study reading strategies more precisely, in the present research reading strategies are divided into cognitive and metacognitive strategies and each of them has been focused on separately.

Cognitive strategies aid the reader in constructing meaning from the text. These strategies are classified as practicing, receiving and sending messages, analyzing, and creating structure for the input and output such as reasoning, analyzing, summarizing, and practicing (Oxford, 1990).

Metacognitive strategies are strategies that function to monitor or regulate cognitive strategies (Devine, 1993; Flavell, 1981).Metacognitive strategies involve knowing about learning and controlling learning through planning, monitoring, evaluation, and the learning activity (Oxford, 1990).

Individual differences are the variables that describe learners and donate each one his/her individual singularity. The aim of probing individual differences is to investigate the variety of intellect, shapes of cognitive procedure, and various intellectual functions (Sadeghi, Kasim, Tan, & Abdullah, 2012). Personality is recognized as a very influential category of individual differences because the individual is often assessed based on her/his personality.

This study through a review of related studies on the relationship between reading strategies, personality traits and language reading performance, aims to shed more light on the relationship between personality traits (extroverts vs. introverts), cognitive/metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension to draw attention to the need for further researches in this domain.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Cognitive Strategies
According to Chamot and Kupper (1989), cognitive strategies are approaches "in which learners work with and manipulate the task materials themselves, moving towards task completion" (p.

IJLLALW

14). Winstead (2004) defined the cognitive strategy as "learner-centered approach that takes into consideration the environment or situational context in which the learner learns, the learner's knowledge base, intrinsic motivation, in addition to improving the learner's ability to process information via cognitive and metacognitive approaches" (p. 30). Examples of cognitive strategies include the skills of predicting based on prior knowledge, analyzing text organization by looking for specific patterns, self-questioning, making a summary, taking notes by writing down the main idea or specific points, translating, inferencing, and transferring (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Oxford, 1990).

Metacognitive Strategies
The basic concept of metacognition is the notion of thinking about thinking. Thinking can be of what the person knows and what the person is currently doing. Metacognition is deliberate, planned, intentional, goal-directed and future-oriented mental processing that can be used to accomplish cognitive tasks (Flavell, 1981). Metacognitive strategies are the test-takers' deliberate mental behaviors for directing and controlling their cognitive strategy processing for successful performance. According to Carrell, Gajdusek & Wise (1998), the first dimension of metacognition is knowledge of cognition and the second dimension in metacognition is regulation of cognition. In the field of reading, regulation of cognition includes planning, monitoring, testing, revising, and evaluating strategies (Baker & Brown, 1984).In summary, metacognitive reading strategies are classified into three groups of planning (pre-reading), monitoring (during reading), and evaluating (post-reading) strategies, and each group has a variety of strategies that require readers' metacognitive processing.

Studies on the Role of Cognitive/Metacognitive Strategies in Reading Comprehension
Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) examined differences in awareness of metacognitive strategies among ESL and native English speakers (of three hundred subjects, approximately half were ESL and half were native English-speakers), with average ages of 21.75 and 19.14 years, respectively, who were studying at a university in the US. They were given a survey asking questions regarding their awareness of reading strategies. Of the ESL subjects, more than half were from Asian regions, about 6% from the Middle Eastern areas, about 4% from Latin America, and the rest from the other places in the world. The findings revealed that both ESL and native English readers in the more advanced groups were applying metacognitive strategies more often than those who were in the less advanced groups. The study also showed a correlation between high-proficiency students and the high frequency use of the strategies.

Salataci and Akyel (2002) explored the effectiveness of instruction for metacognitive strategies in both Turkish and English among Turkish learners. They were interested in whether or not an explicit training for metacognitive strategies would make a difference in reading comprehension for EFL learners. Twenty EFL learners at a university in Turkey participated in the study. They took pre and post tests both in Turkish and English. Observation and interviews were also included in the study, and eight of the subjects also employed think aloud tasks. For four weeks, in a three-hour-per-week class, the participants were taught how to use metacognitive strategies, especially how to activate background knowledge and how to monitor their reading process. Differences of reading strategies before and after the training were found in the study: local

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strategies for reading in both Turkish and English were used less often after the training than before, and after instruction, the use of global strategies increased for reading in both languages. In other words, the explicit training positively influenced the use of the global strategies for the EFL students.

Phakiti (2003) also compared the differences in the strategy use and reading performance among highly successful, moderately successful and unsuccessful learners by means of factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and found the significant differences among these learner groups. The qualitative data analysis further supported such findings, suggesting that the successful learners approached the test tasks more strategically than the less successful ones. In his subsequent study, Phakiti (2003) reported the differences between males and females in terms of strategy use and reading performance. Phakiti (2003) found that although males and females did not differ in their reading performance and their use of cognitive strategies, males were found to report significantly higher use of metacognitive strategies than females. However, at the gender plus success level, no gender difference was found (highly successful males did not differ in terms of reading performance and strategy use from their female counterpart).

Definition of Personality
Personality can be defined as those characteristics of a person that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving (Pervin & John, 2001). It is generally conceived of as composed of a series of traits such as extraversion/introversion, neuroticism/stability, and it is typically measured by means of some kind of self report questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964). These have been used to measure certain dimensions of personality such as risk-taking, tolerance of ambiguity, etc. among L2 learners. Each dimension of personality types represents a continuum; that is, individuals can be screened on the spectrum to be less or more, say, extroverted, but it is also possible to identify their idealized personality type.

Personality and L2 Learning
According to Keswer (1987, p. 45), one of the reasons for discrepancies in research results are the wide variety and dubious validity of the personality assessments which are used. He continues that many second language teachers somehow feel that a student with an extrovert personality is more successful as a second language learner than an introvert student. Language teachers reason that the extrovert will create more situations for himself to engage in conversation in the target language, and this will positively affect the development of the student's proficiency in it. On the other hand, Scheibner-Herzig, Thiele, Jelinek & Kokoschka (1984, p. 43) did not find any significant correlation between extroversion and the second language performance in English of west German high school students.

Rankin (1963 as cited in Farley and Truog, 1970) reported significantly better reading test performance for introverts than extraverts, whereas, Vehar (1968) determined no such significant differences in reading test performance between personality dimensions of extroversion and introversion, although, a small but significant correlation was gained between extroversion-introversion personality test scores and reading among male introverts. Introverts performed five times better than extroverts.

IJLLALW

Millot and Cranney (1976) in a study on relationship between personality type and learning style in reading comprehension found a significant link between personality types of introversion, intuition and perceiving and learning style. Brown (1973) poses that maybe a relationship could be found between extraversion and reading comprehension. On contrary, Busch (1982) on a study using Eysenck Personality Inventory found a significant relationship between subjects' introversion personality type preference and their reading performance.

Babaeikhou (1995) studied the relationship between extroversion/introversion and Iranian EFL learners' English proficiency. The results showed that extrovert learners outperformed their introvert peers.

Astika, Carrell and Prince Moneta (1996) studied the relationship between Extroversion/Introversion and English proficiency of Indonesian university students through non-standard monthly tests of reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, and writing. They reported a very weak negative relationship between extraversion and vocabulary as well as the composite course scores but did not report any relationship with other measures of English proficiency.

Validy (1998) evaluated English language proficiency of Allameh University students by a CELT test and measured their extroversion scores on the EPQ scale. He indicated that extroverts, who are more inclined toward risk taking compared to introverts, tend to use achievement strategies, whereas introverts are more likely to use reduction strategies.

A research project conducted with 120 pre-university students in Hamadan, Iran, revealed that there was no significant difference between the grammatical performances of extroverts and introverts (Karami, 2001). Another relevant study conducted in Tehran with Islamic Azad University students and those of Teacher Training University also showed no significant difference between EFL proficiency of introvert and extrovert students (Farnia, 1993). This study also took other variables, such as sex and subcomponents of an English proficiency test into consideration. No difference was observed.

Research Questions
This study tries to answer the following question:
1.   Is there any significant difference between the performance of extrovert / introvert Iranian EFL students on reading comprehension test?
2.   Is there any significant difference between the extrovert / introvert students and the use of metacognitive strategies among Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension?
3.   Is there any significant difference between the extrovert / introvert students and the use of cognitive strategies among Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension?

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METHODOLOGY
Participants
A sample of 98 senior English translation students, from Tehran University who all passed Reading two at B.A. level wasselected. The participants included both male and female students and their age range fell between 21 and 29.To homogenize the participants of the study, Nelson English language proficiency test (Section 300D) was administered to 98 EFL learners. Thus 73 participants were selected among 98 EFL learners whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean. Then Eysenk's psychological questionnaire was administered to the homogenized participants in order to distinguish their personality traits (extrovert / introvert). Consequently they were divided into two groups "extrovert and introvert". After thisstep, a selected ReadingComprehensiontest was administered for assessing the extrovert and introvert groups reading comprehension ability. Finally, the Reading Strategiesquestionnaire(cognitive and metacognitive strategies by Phakiti, 2003) was distributed for assessing the frequency of strategies used by extrovert and introvert students.

Instruments
Four research instruments were used in this study:

1) Nelson English language proficiency test (Section 300D): This test consisted of 50 items and was used to homogenize the participants. This multiple-choice test comprised four parts: reading comprehension, cloze passages, vocabulary, and pronunciation. All parts were in the form of multiple-choice questions and the time allotted was 45 minutes.The reliability of this homogeneity test as measured by Cronbach's alpha was 0.90.

2) Eysenk's Personality Inventory: In order to meet the psychological questionnaire requirement, Eysenk's Personality Inventory was utilized. It is a standard test of Extroversion/Introversion with three scales E, N, and L standing for Extroversion/Introversion, Neuroticism and Lie, respectively (Ganji, 2001). The Eysenk's Personality Inventory (EPI) is a reliable research tool validated through factor analysis with 0.78 showing that it is a reasonable test. Moreover, the reliability of the test was calculated through Coronbach Alpha with 0.86 showing that it is a strongly reliable test. For the current study, only scale E was needed since only this scale measures the extent of extroversion and introversion. In Eysenk's Personality Inventory (EPI) which contains 24 questions, the students should read the questions and give the first answer which comes to their mind by writing yes or no.

3) Reading Comprehension test: A Reading Comprehensiontest was used for assessing extrovert and introvert reading comprehension. To measure reading comprehension ability of students, three reading passages on the general topic of language were used. Each text contained ten multiple choice comprehension questions. The questions were intended to tap deep levels of text passage, based on careful reading and a more profound comprehension of the text.To check the reliability of this test, pilot test was conducted. The time allotted to take the test was 30 minutes.

4) Reading Strategies questionnaire: The Reading Strategies questionnaire (cognitive and metacognitive strategies by Phakiti, 2003) distributed in this study allowed the readers to make

IJLLALW

strategy use on a 5-point Likert scale: 1 (Never), 2 (Sometimes), 3 (Often), 4 (Usually) and 5 (Always). Strategic readers are supposed to report using strategies in terms "always" and "often" and nonstrategic readers to choose "sometimes" and "never". The amount of time needed to complete the questionnaire ranged from 5 to 10 minutes. This questionnaire was administered for assessing the frequency of cognitive and metacognitive strategies used by extroverts and introverts.

Procedure

At First, Nelson English language proficiency test (Section 300D) was distributed to homogenize the participants of the study. Those students whose scores in proficiency test were one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean were chosen for the study. Then Eysenk's psychological questionnaire was administered to divide the homogenized group into two sub-groups: extroverts/introverts. The EPI distinguished the extrovert and introvert participants resulting 50 extroverts and 23 introverts. Later, the participants took the Reading Comprehension test for assessing the extrovert and introvert groups reading comprehension ability. Finally, the Reading Strategies questionnaire (cognitive and metacognitive strategies by Phakiti, 2003) was distributed for assessing the frequency of strategies used by extrovert and introvert students. The students that participated in this survey were informed that there would be no right or wrong answers to any question and that their confidentiality was secured, and their responses were used for research purposes only. The participants were informed that their participation was entirely voluntary. They would not give their names; only their age, gender, university average and year were required. In doing so, the students were requested to select the most appropriate answers to the questions. Procedure was accomplished approximately in two weeks. Having collected the two tests and two completed questionnaires, the researcher would get back them and data were analyzed.

Data Analysis

Having collected the data through the reading comprehension test, an independent sample t-test was run to answer the first question of the study to compare the performance of the two groups on the reading comprehension test. To find an answer to the second question, which tried to compare extroverts and introverts on the use of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used. Then through running the same statistical procedure (MANOVA) the third question, which dealt with comparing the performance of extroverts and introverts on the use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension, was answered.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first research question was an endeavour to find the effect of being extrovert/introvert on Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to work out the answer to this research question. This section provides the results of this research question. Table1 shows the descriptive results (mean, standard deviation, and standard error of mean) of the first research question of this study which is related to the reading comprehension performance of both groups.

IJLLALW

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the Introverts and Extroverts on Reading Comprehension

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Reading Comprehension	Extrovert	50	68.07	16.69	2.36
	Introvert	23	53.41	13.80	2.87

The mean score of the extrovert group on the reading comprehension test ($M = 68.07$) is greater than that of the introvert group ($M = 53.41$). The two groups are thus different in their performances on the reading comprehension test. In addition, it can be seen clearly that extroverts outperformed introverts on the reading comprehension test. To see whether the difference between them is significant or not, the t-test table should be looked at.

Table 2: Independent Samples T-Test Results for the Effect of Being Extrovert / Introvert on Reading Comprehension

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	Sig
Reading Comprehension	extrovert	50	68.0720	16.69819	3.669	71	0.000
	introvert	23	53.4130	13.80584			

Results of Independent Samples T-test showed that t-value (3.669) for the test was significant at the level of $\alpha = 0.05$; thus, there exists a significant difference between the mean scores of reading comprehension in introvert/ extrovert groups.

To answer the second research question, which sought to find the effect of being extrovert/introvert on the use of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed, the results of which are presented in this section. The following table depicts the means and standard deviations of the extrovert and introvert groups for the metacognitive strategies components, that is, planning and monitoring.

Table 3: Descriptive Results of Extrovert and Introvert Groups for Planning and Monitoring Strategies

	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Planning	Extrovert	46.64	9.14	50
	Introvert	26.43	10.80	23
	Total	40.27	13.48	73
Monitoring	Extrovert	51.78	6.92	50
	Introvert	42.78	6.50	23
	Total	48.94	7.95	73

The extrovert group outperformed the introvert group in both planning and monitoring strategies of reading comprehension. To find out whether the difference between the two groups is statistically significant or not, the MANOVA table below should be referred to.

20

Table 4: Results of MANOVA Test for Comparing the Introvert and Extrovert Groups' Use of Metacognitive Strategies

		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed power
Group	Pillai's Trace	.491	33.80	2.00	70.00	.000	.491	67.60	1.00
	Wilks' Lambda	.509	33.80	2.00	70.00	.000	.491	67.60	1.00
	Hotelling's Trace	.966	33.80	2.00	70.00	.000	.491	67.60	1.00
	Roy's Largest Root	.966	33.80	2.00	70.00	.000	.491	67.60	1.00

The Sig. value in front of Wilks' Lambda (which is the most frequently reported test) is less than the significance level (i.e. .000 < .05); it could be concluded that the difference between the introvert and extrovert groups with regard to the use of metacognitive strategies was statistically significant. However,to see if there is any significant difference between introvert and extrovert groups, regarding planning or monitoring (or possibly both),the Post-hoc test was also carried out.

Table 5: Post Hoc Test Results for Comparing the Introvert and Extrovert Groups' Use of Metacognitive Strategies

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	Planning	6431.34	1	6431.34	68.53	.000	.491
	Monitoring	1275.28	1	1275.28	27.63	.000	.280

Table 5 shows that the two groups were statistically different with respect to both planning and monitoring strategies since the Sig. values in front of both planning and monitoring strategies were .000, which is less than the specified alpha value (that is, .05).As a result, extrovert EFL learners used significantly more metacognitive reading strategies (i.e. planning and monitoring) than did introvert learners.

To find an answer to the third research question, which tried to find the effect of being extrovert/introvert on the use of cognitive strategies in reading comprehension, the same statistical procedures used for the second research question were conducted.The results of the data analysis are presented below. The table 6 displays the means and standard deviations of the extrovert and introvert groups for the cognitive strategies components, namely, comprehending and retrieval.

Table 6: Descriptive Results of Extrovert and Introvert Groups for Comprehending and Retrieval Strategies

	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Comprehending	Extrovert	21.98	6.76	50
	Introvert	33.47	5.59	23
	Total	25.60	8.34	73
Retrieval	Extrovert	10.90	4.66	50
	Introvert	14.52	4.18	23
	Total	12.04	4.80	73

The introvert group performed better than the extrovert group in both comprehending and retrieval strategies of reading comprehension. To figure out whether the difference between the two groups is statistically significant or not, the MANOVA table 7 should be consulted.

IJLLALW

Table 7: Results of MANOVA Test for Comparing the Introvert and Extrovert Groups' Use of Cognitive Strategies

		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed power
Group	Pillai's Trace	.417	25.30	2.00	70.00	.000	.417	50.06	1.00
	Wilks' Lambda	.583	25.30	2.00	70.00	.000	.417	50.06	1.00
	Hotelling's Trace	.715	25.30	2.00	70.00	.000	.417	50.06	1.00
	Roy's Largest Root	.715	25.30	2.00	70.00	.000	.417	50.06	1.00

According to table 7, the Sig. value in front of Wilks' Lambda is less than the significance level (i.e. .000 < .05).Thus, it could be inferred that the difference between the introvert and extrovert groups with regard to the use of cognitive strategies was statistically significant. To see if there is any significant difference between introvert and extrovert groups, regarding comprehending or retrieval (or possibly both), the post hoc test was also used.

Table 8: Post Hoc Test Results for Comparing the Introvert and Extrovert Groups' Use of Cognitive Strategies

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	Comprehending	2082.76	1	2082.76	50.42	.000	.415
	Retrieval	206.63	1	206.63	10.08	.002	.124

Table 8 shows that the two groups were statistically different with respect to both comprehending and retrieval strategies because the Sig. values in front of comprehending was .000 and the one in front of retrieval was .002, and these two values are less than the specified alpha value (that is, .05). As a result, it could be concluded that introvert EFL learners used significantly more cognitive reading strategies (i.e. comprehending and retrieval) than did extrovert learners.

Discussion
The first research question of the study explored the difference between Iranian EFL extroverts and introverts on reading comprehension. The results of the present research (based on Independent Sample T-test) showed that there existed a significant difference between the extrovert/ introvert groups on reading comprehension and extroverts outperformed introverts in this regard. Therefore, according to the results obtained from data extroversion does affect reading comprehension. It is in alignment with those studies concluded that extroversion affects L2 learning (Chastain, 1975; Keswer, 1987; Busch, 1982). However, it is not in line with the studies of Scheibner-Herzig, Thiele, Jelinek and Kokoschka, 1984 who did not find any significant correlation between extroversion and the second language performance in English.

The second research question of the study probed to find a noticeable difference between extroverts/introverts in terms of their use of metacognitive strategies (i.e. planning and monitoring) in reading comprehension. The results of MANOVA and Post-hoc tests revealed that there existed a significant difference between extroverts and introverts. The extroverts outperformed the introverts in both planning and monitoring strategies of reading comprehension. Therefore, according to the results obtained from this research question, extrovert EFL learners used significantly more metacognitive reading strategies than did introvert learners.

22

IJLLALW

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Fazeli (2012) examined the relationship between extraversion trait and use of the English reading strategies by administering NEO-Five Factors Inventory (NEO-FFI) to two hundred and thirteen Iranian learners of English language as a university major in Iran. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between the extroversion trait and the use of metacognitive strategies and memory strategies. The part of the results in this study that revealed the extroverts outperformed the introverts in using metacognitive strategies supports this claim.

The third question of the research tried to explore whether there was any difference between extroverts and introverts in using cognitive strategies (i.e. comprehending and retrieval) of reading comprehension. The result of the MANOVA and Post-hoc tests showed that there was a significant difference between introverts and extroverts with regard to use of the cognitive strategies. As a result, it could be concluded that introvert EFL learners used significantly more cognitive reading strategies (i.e. comprehending and retrieval) than did extrovert learners.

CONCLUSION

Reading is one of the four language skills which EFL learners need to obtain. According to Anderson (2003), reading is the interaction of four things including the reader, the text, the fluent reading, and strategic reading, or "the ability of the reader to use a variety of reading strategies to accomplish a purpose for reading" (p. 8). This study was an attempt to explore the effects of being introvert/extrovert on EFL learners' reading comprehension and cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies. The results of data analysis revealed that extrovert outperformed introverts on the reading comprehension test. Also, results showed that the two groups were statistically different with respect to metacognitive strategies. The difference between introvert/extrovert students and metacognitive strategies was significant. As a result, extrovert learners made significantly more use of metacognitive strategies of reading comprehension (i.e. planning and monitoring), and introvert students reported a significantly more use of cognitive strategies of reading comprehension (i.e. comprehending and retrieval) than did their counterparts in the extrovert group. The findings of this study provide a deeper understanding of strategies use among Iranian EFL extrovert and introvert learners in Iran. What reading strategies EFL learners use in general is a very important point to be taken into account.

The strong link between personality types and reading strategies shows that, in the context of language teaching and learning, this connection should be seriously taken into account. Language learners can be screened before starting to learn a language in terms of their personality type; hence, due to their preferences, the most appropriate reading strategies are to be utilized for them. Effective use of strategies is likely to influence language achievement and lead to improvement of second language proficiency. The findings of this research can help language learners to use reading strategies that are appropriate to the reading tasks and use them flexibly and interactively. When language learners use reading strategies correctly, they find that they can control the reading experience, and they gain confidence in their ability to read the language.

However, the results are not as comprehensive and congruent as they are supposed to be, i.e. one cannot conclude which type (s) of personality contribute more to reading comprehension. In spite

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Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 13-29   *Vahdat, S., et al*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   www.ijllalw.org

of this incongruity in research outcomes, no one can ignore the fact that in predicting students' performance in reading comprehension and detecting their reading disabilities, dominant affective variables like personality should be taken into serious consideration. Therefore, more empirical studies to find more conclusive results in personality and reading comprehension research is still of the great need and interest.

The results of this study can help foreign language teachers determine which reading strategies are more appropriate for students with different personality traits of introversion and extroversion. Teachers can make use of the students' personality traits in material selection, groupings, task instructions, and increasing students' metacognitive knowledge which in turn influences their reading strategies. Dividing students into introverts and extroverts, teachers can have a better insight dealing with their class activities.The most vital implication of this study appears that learners should be acknowledged about language learning strategies especially reading strategies.The application of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies for reading comprehension skill can result in successful learning among learners. Language learners who are successful in their reading comprehension skill might draw on these strategies more frequently than do those who are poor in their reading comprehension skill. For one thing, course designers and material writers could benefit from the present research as it can guide them on how to develop a reading task or a syllabus, based on which students use reading strategies in more depth.

In order to make the study more manageable, following limitations were made: first, the population under this study included just learners in Tehran University and the obtained results cannot be generalized to other universities and institutes. Second, the taxonomy of cognitive and metacognitive strategies employed in the study included only a partial set of the possible strategies students might have used during the reading test. Accordingly, caution needs to be exercised in discussing and generalizing the findings.

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IJLLALW

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Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 13-29   *Vahdat, S., et al*
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IJLLALW

THE EFFECT OF MIND MAPPING AND SUMMARIZING ON EFL READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
The present study aims to investigate the effect of two reading strategies, namely, mind mapping and summarizing on Iranian upper-intermediate learners. To this end, based on the result of pretest, 60 students were randomly assigned to three groups of 20 students. The first experimental group received explicit instruction on mind mapping for ten sessions, the second experimental group received explicit instruction on summarizing for ten sessions, and the third group did not receive any explicit instruction. To test any possible improvement, a posttest was given to all three groups. One-way Anova was done on the pretest results to ensure homogeneity. Further analysis on the results indicated that although the two experimental groups outperformed the control group, the difference between the two treatment groups was not statistically significant. The findings may be useful for language teachers to help students become strategic readers through explicit strategy instruction, reading comprehension, and task accomplishments putting emphasis on learners' involvement as active participants, and teacher's roles as a model.

KEYWORDS: Cognitive strategy, Mind mapping, Summarizing, EFL learner

INTRODUCTION
Students' reading comprehension development has long been investigated for two fundamental reasons: literacy i.e. reading to survive and academic achievement i.e. reading to think. Furthermore, since the twentieth century, migration has increased and expectations form educators have also increased (Grabe, 2009). Anderson (2012) viewed reading as the core language skill for building other language skills: speaking, listening, writing, vocabulary and grammar.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1999), Foreign or second language learners use various reading strategies while reading. They maintained that the learning strategies can be categorized into three major areas: cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective.

The use of language learning strategies was later extended to teaching and learning process of language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Since 1970s EFL or ESL, researchers have begun to highlight the importance of employing a variety of strategies during reading. The second or foreign language reading researchers have long been fascinated by reading comprehension strategies, among all the different types of learning strategies, and the relationships to more or less successful L2 reading comprehension. O'Mally and Chamot (1999)

IJLLALW

have argued that language teachers should go beyond the transmission of knowledge and should empower students to learn skills and strategies needed to become autonomous learners and become capable of taking responsibility for their own learning.

Feyton et al. (cited in Hkezrlou 2012, p: 84) believed that awareness raising of learners' use of strategies may be relevant to successful learning. However, more studies are needed to indicate how teachers manage explicit strategy instruction in reading comprehension classrooms, how they support learners' strategy development and how learners are supported through the procedure.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mc Donough (1999) defines learner strategies as steps taken by learners to improve their own learning. Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as techniques used by learners to facilitate learning and make it more effective, enjoyable, and faster as well as more transferable to new situations. Hence, cognitive strategies are, in fact, mental procedures for accomplishing cognitive goals such as problem solving and test preparation for comprehension.

Oxford (1990) mentioned cognitive strategies are popular ones. The significance of cognitive strategies increases as learners' age increases in FLL. Therefore, learners should be provided with appropriate strategy instructions. These strategies refer to operations employed in learning and problem solving that need direct analysis, transformation and/or synthesis of learning materials.

Strategies first come from teachers, and then learners develop responsibility for learning and using them. The teacher is initially responsible for a relaxed classroom atmosphere, evaluative feedback and encouragement and if learners are well involved in this process, they will be well conscious and employ these strategies successfully (Nikolov, 1999).

In SLA theory proposed by Wong Fillmore (1991), the teacher is accepted as a model. Therefore, the teacher is responsible for the training to use the resources in the best possible way. Hsiao and Oxford (2002) believed in the teachability of strategies and asserted that strategy training would be more effective if it is done by students through tasks which make the use of strategies necessary.

Skimming and scanning

Skimming and scanning are two types of rapid reading techniques. There are steps to follow to achieve the required purposes in each reading technique. In order to skim a text, readers can read the title, the introduction or the lead in a paragraph as well as the first paragraph and the topic sentence of each paragraph. The topic sentence is mainly stated in the first paragraph. However, if the paragraph starts with a question or an anecdote, the last sentence can be more valuable. In addition, one can look for clue words such as proper nouns, unusual words such as italics, boldface, etc. Finally, one can read the last paragraph. Skimming can be achieved at about 1000 words per minute (http://www.aacc.edu/).

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 30-45   *Rezapour Kavishahi, M., & Mahdavi Zafarghandi, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Scanning is another reading technique which can be used to read a large amount of a text to locate specific information. In order to scan a reading text, readers need to keep in mind what information they are looking for, anticipate the form of information, e.g. numbers, dates, etc., and analyze the reading organization before reading. Skimming may first be required so that readers can have a clearer idea of which part of text to read. Readers need to move their eyes rapidly over the lines to locate the relevant information according to the purpose they have, and then they can read the entire sentence they spotted (http://www.aacc.edu/).

Mind mapping

Buzan (1993) defined mind maps as the cognitive representation and comprehension in the learner. He called it a perfect way to help students to express themselves verbally. In fact, in their mind maps students use representations graphically; this may help them in brain storming process. Mc Griff (2000) found that relating concepts to images is a creative way which needs thinking rather than memorizing; another study has shown that students who had the chance to express their learning visually had a 40% higher rate of retention compared to verbal learners (Adam & Movers, 2007).

Summarizing

Summarizing is reducing a text to the main points for a better understanding. The technique helps students to find out essential ideas and consolidate key information, which enables them to focus on key words and phrases in a text. Summarizing helps comprehension by reducing the length of a text and the following confusion. Teachers train students to break down contents into concise pieces. The technique builds on prior knowledge, improves writing and vocabulary and performance.

A researcher examined the effect of scanning and skimming strategies on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension (Khosravi, 2000). The results indicated that scanning strategy significantly improved the students' both reading speed and reading comprehension. However, skimming had only a significant effect on students' reading comprehension. In still another experimental study, Shokrpour and Fotovatian (2009) attempted to determine the effect of raising awareness on metacognitive strategies on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. The researcher found that the experimental group showed a significant improvement in reading comprehension compared with the control group.

In addition, summarizing is a strategy through which students comprehend knowledge and transfer it to their long term memory for retention. This leads students to understand the text, distinguish main ideas and express the information using their words. Susa Kirmizi and Akkaya (2009) maintain that summarizing is a learning strategy that helps students delete minor information to retain a summary of important propositions from texts. (Senemaglu, 2001) believes that summarizing is helpful in comprehending knowledge and transferring it to long term memory mainly because it leads students to read and understand the text, distinguish main ideas and rephrase the information using their own words.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
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EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Khoshsima and Rezaeian Tiyar (2014) investigated the effect of Summarizing Strategy on Reading Comprehension of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners strategies of inference, summarizing and synthesis during and after reading. Although the less skilled readers used inferencing, paraphrasing and repetition strategies, it could be concluded that high proficient readers employed more strategies while comprehending the text.

RESEARCH QUESTION
RQ1. Does mind mapping have any significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance?
RQ2: Does summarizing have any significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance?

The following null hypotheses were formulated:
H01= Mind mapping does not have any significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance.
H02: Summarizing does not have any significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension performance.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The study was conducted in Kish Language School of Science and Technology in Rasht, Iran, in the summer of 2015. The students had just finished studying the last term of upper intermediate (UI4). They had already passed nineteen terms of instruction with the source books "New Headway Series". They were all female EFL learners whose age ranged from 19 to 35, and were mainly high school and university students. Based on the results of Quick oxford placement test and based on the test direction, 60 of them were randomly assigned into two experimental groups and a control group, each group included 20 participants.

Instruments
The researcher intended to investigate the effect of explicit strategy instruction on students' reading comprehension performance. To this end, classroom procedures were explained throughout the study which took ten ninety-minute sessions. In addition, students were interviewed on their attitudes towards the treatment period of the strategy instruction. The study was also quantitative in that the results were numerically reported using different statistical analyses. To achieve the purpose of the study, the following materials were employed.

Oxford Placement Test
To make certain that the participants were at an appropriate level, OPT test was utilized. The test was applied to 95 students who were studying English as a Foreign Language at Kish Language School in Rasht in 2015. The test contained three sections: grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension with a total of 60 scores. Based on the test directions, students whose marks fell

between 37 and 47 were selected and randomly divided into three groups according to the purpose of the study.

Pretest
To set up a baseline measurement, a pretest (test one) selected from FCE practice test, University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, was used.

Posttest
To ensure whether there has been any change in participants' reading comprehension ability, a posttest (test three) from FCE Practice Tests, University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations was used.

Course book
Cambridge English Objective First, fourth edition, also known as the First Certificate in English (FCE) was used as a base for practicing reading comprehension strategies during ten sessions. Nine reading lessons were selected and taught according to reading comprehension strategies such as skimming, scanning, mind mapping and summarizing.

Classroom Procedures
Classroom procedures were similar in all three classes. Here are two sample lesson plans which were mainly much the same in three classes except that the first experimental group received additional explicit information on mind mapping, the second experimental group received additional explicit instruction on summarizing and the control group didn't receive any extra explicit information other than scanning and skimming. The sample reading lessons belong to pp. 16, 17, 28 and 29 of FCE course book called *Objective First* as well as the second test of FCE practice test which was chosen for the purpose of teaching strategies: skimming, scanning, mind mapping and summarizing on the first session.

Session one
Aims: explicit reading strategy instruction: skimming, scanning, mind mapping and summarizing. Teachers' roles: planner, manager, monitor, facilitator, prompter, assessor and rapport builder.

Students' roles: active participants, discoverers and feedback provider. In mind mapping group, students practiced mind mapping on the second test of FCE practice test. Initially, the strategy was defined according to Buzan (1993) and Friend (2000).Then, the first mind map was made and visually shown on the board by the teacher in the class. This was done after students had made an effort to do the job in pairs. Related comprehension questions were also answered through cooperation. Then, students continued the same procedure. The comprehension questions were answered by the learners and the rest of the mind maps were drawn on the board by mainly volunteers as well as other participants; meanwhile, the teacher monitored, guided, instructed, facilitated and assessed the reading comprehension tasks. In addition, the use of skimming and scanning were elicited, clarified, elaborated and used by the learners.

In summarizing group, summarizing was first elicited, explained and elaborated according to Womly (2005). Then, the second test of FCE practice test as the first experimental group was used; the first paragraph of the first text was summarized and written on the board after students had tried to do it in pairs. Then, related questions were answered and justified in the class. The session continued in a similar way while the teacher mainly monitored, guided, instructed and prompted during pair work, group work and classroom feedback. In addition, skimming and scanning were elicited, explained, elaborated and used by the learners when necessary.

In the control group, skimming and scanning strategies were elicited, clarified and elaborated. Students used the techniques to answer the questions on the first test of FCE practice test as used in the other two groups; they reasoned their answers as a class after they had checked their answers in pairs and groups. The rest of the reading lesson was followed in the same way. The teacher monitored, guided, instructed, assessed and prompted when necessary.

To avoid boredom in all classes, students were often grouped and regrouped. They were responsible to discover answers, check them in pairs and groups. Therefore, cooperation, learner autonomy, learning discovery and learner involvement were very well encouraged.

Session two
Topic: "The Virtual World"   Source Book: Objective First, pp. 16/17
Pre-reading
Aims: Activating background information, arousing interest, encouraging critical thinking, and exposure to new language.

Teacher's roles: instructor, monitor, input provider, model, instructor, prompter, facilitator and assessor through the whole session.

Students Roles: active participants, discoverers, feedback providers through the whole session.
Time management: approximately fifteen minutes was spent on prereading activities, forty five minutes on while reading tasks and thirty minutes on post reading tasks.

Task one: *"how far do you agree with the following statement? Computer games are anti-social and violent and their uses are mindless nerds" (Group work, 3 minutes, and classroom feedback 3 minutes).*
Task two: *"what are the advantages of playing computer games on line?" (Group work, 2 minutes; classroom feedback, 2 minutes)*

Task three: *"think of five most important features of any computer games from the list A-H" (Individual work, 1 minute; checking and discussing in small groups, 2 minutes; classroom feedback 1 minute)*

While reading
Aims: Strategy practice such as skimming, scanning, summarizing mind mapping.

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
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EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Task one: "scan the texts and match them with the following items: a. which game is the cheapest? gets the best review?, seems the most suitable for adults?, has the most impressive soundtrack?" (Individual work, 1minute; classroom feedback and explanation on how they find the answers and how much of the text were they required to read, 1minute, feedback 2 minutes).
Task two:

In mind mapping group, students were asked to mind map each text first, and then find the positive and negative points of each game, check their answers with partners and give feedback to the class by drawing their maps on the board and justifying their answers.

In the summarizing class, students were asked to summarize each text into main ideas and supporting details, find the answers and check them with their partners and eventually, give classroom feedback by writing the summary of each paragraph on the board and justifying their answers.

In the control group, students were asked to scan the texts again and find the good points and bad points of each computer game. They were asked to do the activity, check their answers with different partners and finally give classroom feedback and explanation.

The teacher monitored, guided, prompted and assessed students' learning in all three classes. They all had 15 minutes for task two and 10 minutes for checking their answers in pairs and groups as well as providing the class feedback in 20 minutes.

Post-reading
Aims: vocabulary practice and personalization by producing a similar text.
Task one: *"read reviews one to three and find the nouns that go with the verbs a-d, then choose two more collocation for each verb from the box, e.g. a. solve…….. (Review 1)*
(Individual work, 2 minutes; checking with partners and classroom feedback, 2 minutes)
Task two: *"write a review of a computer game, include positive and negative points." (groups of three, 10 minutes; checking with others in the class, 8 minutes; classroom feedback, 8 minutes)*

To avoid boredom and encourage cooperation along with motivation, students were constantly grouped and regrouped.

Procedure
To conduct the study, students who had just finished UI4 from 8 classes were encouraged to participate in a placement test (OPT) to ensure whether they were at the appropriate levels. After having corrected their exam papers, participants whose scores were, based on the test direction, between 37 and 47, were divided into three groups and asked to participate in the study for 10 sessions; each session lasted 90 minutes, in Rasht, Iran, in the summer of 2015.

Firstly, students took part in a pretest to help the researcher make sure of their homogeneity through data analyses. The participants were divided into two experimental groups and a control group. The first experimental group practiced mind mapping as well as skimming and scanning on the first test of FCE practice test for the first session; the second experimental group practiced

summarizing as well as skimming and scanning strategies on the same sample test. Yet, in the third group, the control group, all the attention was given to skimming and scanning strategies and the students practiced them for the first session on the same sample.

All the groups continued practice on the reading lessons of the source book, Objective First. Next, the third test of FCE practice test was given to the three groups as posttest.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
1. Examining the Normality Assumption (Pre-test)
Before doing the analysis, the main assumption of One-way ANOVA, i.e. normality of the distributions, was examined through running Leven statistics.

Table 1: Test of Homogeneity of Variances for the Pretest

pretest			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.780	2	57	.178

The results of Levene statistic showed that the group variances were similar in reading comprehension pre- test (P ≥.05). The Levene statistic confirmed the hypothesis that the group variances were the same (figure 1).

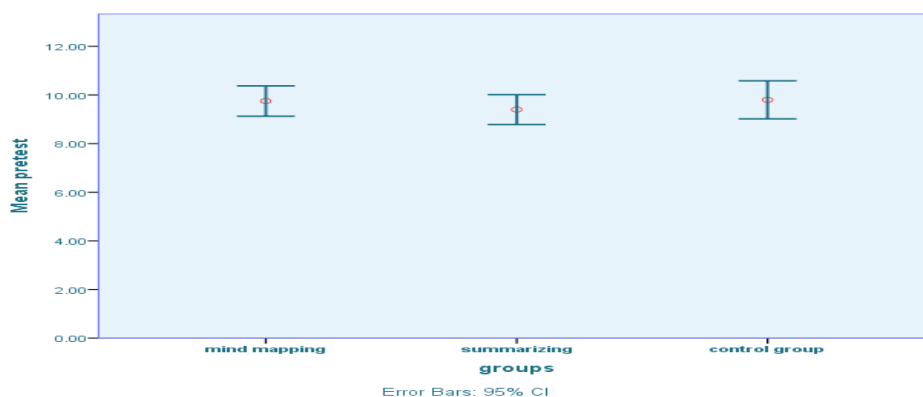*Figure 1: Error Bars for Examining the Normality Assumption (pretest)*

2. Descriptive Statistics for the Pre -Test Scores (reading comprehension test)
At the beginning of the study, all the participants participated in the pre-test. The purpose was to set up a baseline measurement from which gains on the post-test could be measured and accounted for. Table 2 and 3 show the results of one-way ANOVA used to analyze students' scores in the pre- reading comprehension test.

37

Table 2: Group Statistics for the Pre- Test Scores of the three Groups

Descriptive pretest	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
mind mapping	20	9.750	1.332	.298	9.126	10.373	8.00	13.00
Summarizing	20	9.400	1.313	.293	8.785	10.014	7.00	12.00
control group	20	9.800	1.673	.374	9.016	10.583	7.00	12.00
Total	60	9.650	1.435	.185	9.279	10.020	7.00	13.00

The descriptive table displayed the sample size, mean, standard deviation, and standard error for all the three groups at the beginning of the study. For reading comprehension test, the mind mapping, summarizing and control groups' mean scores were ($X^-_{\text{mind mapping group}}$ =9.75), ($X^-_{\text{summarizing group}}$ =9.40) and ($X^-_{\text{control group}}$ =9.80) respectively, and they varied some points around their average. The mean score of the control group was (.05) points higher than that of the mind mapping group and (.40) points higher than summarizing group. Furthermore, the mean score of mind mapping group was (.35) points higher than summarizing group. However, the degree of variation of the scores for the control group A (SD $_{\text{control group}}$ = 1.67) was a little higher than the extent of dispersion of scores around the mean score for the summarizing and mind mapping groups (SD $_{\text{mind mapping group}}$ =1.33; SD $_{\text{summarizing group}}$ = 1.31). The following table examines whether these differences in the mean scores of the three groups were statistically significant prior to the introduction of the specific treatment.

Table 3: One-way ANOVA for the Pre- Test Scores of the Control and Experimental Groups

ANOVA pretest scores	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.900	2	.950	.452	**.638**
Within Groups	119.750	57	2.101		
Total	121.650	59			

Based on Table 3, there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the three groups in pre-test of reading comprehension (p≥0.05). In other words, the groups were almost at the same level of proficiency in terms of their reading comprehension skill at the beginning of the study before introducing the specific treatment to the experimental groups. The following figure illustrates the three groups' performance on pre-test of reading comprehension.
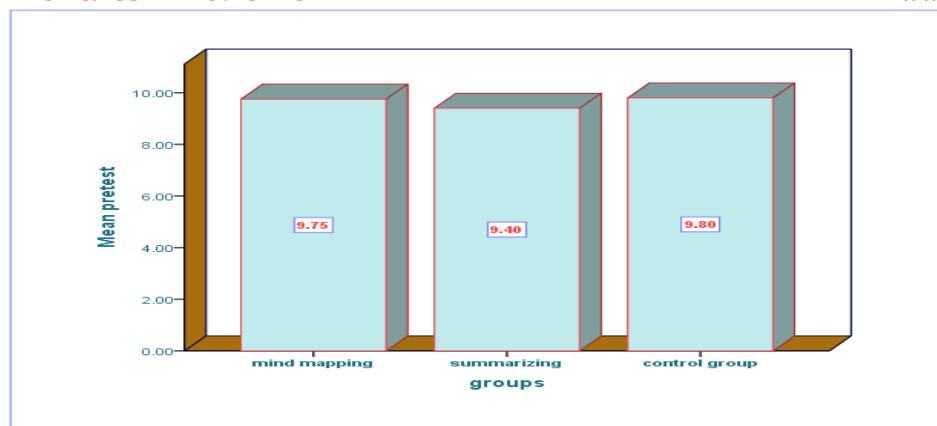
IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)

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EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Figure 2: the Three Groups' Performance on Pretest of Reading Comprehension Test

To answer the research questions, One-Way ANOVA procedure produced a one-way analysis of variance for the quantitative dependent variable that was post- reading comprehension performance by the independent variable (types of cognitive strategy). ANOVA was used to test the hypothesis that the means of the three groups were identical on reading comprehension post-test. Since analysis of variance is sensitive to deviation from normality, the equality of the variances for the three groups was examined for the results of the posttest, too. It was assumed that each group was an independent random sample from a normal population. To test this assumption, Levene's homogeneity of variance test was done on the results of the post-test.

Table 4: Test of Homogeneity of Variances for the Post Test Scores

posttest			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.485	2	57	.618

Thus, the important first step in the analysis of variance indicated that the variances of the three groups were equivalent for the post-test of reading comprehension (sig=.618 ≥0.05). After confirming the homogeneity of variances, ANOVA was done on the results of the reading comprehension post-test. The descriptive statistics for the reading comprehension posttest is presented in the following table:

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics for the Posttest Scores

	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Mind mapping	20	14.10	1.25	.28	13.51	14.68	11.00	16.00
Summarizing	20	14.40	1.14	.25	13.86	14.93	12.00	17.00
control group	20	10.20	1.36	.30	9.56	10.83	8.00	12.00
Total	60	12.90	2.28	.29	12.30	13.49	8.00	17.00

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)

Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 30-45   *Rezapour Kavishahi, M., & Mahdavi Zafarghandi, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Table 6: ANOVA for the Results of the Reading comprehension Test (Post-Test)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	219.600	2	109.800	69.695	.000
Within Groups	89.800	57	1.575		
Total	309.400	59			

The results of the post-test showed that the Mean of the *(mind mapping group)* = 14.10, *(summarizing group)* Mean = 14.40, *(control group)* and Mean = 10.20, significantly differed. The significance value of the *F* test in the ANOVA table was less than (.05). Thus, the hypothesis that average assessment scores of the reading comprehension test (post-test) were equal across the three groups was rejected (F 2, 57= 69.695, Sig. = .000≤.05).

The following figure illustrates the mean plot for the results of the reading comprehension posttest.
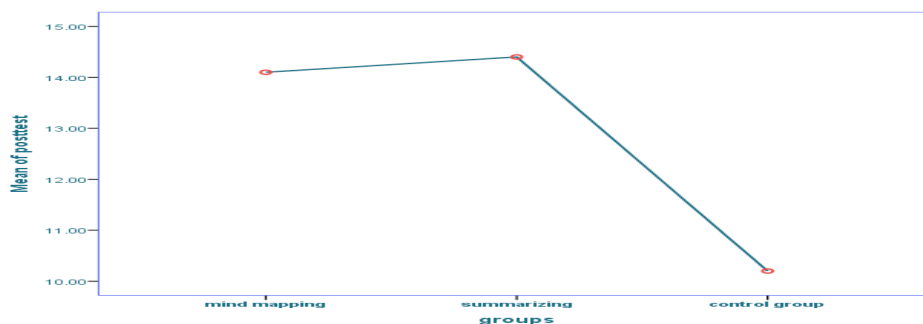

Figure 3: Mean Plot for the Results of the Reading comprehension (Post Test)

In general, *F* statistics established that there was statistically a significant difference between the three groups' means, and means plots revealed the position of these differences. Participants of the summarizing strategy group outperformed their counterparts, namely, mind mapping group and the control group. After it was shown that the groups differed in some way, post- hoc test revealed more about the structure of the differences. Before performing the analysis of variance, the means and standard errors were graphed.
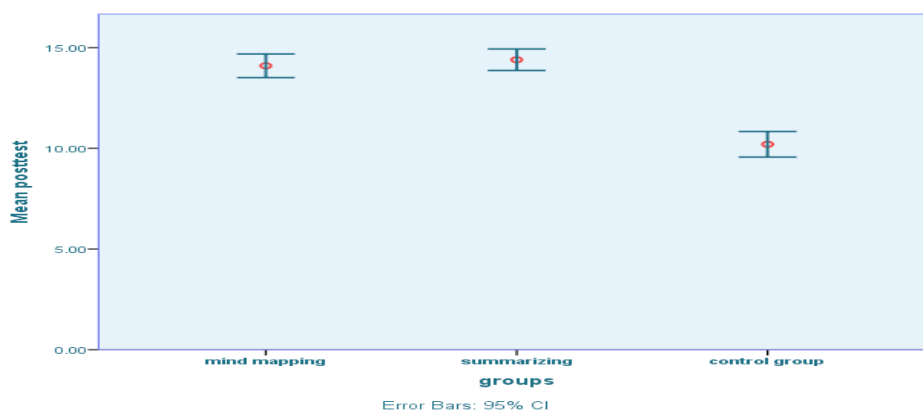

Figure 4: Error Bars for the Results of the Reading Comprehension Test (posttest)

40

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 30-45   *Rezapour Kavishahi, M., & Mahdavi Zafarghandi, A*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Table 7: Multiple Comparisons for the Results of the Posttest

Scheffe						
(I) groups	(J) groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
mind mapping	Summarizing	-.30000	.39692	.753	-1.2977	.6977
	control group	3.90000*	.39692	.000	2.9023	4.8977
Summarizing	mind mapping	.30000	.39692	.753	-.6977	1.2977
	control group	4.20000*	.39692	.000	3.2023	5.1977
control group	mind mapping	-3.90000*	.39692	.000	-4.8977	-2.9023
	Summarizing	-4.20000*	.39692	.000	-5.1977	-3.2023
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.						

The highest mean difference was found between "*summarizing group*" and "*control group*" with mean difference of (4.20).   On the other hand, the lowest mean difference was reported for "*summarizing group*" and "*mind mapping group*" (mean difference= .30).

As shown in Table 7, "*summarizing group*" outweighed the other two groups in terms of their reading comprehension performance (mean $_{summarizing\ group}$ =14.40; *SD* = 1.14).

In the second place, "*mind mapping group*" performed better than "*control group*" (mean $_{mind\ mapping\ group}$ =14.10; *SD* = 1.25). Finally, the "*control group's*" performance was lower than that of the other two groups (mean $_{control\ group}$ = 10.20; *SD* = 1.36). The following figure illustrates the performance of the three groups in posttest.
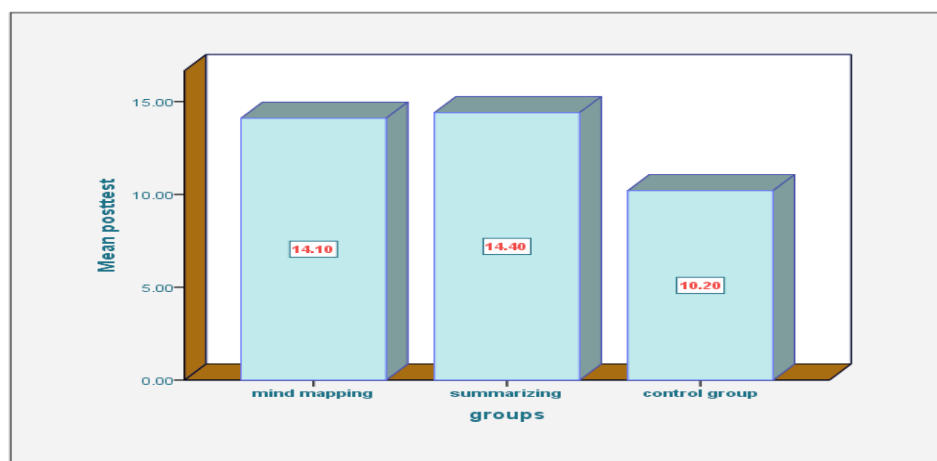

Figure 5: The Groups' Performances on Reading comprehension Test (Post-Test)

In order to investigate the students' possible gradual development within groups, three paired t-tests were also run, which showed the subjects' progress in pre-test and post-test shown in Tables 8.

41

IJLLALW

Table 8: Statistics for the Pre and Post Test Scores of Reading comprehension Test

		Posttest (mind mapping group)	Pretest (mind mapping group)	Posttest (summarizing group)	Pretest (summarizing group)	posttest (control group)	Pretest (control group)
N	Valid	20	20	20	20	20	20
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		14.10	9.75	14.40	9.40	10.20	9.80
Median		14.50	9.00	14.50	9.50	10.00	10.00
Mode		15.00	9.00	15.00	10.00	10.00[a]	11.00
Std. Deviation		1.25	1.33	1.14	1.31	1.36	1.67
Variance		1.56	1.77	1.30	1.72	1.85	2.80
Skewness		-.922	.954	.038	.087	-.262	-.324
Std. Error of Skewness		.512	.512	.512	.512	.512	.512
Kurtosis		.472	.327	.622	.500	-1.002	-1.250
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.992	.992	.992	.992	.992	.992
Range		5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	4.00	5.00
Minimum		11.00	8.00	12.00	7.00	8.00	7.00
Maximum		16.00	13.00	17.00	12.00	12.00	12.00
Sum		282.00	195.00	288.00	188.00	204.00	196.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

The mean scores of "*mind mapping group*" improved from (M= 9.75) in pre- test to (M= 14.10) in post- test. For the "*summarizing group*" it changed from (M= 9.40) in pre- test to (M=14.40) in posttest, and finally, the mean of the "*control group*" changed from (M= 9.80) in pre- test to (M= 10.20) in post- test on the reading comprehension test.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS
The main purpose of the current study was to figure out the effect of two reading techniques including the summarizing and mind mapping on upper-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension. The findings indicated that the current study put emphasis on the importance of these two techniques in language classrooms. Furthermore, current study advocated the importance of students' strategy learning. In fact, as (Novak, 2010) argues, "the central purpose of education is to empower learners to take charge of their own meaning making (p. 21)" and learning strategies such as mind mapping and summarizing are strong tools to serve such requirements.

It is important that learners know how to learn. Thus, new theories need to be devised for language learning to help us understand the nature of learning and learning to learn better. This is possible by more investigation in the related strategy areas.

The current study tried to put emphasis on the crucial role of the learners by their strong involvement as focused by many authorities such as (McDonough & Oxford, 1999). In addition, the research highlighted the role of the teachers as a model and task manager as recommended by

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(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 30-45   *Rezapour Kavishahi, M., & Mahdavi Zafarghandi, A*
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other authorities such as Filmore and Nicolov (1991) and Feyton., et al. cited in Khezlou (2012). The pedagogical implications are as follows:

First, there is growing evidence that strategy instruction can be fruitful and valuable to many students. Language teachers can implement strategy instruction into their lesson plans. It is suggested that language learning textbooks be strategy- based.

Second, it is not enough to ask the teachers to conduct strategy teaching in their classrooms. Teachers need to help and raise awareness in the area. Teachers' training courses, accessing published material about strategy instruction, and keeping in contact with strategy specialists can be useful.

Finally, it is very important to adjust the instruction to the learners' needs. Teachers need to know, first, about the current preferences of strategies among their students. If this is carried out efficiently, the selection of which strategies to work on could be facilitated based on the needs of the students.

Limitations of the Study
This study has a number of restrictions which are presented as follows:
1-This study was conducted among the upper-intermediate learners. Any conclusion drawn is based on this population and caution should be exercised to make any further generalization.
2- Time and amount of practice can be used more effectively. As for mind mapping and summarizing techniques, the teacher can encourage the students by providing them with other reading passages to practice and practice in and out of the classroom.
3- This study was carried out during ten sessions in a language institute. Due to time limitations, the research needs to be conducted in a longer period of time and to include even longitudinal studies to shed light on how the techniques can help language learners in their reading skill.

Recommendations for Further Research
Reading has always been explained and defined as one of the most useful skills to learn a language. Research is abundant in this skill and many researchers examined different strategies and techniques to improve this ability among the language learners. More specifically, summarizing and mind mapping beside skimming and scanning are the techniques which can be beneficial to enhance reading skill. In light of the present study, certain pedagogical implications can be proposed. First, EFL instructors should integrate semantic mapping and summarizing strategy instruction to their EFL/ESL classes in order to improve comprehension and enhance reading speed. Based on the results of the present study, the following suggestions can be proposed:

1-Instruction on different types of mind mapping and summarizing should be operationalized and implemented by second language instructors. As Macalister (2010) suggests, it is likely that a reading course , of itself, may not be sufficient to enhance and maintain reading speed. Thus, the challenge for teachers is to decide how best to reinforce the reading gains through techniques like summarizing and mind mapping.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
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2-Second, the techniques of mind mapping and summarizing can be used in textbooks and language learning materials in the form of reading practices and exercises. It is suggested that material designers and English book compilers apply such techniques.

3-Third, since the result of the present study showed a statistically significant effect of the two reading techniques, it is proposed that more research be conducted on other language skills and areas like writing or listening comprehension to find out the potential effects of these techniques.

4- Finally, other techniques can be implemented and experimented in order to find out how they can affect language skills like reading and they can be compared against each other. This helps both researchers and language teachers to gain insight which can be more beneficial for language learners.

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IJLLALW

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THE COMPARATIVE EFFECT OF PORTFOLIO APPROACH AND GENRE-BASED INSTRUCTION ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS` WRITING ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

The current study is an attempt to investigate the comparative effect of portfolio approach and genre-based instruction on Iranian English Foreign Language learners' writing achievement. To fulfill this purpose, 90 Iranian upper-intermediate EFL language learners from among a total number of 120 learners studying English at English Language institute in Tehran were considered as the participants. Participants including males and females between 15 to 30 years old were divided into two experimental groups and one control group. In order to assure about the homogeneity of students a pre-piloted Preliminary English Test in terms of their English proficiency in general and writing ability in particular was administered. During the course, the researcher used portfolio approach in first experimental group, and genre-based instruction in second experimental group for 20 successive sessions. Each control group and experimental groups contain 30 learners. Finally, a piloted PET writing as a posttest measuring their writing achievement in experimental groups and control group was administered. Two research questions and two null hypotheses were tested through the ANOVA (Analysis of variance) and Post Hoc. According to ANOVA statistical analysis, it was revealed that portfolio approach and genre-based instruction significantly improve EFL learners' writing achievement in both experimental groups. According to Post hoc scheffe, it was however revealed that genre-based instruction in comparison to portfolio approach has a more significant effect on writing achievement among Iranian EFL learners. The findings of this study may offer some pedagogical implications for the EFL teachers. They can use portfolios as well to document their reflections, and performance, and for EFL language learners, this method of instruction enabled students to take control of their own learning, It creates an opportunity for them to take responsibility for their learning. They assess themselves, reflect, monitor and communicate their own progress.

KEYWORDS: Genre, Genre-based instruction, Portfolio, Portfolio approach, Writing, Students` Achievement, Explanatory writing, Journals and letters writing, Narrative writing, Persuasive writing

IJLLALW

INTRODUCTION

Language skills are categorized as either receptive or productive; listening and reading are the receptive ones, and speaking and writing are the productive ones. The teaching of writing in EFL has seen dramatic changes in the last 20 years that have led to paradigm shifts in the field. There have, over time, been numerous approaches to the teaching of writing. Such debate very often generates conflicting views of teaching writing. Hence, as noted by researchers like Cumming (1998) and Matsuda (1999), L2 practitioners are still in search of a coherent, comprehensive theory of the teaching of writing. As process writing pedagogies gradually became a mainstream for teaching composition in the ESL/EFL classrooms, interest concerning the composing process of ESL/EFL writers has increased.

Definition of Writing

Writing is a process of putting thought or ideas in words into a sequence of words that is combined into sentences in the form of paragraph (Shimo, 2003).

Writing as defined by Rivers (1981) is the ″act of putting in conventional graphic form what has been spoken″ (p.242). For Byrne (1988), ″writing involves the conventional arrangement of letters into words, and words into sentences that need to flow smoothly to form a coherent whole (p. 1).

Darayseh (2003) noted that teaching writing no longer means simply having students do grammar exercises in writing or getting writing which is free from grammar, punctuation and spelling mistakes, instead, we are after writing about what students are interested in and what they really want to communicate to the reader, and how they reach their final writing products.

Writing can take many forms, including anything from a shopping list, acting as an aide-memoire, through letters, both formal and informal, to academic texts like this essay. Each type of writing displays a variety of features which ″can be observed within the sentence at the level of grammar, and beyond the sentence at the level of text structure.″ (Nunan, 1999: p. 275) Therefore, each type of writing requires more or less skill, and the more complex the writing, the more essential writing skills are.

Approaches to Teaching Second Language Writing

Teaching of writing can take different orientations, each stressing a different aspect. Stress can be laid on the final product, on the process writers go through, or on a particular genre. Three approaches seem to be the prevailing ones in teaching writing: the product, process, and genre-based approaches (Silva, 1990). They have come and gone and in spite of these changes writing is still a difficult task for learners and teachers and researchers are still dissatisfied with these approaches.

The Product Approach

A product approach is a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually is presented and analyzed at an early stage (Silva, 1990).

IJLLALW

Badger and White (2000, p. 153) point to Pincas (1982) for ″one of the most explicit descriptions of product approach,″ they cite her view that writing is ″primarily about linguistic knowledge, with attention focused on the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax and cohesive devices.″

In the product approach, the main goal is to gain accuracy by practicing the target language patterns. Writing focuses on achievement of linguistic competence, and learning to write is a process of reinforcing how to apply grammatical rules correctly through given texts (Reimes, 1983).

Definition of Process Approach

Process writing has been one of the most popular ways to teach writing in ESL/EFL situations. According to Susser (1994), from the early twentieth century, process began to appear in L1 composition literature, influenced by John Dewey′s idea that learning is a process. Since then, the term has been frequently used for discussion of writing theories, writing pedagogies, and writing research. Process is used to mean the writing process itself. In this sense, writing, the writing process, and composing all can be considered synonymous terms, which implies that writing does not consist of one but various processes. Kroll (2001) defines process approach as follows:

The ″process approach″ serves today as an umbrella term for many types of writing courses .... What the term captures is the fact that student writers engage in their writing tasks through a cyclical approach rather than a single-shot approach. They are not expected to produce and submit complete and polished responses to their writing assignments without going through stages of drafting and receiving feedback on their drafts, be it from peers and/or from the teacher, followed by revision of their evolving texts. (pp. 220-221).

The Genre Approach

At the heart of the approach therefore is the view that writing pedagogies should offer students explicit and systematic explanations of the ways language functions in social contexts (Hyland, 2003). Swales (1990), describes genre as a class of communicative events. He further explains that the members of the communicative events share some set of communicative purposes which are recognized by the expert members.

Badger and White (2000, p. 155) argue that genre theory is ″an extension of the product approaches″. The similarities being that both see writing as ″predominantly linguistic″. They argue that genre theory differs from product approaches, because it admits that the writing ″varies with the social context in which it is produced.″ Genre analysts, they suggest, believe there are several elements of a genre which will determine the language chosen in writing. These are primarily the ″purpose″ of the writing but also ″the subject matter, the relationships between the writer and the audience, and the pattern of organization″ (p. 155). They mention that the role of the teacher therefore, is to provide model language and to facilitate the learners′ understanding of the purpose and context of the writing.

IJLLALW

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Definition of Portfolios

The Oxford Advanced Learner′s Dictionary defines portfolio as ″a thin flat case used for carrying documents, drawings etc.″ (p.981)

Portfolio is defined as a collection of items that reveal different aspects of an individual child's growth and development over time (Shores &Grace, 1998).

Portfolios have been classified in many ways. As a purposeful collection of student work, portfolios show effort, progress, achievement, and self-reflection in one or more areas (Paulson & Paulson, 1991). Paulson, Paulson, and Meyer (1991) described portfolios as an intersection of instruction and assessment. A portfolio includes information regarding the process of development and a narration made on the part of the students about the learning that took place or is taking place. Materials in the portfolio can represent the whole learning content (Gottlieb, 1995; Yueh, 1999).In the context of writing instruction and assessment, a portfolio can be defined as ″a collection of texts the writer has produced over a defined period of time″ (Hamp-Lyons, 1991, p. 262) and the collection may consist of ″selected but not necessarily polished or finished pieces″ (Privette, 1993, p. 60). There are two major types of portfolio models; one being portfolios that include every work the student has produced, the other being portfolios that include only selected samples of student work. These samples may be student or teacher designated in accordance with the course objectives. Portfolios can represent language performances in different genres with or without drafts revisions and finished products (Hyland, 2003).

Portfolios in the Process Writing Classroom

Keeping portfolios, collections of information about a student teacher's abilities gained in different contexts over time (Kocoglu, 2008) was introduced in teacher education in the 1980s (Lyons, 1998 as cited in Kocoglu 2008); and since then, there has been an increasing interest in using it as an educational tool (Loughran & Corrigan, 1995 as cited in Kocoglu, 2008).

Portfolios have been incorporated in the writing classroom and performed significant roles for facilitating writing instruction as well as assessing students' writing. According to Lombardi (2008), in the mid-1980s, today′s portfolios emerged from requiring students to submit collections with several genres in order to exit a writing program instead of requiring students to take an exam. This requirement can be interpreted as a new focus on the process of learning. Rafik-Galea(2004) argues that writing portfolios help students develop themselves as writers. Portfolios can show the writing process from incubating ideas to writing the final draft. Substantial revisions and re-writings can show the process of writers′ developing their ideas. This feature of portfolios is directly related to the characteristics of the process writing instruction.

Portfolio Approach

In recent years, portfolios have been utilized for the same purposes, as an assessment instrument and as part of activities to improve students' foreign language skills. Portfolios provide an opportunity for English as a Foreign / Second language (EFL/ESL) learners to monitor their own progress and take responsibility for meeting goals (Murphy, 1999). By documenting growth over

IJLLALW

time through a systematic collection of their work, portfolios enable learners to see possibilities for reflection, redirection, and confirmation of their own learning efforts (O′Malley & Pierce, 1996).

The implementation of a portfolio instruction system in many classrooms today is of great interest to teachers and researchers at every level of education. Murphy (1999), states that they are implemented in classrooms in order to accomplish various goals. These goals range from providing students with a sense of ownership, motivation, accomplishment to assessing curriculum needs for demonstrating competency. Because of the number of goals associated with the implementation of portfolios, Murphy categorized them into three groups: "teaching tools, professional development, and assessment purposes" (p. 4).

Genre-Based Instruction

The introduction of genre pedagogies is also a response to the still widespread emphasis on a planning-writing-reviewing framework which focuses learners on strategies for writing rather than on the linguistic resources they need to express themselves effectively (Feez, 2002; Hasan, 1996).

The genre approaches present ″ linguistic and rhetorical forms in an integrated way within a context because writing occurs in particular cultural and social contexts″ (Hyland, 2007:P.5).The structural features that genres are made up of include both standards of organization structure and linguistic features. Standards of organizational structure refer to how the text is sequenced. For instance, Hammond (1992, as cited in Paltridge, 1996) described the common organizational structure in a formal letter whose purpose is to file a complaint and suggest a proper action to solve the problem as follows: ″sender′s address, receiver′s address, greeting, identification of complaint, justification of complaint, demand action, sign-off, and sender's name″ (p. 240). Common sets of linguistic features can constitute a text type. Text type was defined by Biber (1988, as cited in Paltridge, 1996) as a class of texts having similarities in linguistic forms regardless of the genre (p. 237). For example, Hammond examined the characteristics of several genres and categorized them according to similarities in text types: recipes are known to have the text type of procedure; personal letters are used to tell private anecdotes; advertisements deal with description; news articles have the text type of recounting; scientific papers prefer passive voice over active voice in presenting reports; and academic papers are likely to have embedded clauses. This means that different text types involve distinctive knowledge and different sets of skills, so teachers should introduce a variety of genres to have students understand and practice different sets of skills.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the above mentioned problems and to meet the purpose of the study, the following questions were posed:

RQ1-Does portfolio approach has any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners′ writing achievement?

RQ2-Does genre-based instruction has any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners′ writing achievement?

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

Participants
This study was conducted with 90 upper- intermediate EFL learners of English Language Institute, in Tehran, Iran. They were non-randomly selected from among 120 upper- intermediate EEL learners based on their performance on a Preliminary English Test (PET), which were piloted with 30 students with similar characteristics with the target group. Then, learners were assigned into two experimental groups and one control group, each group was contained 30 learners whose range were between 15-30 years old . Participants were divided into six classes and each two classes formed one of the experimental groups and control group. Also, there were two female raters, the researcher as a teacher and first rater and another EFL teacher as a second trained rater. There were two raters to increase the reliability of writing scores in pre-test and post-test. Both raters were familiar with writing rating scale that designed by Akef and Hajhashemi (2012).

Instrumentation
To fulfill the purpose of this study, the researcher used tests, rating scale, and instructional materials as described below.

In order to obtain the result of the current study two tests had been used by the researcher ; one at the beginning to homogenize the learners in term of their language proficiency level which was piloted and one at the end of the treatment as a post test to evaluate learners′ writing achievement. It must also be mentioned here that this test had been piloted before among a sample group of 30 learners same as the target group. Item analyses also led to the deletion of no items of the first part of the writing. Also, reliability between two raters′ score for the writing was computed.

The Preliminary English Test (PET) adopted from *PET Practice Tests* by Jenny Quintana (2010), Oxford University Press for this study, and three parts of the test that were Reading, Writing and Listening without speaking section was administered. It is worth mentioning that the speaking part had not been administered due to time restriction and as the purpose of the current study was evaluating the learners' writing achievement.

In order to check the improvement of writing achievement of the participants after receiving instructions in writing, the learners were given another version of PET writing test 2010 adopted from *PET Practice Tests* by Jenny Quintana (2010), Oxford University Press to compare the achievement of learners in order to measure the effect of treatment and analyze the null hypotheses of the study. But prior to the administration of the post test, it was piloted on 30 learners who had similar characteristics to the main sample.

For the assessment of part two and three of the writing section during pilot test, Pre-test and post-test, the researcher used an analytic rating scale . So in order to rate all the writings used in this study, the researcher used *the Analytic rating scale* selected from what has been designed by Akef and Hajhashemi (2012, p. 243) which is used as a rubric for a summative score. This rating scale was applied to evaluate learners' general writing ability through assessing different aspects of written scripts such as fluency, structural accuracy, vocabulary (range and appropriateness of vocabulary choices), coherence, cohesion, relevance, organization, and mechanics of writing. In writing section 1, questions 1–5; carry one mark each, which is also, according to PET rating scale.

The main material which was used during the treatment was American English File Student Book 3. This book has been written by Clive Oxenden and Christina Latham-Koenig by Oxford University Press (2011).

Moreover, English result upper-intermediate students′ book" by Annie McDonald &Mark Hancock (2011) which consists of 10 units and there is one writing section at the end of the each unit. Models of writing which related to the topics of writing in the treatment were chosen for this study.

Procedures
This study was composed of a pilot study and a main study. In the pilot study the PET test was administered on 30 EFL learners with similar characteristics to the main sample. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine item characteristics as well as the reliability and gain some insight about the problems that the participants might encounter in the test administration, and after doing item analysis and calculating item facility, item discrimination, five items were shown to be malfunctioning. Thus, they were discarded from the test and consequently the reliability of the test rose.

 Also, another version of a PET writing test was piloted on a similar group of learners for post-test. After doing item analysis, calculating item facility, item discrimination and calculating between correlations of two scores of writing section by two raters, it was concluded that there is no malfunctioning items and there was correlation between two raters' scores for writing, and the reliability was computed.

In the main study there were fifth stages. In the first stage the PET test was administered to ensure the homogeneity and assess the language proficiency of the participants in three classes. Then the proficiency scores and the writing scores of three groups were calculated and compared to make sure that the three intact groups were homogeneous regarding their general English proficiency in general and their writing ability in particular.

In the third stage, the treatment stage, the participants in the three groups received different treatments within 20 sessions; therefore, in one experimental group, genre-based instruction, and in another experimental group, portfolio approach and in control group , writing section of American English file according to the syllabus of the book that is conventional were taught. In

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 46-63   *Mashhadi, E., & Akef, K*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

the fourth stage, after treatment there was a writing post –test, in order to reveal any possible improvement in writing achievement of the learners in three groups. Thus the learners took a writing test which was piloted before. In the fifth stage, to determine whether there was any significant difference in writing achievement of the learners, hence comparing the effect of the three treatments on the writing achievement of the learners, One-way ANOVA was conducted to reveal the significance of the difference among the three groups' scores.

The Treatment

Each of 3 groups was conducted through different treatments which will be explained bellow. The writing section of the book consists of seven writing topics, but they were assigned to write about the same pre-selected topics in writing section of Students′ book, which were included: telling a story, informal letter, formal letter and resume, a movie review, and an article for a magazine. One of the experimental groups were instructed trough the portfolio approach and other experimental groups were instructed writing through the genre-based instruction and control group were instructed through American English file book′s syllabus which follow process approach as the convention.

Treatment in Experimental Group 1 (Portfolio Approach)

The portfolio model utilized in this study was based on the ″classroom portfolio model″ whereby the portfolios are assigned primarily for learning rather than assessment purposes as recommended by Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000).The students were asked to write different topics as mentioned above during the term. For each topic, the students wrote their first draft then the teacher received them and read them carefully. Then, under each assignment wrote her comments about the different aspects of students′ written tasks as to fluency, central idea, relevance, organization, grammar, vocabulary, coherence, and mechanics which were considered according to scoring rating scale (Akef & Hajhashemi, 2012) and gave them some guidelines with useful feedback about their development in using all elements of writing and review their compositions. Therefore, the students received some assignments and gained information about their strengths and weaknesses in these aspects of their writings. The students were asked to self-assess or reflect on their own writing in the classroom and evaluate their strengths and weaknesses based on the elements that teacher gave them feedback. They were also asked to review their peer's written tasks in groups of three and give them feedback about those elements. Moreover, the students consulted the teacher to receive comments in a one-to-one conference during the class. In conferencing the students gave the teacher feedback on their strengths and weaknesses in their writing and also the teacher provided them with necessary feedback about their problems and helped them to overcome their weaknesses. Then, students had another opportunity to revise at home; the students revised and redrafted their essays based on their own reflections and the teacher's and peer's comments. Students collected all drafts and final drafts; in a folder which the researcher gave them at the beginning of the course; in order of presenting topics and kept them as portfolio during the course and submitted them to the teacher last session.

Treatment in Experimental Group 2 (Genre-Based Instruction)

For the purpose of this study, the genre-based instruction which proposed by Hammond (1987) was chosen which clearly and comprehensively present step-by-step procedure for teaching

53

IJLLALW

writing skill through a genre-based instruction which mention as follow, but all of the topics are as the same as the first experimental group. The writing process presented by Hammond (1987) reflects the characteristic described above as a cycle of **Modeling** (1- Brainstorming, 2- Many modeling texts provided3-Salient elements to make writing look like the target genre identified), **joint writing** (1- Practical support and scaffolding provided 2- Information of the target genre collected and organized 3-Group activities and collaborative writing recommended) **independent writing** (1- Students' original texts independently constructed 2- Teacher's explicit support and guide also expected) **reflection** (1-Creativity of writing suggested with questions and prompts 2-Critical analysis of the target genre). Following genres which is combination of Hammond, (1987) and Langer′s, (1985) (Cited in Hyland, 2003, p.43) were instructed in this study.1-Persuasive Writing 2-Journals and Letters writing, 3- Narrative Writing4-Explanatory Writing. The teacher also used some models of writing from English result upper-intermediate students′ book as models of writing and as the practical source which were related to the topic during 20 sessions of treatment.

Treatment in Control Group

The third group was the control group. The teacher used the syllabus of the course book (American English File 3) in this group which is conventional and based on process approach for teaching writing. This method was used in this institute for upper-intermediate level, but all topics were the same as experimental groups, and also the researcher was the teacher in this group. As mentioned before, each chapter of American English File book has one writing part at the end of it. The students were asked to read the model of writing which was provided in the lesson individually first, and then, answer the writing questions individually and then in the groups. Questions (3-4 questions) of the writing parts of this book are centralized on both "electronic" and "traditional" text types with different aspects(micro skills) of writing, like vocabulary, grammar, structure, punctuation, spelling and connecting expressions, . After that, writing sections of this book also present some boxes in the name of *Useful Language* which includes some useful patterns of English language for writing about that text. The students used these suggested patterns in doing the writing exercises which were actually the last part of writing sections. At last, writing section had three parts: 1- planning 2- writing 3- checking.   In this part, the teacher gave time to the students to write a piece of writing according to the book instructions in pair, but before that they planned their writing , such as number of paragraphs, content of the paragraphs, and use expression, which was provided in *useful language* box. All of the students had to do this activity individually in the class. The students asked for help or confer with their classmates about their writings. Then students checked their writing for mistakes (grammar, punctuation, and spelling) in their groups (groups of three) as peer assessment. At the end, teacher collected and read the papers gave feedback on them and returned them to the students and they revised and edited them. The students in this group wrote on all topics during the semester through this method. This group also underwent the posttest of the study at the end of the semester.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As previously stated, the purpose of this study was to examine the comparative effect of portfolio approach and genre-based instruction on Iranian EFL learners′ the writing achievement. The researcher conducted a series of calculations and statistical routines that are elaborated comprehensively in this chapter.

Descriptive Statistics of the PET Piloting

Items with facility indexes beyond 0.67 and below 0.33 and items with discrimination values below 0.4 were eliminated. In this regard, five malfunctioning items were deleted from the test (2reading items & 3listening items). The reliability of the test scores gained from the participants in the PET piloting phase was computed. The Cronbach alpha formula was calculated for this purpose and reliability of 0.79 was obtained. After deleting 5 malfunctioning items the reliability of the test shifted to 0.82 which left the researcher, assured that the PET was reliable enough to be used for homogenizing the participants. According to the findings, the mean and standard deviation of the PET piloting scores were found to be 59.86 and 6.373, respectively. As another step, since the writing part of the proficiency piloting test were rated by two qualified raters, the researcher also conducted an inter-rater reliability on the scores given by the raters in this study to the 30 participants. In each part, the means of the two sets of scores were highly similar (23.77 and 23.13 in writing part); yet, the Pearson Product Correlation was run to make sure that the two raters enjoyed a significant degree of consistency in their scoring. As the two sets of scores in writing represented normality of distribution with their skewness ratios falling between ±1.96, running a correlation was legitimized. The correlation between the two raters' writing scores turned out to be significant (r=.735, p=.000<.05).So, show that the two raters demonstrated a significant correlation.

Descriptive Statistics of the PET Administration

The piloted PET together with reading, writing and listening was administered for participant selection to make sure that the participants were homogeneous regarding their writing ability. Among the 120 students who took the PET, the 90 students were selected. Descriptive statistics on data from proficiency test before homogenize the participants were calculated.

In order to come up with homogenous participants in terms of PET scores, those participants who had scored within one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected as final participants of the study. According to calculation, the mean PET score of all participants is 60.2917, and a standard deviation is 10.47. This means that all the PET scores within 49.82 and 70.76 could be chosen as the homogenous scores which should be included in the final phase of the study.

The scores given by each rater on the performances were entered into SPSS program and Cronbach Alpha was calculated between them. The inter-rater reliability between pairing of ratings was (r=.875). Also, inter-item correlation matrix was estimated (.778).

In order to start the main analysis of the data and therefore research questions of this study, first the pretest total score were computed. So descriptive statistics of pre-test total were calculated. According to the calculation the minimum score is 14.50 and the maximum score is 22.50.

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)

Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 46-63   *Mashhadi, E., & Akef, K*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

In order to assess that there is no significant difference among both experimental groups and control group regarding their writing ability before treatment One-way ANOVA were used. Firstly, assumptions for an ANOVA were checked. The following tables show the result.

Table 1: Tests of Normality of pretest

Groups		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pretesttotal	Control group	.092	30	.200[*]	.966	30	.431
	Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	.105	30	.200[*]	.957	30	.255
	Experimental Group 2:Genre-based instruction	.117	30	.200[*]	.943	30	.111

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of three groups of pretest

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Control group	30	17.9958	2.12449	.38788	17.2025	18.7891	14.50	22.50
Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	30	17.5375	1.62886	.29739	16.9293	18.1457	14.63	20.50
Experimental Group 2:Genre-based instruction	30	17.0417	1.16214	.21218	16.6077	17.4756	15.25	19.00
Total	90	17.5250	1.71137	.18039	17.1666	17.8834	14.50	22.50

Table 3: Test of Homogeneity of Variances of the posttest

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5.490	2	87	.006

Leaven's test is used to assess the equality of variances for a variable calculated for two and more group. Some common statistical procedures assume that variances of the populations from which different samples are drawn equal. Levene's test assess this assumption. It tests the null hypotheses that the population variances are equal.

56

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 46-63   *Mashhadi, E., & Akef, K*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

Table 4: One-way ANOVA for the pre test scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13.664	2	6.832	2.406	.096
Within Groups	246.999	87	2.839		
Total	260.662	89			

Following figure shows the mean scores of the three groups on the writing section of the PET administered as the pretest.
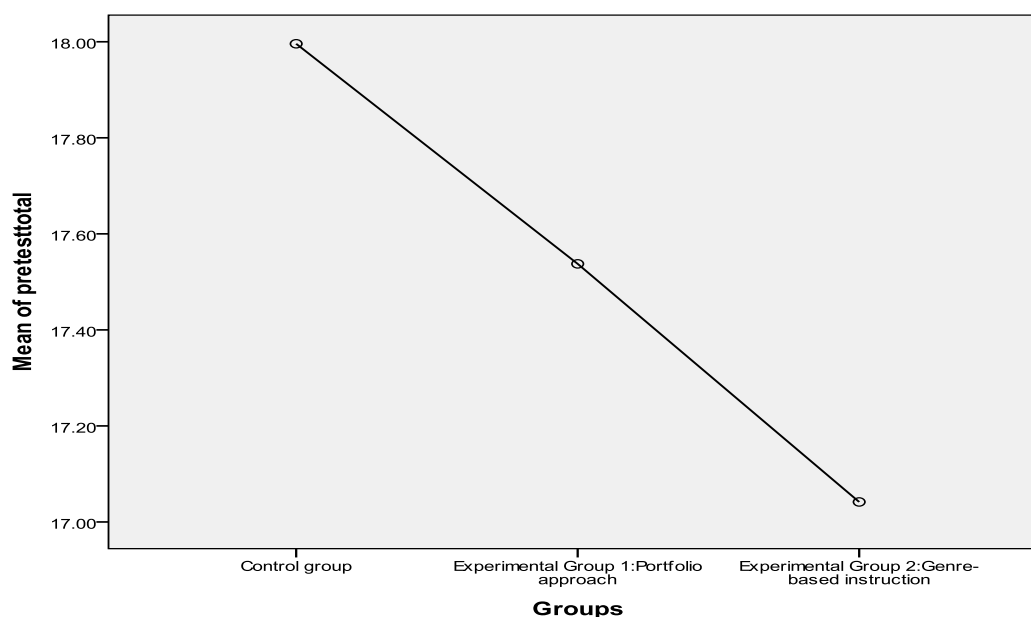
Figure 1: Mean comparisons of three groups on pretest

Descriptive Statistics of Posttest Piloting
The researcher piloted posttest among 30upper- intermediate students with very similar characteristics to the 90 participants of this study. The reliability of this test was calculated to be 0.83. The item analyses led to the deletion of no items in part 1 of the writing. Since all the writing performance of the students on the posttests in three groups in this study were rated by two raters, the data analysis has done with calculation of Inter-rater reliability computed through Cranach alpha(83.2), and inter-item correlation matrix were computed (71.3).
In order to start the main analysis of the data and therefore research questions of this study, posttest total score were computed. According to founding the minimum score was 10.29 and maximum scores was 25, mean was 19.85 and std deviation was 2.63. In order to research

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)

Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 46-63   *Mashhadi, E., & Akef, K*
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questions of this study, One-Way ANOVA was used, but before that assumptions for an ANOVA were checked, as it was computed for the pretest.

Table 5: Tests of Normality of the Posttest

Groups		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
posttesttotal	Control group	.104	30	.200[*]	.948	30	.151
	Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	.194	30	.005	.855	30	.001
	Experimental Group 2:Genre- based instruction	.118	30	.200[*]	.958		.277

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the post-test total for three groups

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Control group	30	17.9250	2.07214	.37832	17.1513	18.6987	15.00	22.50
Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	30	19.9279	2.61813	.47800	18.9503	20.9055	10.29	24.50
Experimental Group 2:Genre-based instruction	30	21.7217	1.62435	.29656	21.1151	22.3282	19.00	25.00
Total	90	19.8582	2.63140	.27737	19.3071	20.4093	10.29	25.00

Above table shows the means of the three groups are different. It is true regarding the standard variation. But before that homogeneity of variances for the post-test is provided in the following table.

Table 7: Test of Homogeneity of Variances of the posttest

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.443	2	87	.643

According to following table an F-ratio is 23.548. It revealed that the first and second null hypotheses of the study were rejected due to a significant difference observed among three groups (p=.000<.05). The result of post-hoc scheffe test is presented in Following table.

58

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 46-63
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245
Mashhadi, E., & Akef, K
www.ijllalw.org

Table 8: ANOVA result for the posttest

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	216.439	2	108.219	23.548	.000
Within Groups	399.820	87	4.596		
Total	616.259	89			

Table 9: Homogeneous Subsets posttesttotal Scheffe

(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control group	Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	-2.00292*	.55351	.002	-3.3814	-.6244
	Experimental Group 2:Genre-based instruction	-3.79667*	.55351	.000	-5.1752	-2.4181
Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	Control group	2.00292*	.55351	.002	.6244	3.3814
	Experimental Group 2:Genre-based instruction	-1.79375*	.55351	.007	-3.1723	-.4152
Experimental Group 2:Genre-based instruction	Control group	3.79667*	.55351	.000	2.4181	5.1752
	Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	1.79375*	.55351	.007	.4152	3.1723

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

Table 10: Post Hoc Scheffe post-test total: Multiple Comparisons

Groups		Subset for alpha = 0.05		
	N	1	2	3
Control group	30	17.9250		
Experimental Group 1:Portfolio approach	30		19.9279	
Experimental Group 2:Genre-based instruction	30			21.7217
Sig.		1.000	1.000	1.000

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 46-63   *Mashhadi, E., & Akef, K*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

This difference, which is a function of portfolio approach and genre-based instruction, is supported by one-way ANOVA and post hoc Scheffe which reveal the statistical significance of the difference as well as where exactly this difference originates from(p<.05). Base on the results obtained from one-way ANOVA and post –hoc scheffe test, it was concluded that there was a significant difference between the performance of first and second experimental groups and control group and also there was a significant different between the first experimental group and second experimental group. (Control group: 17.92; First experimental group: 19.92; Second experimental group: 21.72). As shown above, the two independent variables was significant ($F =$ 10.94, $p = 0.001 < 0.05$); therefore, the first null hypotheses of this study were rejected. In the figure 2, means plot of both experimental groups and control group is provided.
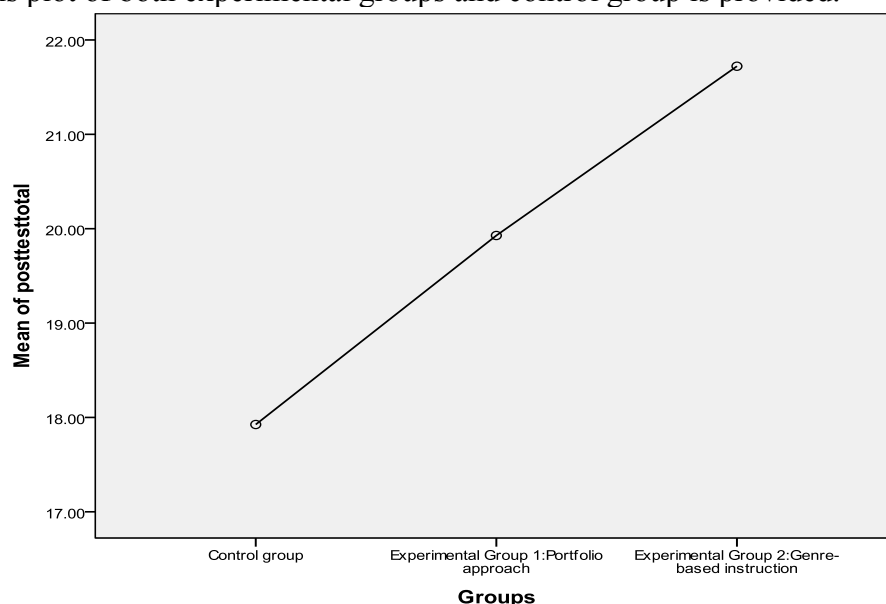
Figure 2: Means plot of Three Groups in Posttest

As previously stated, the main aim of this study was to examine the comparative effect of portfolio approach and genre-based instruction on Iranian EFL learners writing achievement.

Based on the findings of this study, it was concluded that both portfolio approach and genre-based instruction are effective method of writing instruction, but another important finding of the study is that students who were taught through genre-based instruction benefit more from other experimental group which were instructed through portfolio approach, but the post-test scores of the students in the portfolio approach group were significantly higher than pre-test scores and from the students in the control group which implied that students in this experimental group benefited significantly from the treatment.

CONCLUSION

The genre approach seems to fit well in Iran that is EFL context. This is because currently Iranian students lack input of English genres and does 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. 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. The explicit teaching of different genres of writing helps EFL learners to write texts of better quality.

It was also found that the students ability in writing were not significantly different in the pretest in control group and portfolio approach group but after implementing portfolio approach, it was observed that the scores of the students in the first experimental group were significantly higher than pre-test and those of the students in the control group. According to this study, it conclude that, Portfolio instruction help students foster their English writing ability since they receive useful comments from teacher, express their ideas in multi draft process and actively involvement in process.

Limitations
The students who study at upper-intermediate level at the English language institutes in Tehran, Iran are usually between"15-30"; therefore, the researcher had not any control over their age range. Consequently, the result of this study is limited to this age range. Therefore, generalization of this study to other age ranges in communities of EFL learners would not be appropriate without further research.

Gender of the participants was a source of difference because students were not at the same gender since the institute where the study was carried out had a co-educational system. There are variety genres of writing, but in this study, genres were limited to the writing section of the students′ course book, and only four genres of writing were instructed through the treatment in the experimental group.

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IJLLALW

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(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 46-63   *Mashhadi, E., & Akef, K*
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63

IJLLALW

A STUDY OF TURNS AS MANAGING PRINCIPLES IN DISPUTE CONVERSATION GENRES

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ABSTRACT

Whenever two or more than two interlocutors are involved in a talk conversations tend to obey some rules by which every party can talk, as it is his/her right in that conversation. To avoid conversational disturbances and to yield an organized type of conversation, interlocutors may need the turn taking principles constantly. The general term referred to such principles is local management system (LMS). This, has in itself other components such as Turn Constructional Units (TCU), Transition Relevant Place (TRP), floor taking, and how all this, is done. Having Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) framework and terminology in mind, this study yields an opportunity to investigate cases where and how LMS occurs. It also concentrates on un/successful turn taking instances. For the present study, ten minutes is selected from the Iranian live debate program. One of the merits of this data is that it happens naturally without any preplanning of the speech contents. The findings show turns and rules of LMS are violated for constant floor taking and longer floor occupying (floor holding).

KEYWORDS: *turn taking, LMS violation, floor holding, debate context*

BACKGROUND

LMS consists of the rules and principles that let speakers to take turns smoothly. Those who are aware of LMS techniques in conversations will adhere to the rules behind it and draw the course of conversation in a pleasing way thus lowering the possibility of any threat (what Brown & Levinson call "FTA"). LMS is made up of other elements and concepts such as turns and smooth shift of turns, floor-taking/ holding and its devices, TCUs, TRPs, and other issues which are relevant to the management of turns, which will be briefly explained.

One key concept in the discussion of LMS is "turn" and "turn taking". According to Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1974), all conversation is organized into turns, and these turns form the basic analytic unit in conversation analysis (Carter & Simpson, 1989). Drew (in Sidnell & Stivers, 2013), talks about "turn" in this way: "when interacting with one another, whether face - to - face, via the telephone or other media, we take turns to talk. Each turn we take is designed to 'do' something. *Inter - action* consists of the interplay between what one speaker is doing in a turn - at - talk and what the other did in their prior turn, and furthermore between what a speaker

is doing in a current turn and what the other will do in response in his/her next turn. Hence a turn - at - talk is contingent in some fashion on the other ' s prior turn, and sets up contingencies of its own for what comes next, for how the recipient will respond" (p. 131). Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1978), also believe that "turn taking is used for the ordering of moves in many types of conversations like political and business talks, and also talks in interviews, meetings, debates, ceremonies, conversations, etc." (p. 7). Whenever one participant begins to speak, he is actually taking a "turn" and unless he is interrupted, he can finish his turn and hand it to the other speaker, i.e. another participant will take the floor and starts speaking. The parties in a conversation try to follow this sheer turn by turn and manage the smooth turn taking principles so that they are not interrupted. This is referred to as "preferred organization" of the interaction (Zimmerman & West, 1975. pp 108-111).

A turn itself is constituted of a smaller unit which is called a Turn Constructional Unit (TCU). In an attempt to define a TCU, we may refer to Sacks et al. (1974) who describe it as the smallest complete unit which could fully constitute a turn, its boundaries understood through the interpretation of syntactic and prosodic features which allow the addressee to accurately predict the unit's end. A TCU is said to be 'complete' when all participants recognize it as so (Coulthard, 1985). When a TCU is complete and another one is not yet formed, there is a possibility for a TRP to take place (i.e. changing speaker) without interrupting a TCU (Sacks et al., 1974). Most TRPs are "natural breaks" in the conversation ranging from simple pauses to declarations of conclusion, and are places at which transition to a next speaker becomes relevant regardless of whether such a change occurs (Mey, 2001, p. 139).

A principal method of selecting the next speaker is to introduce an adjacency pair – a ritualized structure of turns in which, after one speaker utters the first pair-part, the other is obliged to respond with the second as it is the preferred response (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). In the case of question-answer adjacency pairs, the asker of the question has a "reserved right" to talk again immediately following the giving of the answer – if this right is used to ask another question, a "chaining" results in which question turns and answer turns could alternate indefinitely (Sacks, 1995, p. 264).

The behavior of a participant at a TRP is closely associated with power: "powerful speakers in conversations have the most turns, have the longest turns, initiate conversational exchanges, control what is talked about and who talks when, and interrupt others" (Short, 1996, pp. 206-7). Sometimes participants violate the sheer turn by turn rule, as rebellion against displays of power, either by their silence or interruptions. As Herman put it: "Consistent turn-lapses on the part of a targeted other who is addressed by a speaker can signal indifference, boredom, hostility […] even in silence" (Herman, 1998, p. 24). Indeed, not taking the floor after a silence can create a series of silences, indicating that the targeted speaker finds the current topic unsatisfactory and wishes to either change it or leave the conversation (Maynard, 1980). Interruptions- that is, when one participant begins speaking while the other is midway through a TCU- are a more explicit method of signaling aversion or objection to the current speaker. An interruption is a "violation" which ignores the current speaker's "right" to the floor and seizes it for another (Zimmerman & West, 1975, p. 123).

In a debate context, it is therefore possible to infer information regarding the participants' turn taking and management of those turns, their aims in selecting or rejecting a turn, their behaviors in a TRP, the way they treat TCU, and other instances which lead to un/successful LMS manipulation.

RESEACRH QUESTIONS
1. What are the instances of turn taking in this dispute? Where and how they took place?
2. How is LMS manipulated in this live T.V. dispute**?**

METHODOLOGY
Procedure
To carry out this study, ten minutes of the "debate"- the Iranian live TV program- was selected. To determine whether participants in this debate had a good manipulation of LMS or not, the researcher tried to identify the shifts of turns with all its component details like TRP, TCU, backchannel responses, overlaps, etc., since the study of these components will lead to a better judgment of LMS manipulation. These codes were noted along with the minute and the second of the specific excerpt. Then, the utterances on each turn shift were transcribed based on Jefferson's (1983) transcription conventions. Finally, the excerpt were analyzed.

Data
The data consists of the Iranian live TV program "debate" on channel one. What encouraged the researcher to choose this type of data, i.e. a debate, was that it is mainly a conversation. In addition, because it was a live program, it can be said that the data is natural which is appropriate for such a study.

Data analysis
This section is allocated to the analysis of some excerpts of the debate which among five participants. It is struggled to transcribe the data as carefully and meticulously as possible, since a detailed transcription is capable to show many things- like loudness, intonation, pitch, gestures, pauses, overlaps, silence, etc.- which will in turn broaden our understanding of how exactly the conversation is going on. Some excerpts are chosen to be presented here. These excerpts will be analyzed from LMS point of view, and all the aforementioned related issues will be considered and discussed in more details. Furthermore, it will be made clear how such factors as TRP, can affect LMS.

In the following part, two parties, i.e. one of the participants and the announcer, are talking. Here, turns occur mostly in overlap situations, but still it cannot be claimed that the course of conversation is interrupted because of objection or dissatisfaction with the topic. In contrast, we see that the listener- who now and then becomes the speaker- shows interest in what is being said by the other party. The sheer turn by turn principle is smoothly moving and a quick shifts of turns is taking place.

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Excerpt 1.

1. A. We are not to smash the poor from their rights for the sake of [other's and our satisfaction]
2. B.   [=it means those who live around 3. the lake… and also other people, based on their interests ()]
4. A. ((=exactly))… because of the effect it might have on the environment [it can ()]
5. B.   [=about un-cultivation plan,
6. if it's possible]
7. A.   [=I am to explain it] look, 8. There is a chart here, this has been offered by the government itself: Environment Organization of 9. Iran.

This excerpt is an example of LMS. There are a number of points to be mentioned. Lines 2 and 3 uttered by speaker B, suggest an immediate turn taking (shown by equal sign). A TRP may emerge when there are some pauses, but here, not only there is no pause in speaker A's utterances, but also his last phrase i.e. "other's and our satisfaction" in line 1, is being overlapped. Thus, by this way, speaker B did not wait for a TRP to take place; but he has actually *created* a TRP for what he wanted to say. Speaker A in line 4, after the TCU of speaker A, again takes the floor in an immediately. But a point can be said regarding the repair speaker B makes in line 2. He says: "it means those who live…" this is a kind of repair that is made for making speaker A's previous utterance clear. In fact, it is a sort of restatement or a paraphrase of what speaker A may have meant. This tactic, i.e., repair segment, helps to a better management of this conversation which consequently plays a role in a successful LMS.

There is an example of what I may call "interwoven" turn shift occurring as an "implicit" turn taking. For instance, line 4 by speaker A, and lines 5 & 6 by speaker B, shows this interwoven relationship. This occurs when speaker A is just at the middle of his sentence and also no TRP is created. Further there is no sign of a completed TCU. So there is no place, from conversation analysis perspective, for a turn shift. B's utterance is within A's utterance. Interestingly speaker A, does not stop and continues speaking, although he, in his next utterance, shows that he was careful of what B has said in that interwoven turn, when he says: "arzam injast". What is interesting here is the quick, overlapped, and at the same time smooth turn taking. I say it is smooth, because there are no instances of threat or objection in neither the two speakers. So what may appear is a successful LMS management, though accompanied with overlaps. Another point worth to be mentioned, is the use of backchanell by speaker A in line 4, when he says: "daqiqan hamin ast", in which he confirms the other party. This use of backchannel can also be of much help in successful LMS.

Excerpt 2.
The salient feature of this excerpt is that it has an evident case of 'adjacency pair' principle which leads to a kind sequencing in turns between two speakers (A and B). This excerpt, unlike the previous one, has more determinate boundaries for turns, (i.e. every speaker completes his TCU without being interrupted) though this conversation shows disagreement. In the previous

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example, which showed agreement, more instances of overlap were found. So, considering the context, it may be said that overlap does not always show objection or disagreement but it may be even the other way round, like excerpt 1. This is what has been confirmed in the literature, as the "collaborative or supportive overlap" (Li et al., 2005; Li et al., 2008; Kitzinger, 2008). In this part, instances of TRP, TCU, and other conversational codes are evident which will be elaborated in more details.

1. A. Did you know what to do for the lake 'Orumiah' 10 years ago? (1) [>In the Reform Government<]?
2. B.   =Yes [the activities that…]
3. A.=So why it wasn't done 10 years ago. ?
4. B.=Well [ask the custodians]
5. A.   =[WELL THEY SHOULD BE PRESENT SO THAT IT CAN BE DISCUSSED]

In this excerpt, the two parties who seem to disagree over a specific issue, speak to one another in the form of adjacency pairs. This is a question and answer sequence. Speaker A, starts this conversation with a question. Most of his words are uttered in a separate TCU and his turn is being protected (except the last two or three words which is not very important here) until he has finished his turn. Here, because of the nature of the utterance, which is a question and requests and answer, a TRP is naturally and automatically created. In fact, a TRP has been created by speaker A for speaker B. Speaker B's answer is of two parts. One "yes" which occurs after a one second pause of speaker A, also the second part which is "the activities that…" which is overlapped with speaker A's ending words of his question (which are three words for more clarifications). Then, speaker A immediately takes a turn and again poses a question. Here another automatic TRP has been created; also, the TCU is complete and none of it overlapped.
After that, speaker B answers. It can be said that speaker B's answer, that is "well ask the custodians", was a "dis-preferred second part" because it arose speaker A's objection in the last sequence of this adjacency pair. This is a dis-preferred second part, because speaker B's answer is not in line with speaker A's expectations; in other words his answer is not agreeable for him. Something to be emphasized is that this excerpt (except line 5 which is overlapped with line 4 to show objection to the dis-preferred second part created by speaker B) was one of the cases that overlap was rare. This is, I believe, because of the nature of adjacency pairs which requires a turn by turn floor taking.

To conclude this excerpt, it seems that LMS has been manipulated well here. TRPs are there because every question expects an answer and they are, as I said, created by the conversation itself. TCUs, are also completed with minimum overlaps and every speaker seem has his right to complete his utterances. Further, floor taking happens equally, and none of the parties attempts to interrupt the other, i.e. they let the other say what he wants say. So, this excerpt, is among the rare cases in this program that LMS has been successful, of course to some extents, as we see the last utterance of speaker A indicates the end of this short successful LMS manipulation.

IJLLALW

Excerpt 3.
The following section includes techniques by which speakers struggle toward a better LMS. One of such techniques is repair and the other is IRF. IRF (Initiation, Response, & feedback) was first introduced by Sinclair and Coulthord. It is when one speaker starts speaking, and the other responds, then based on the response, a feedback is made. This is actually, a way of sorting everything out. In this section, the response phase, is mixed with 'repair' which will be explained. Also, 'overlap' can again be seen here, and interestingly they are not objections (and hence are not Face Threatening Acts), but are for support and repair.

1. A. …we have given Tabriz drinking water (0.5) [and there is no alternet-]
2. B.   = [you mean the matter of powerhouse is no more 3.there?]

4. C. they are within that [they are together]
5. A.   = [they are within one another]
6. B. ((that's good ( )))

To be more precise, the following discussion is presented in more details. In this excerpt, there are 3 speakers. In line 1, speaker A had the floor and was talking about an issue. Speaker B interrupts him and speaker A is unable to complete his last word which is "alternative" and he said it as: "alternat-". In this case, the TCU is not complete because of the overlap in line 2, by which speaker B, self-selects a turn and takes the floor. Although line 1, was not potentially a TRP, because speaker A was talking and intended to continue; but speaker B posed a question in an overlap and imposed a TRP. His utterance (lines 2 & 3), starts the IRF which is a question form, and functions as an 'Initiation'. In trying to answer him, speakers A and C enter the floor in a TRP. These responses, though overlapped, support each other and function as repair segments that aim to remove any misunderstanding or ambiguity. Then, there is a 'Feedback' by speaker B when he says: "that's good ( )", meaning that he is convinced with the 'Response' phase (the second phase of IRF). In an IRF, the response phase has a determining role in the success or failure of the conversations, I believe. A suitable response can lead to a less chaotic conversation, thus a better LMS.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION
This study aims to show how LMS is done in "Dispute", the Iranian live TV program. LMS has close ties with turn taking system. Yule (1996) defines LMS as what is "conventionally known by members of a social group (p. 72). He continues that LMS is a set of conventions for getting turns, keeping them, or giving them away (ibid.). Other concepts which are of much relevance to LMS manipulation like TRP, TCU, floor-taking, turn-taking, etc. were inspected. Cutler and Pearson (1986) state that one major cue for turn-yielding can be a down-step in pitch. This is what became evident in Extract 1 and 2 (both: lines 1 & 2) of this study as well. Wherever one speaker lowers his voice, the other finds an opportunity to occupy the floor. Kato (2000) extensively studies and discusses this issue, i.e. the role of tone pitch in turn taking and he concludes that it can signal to the next speaker when to enter conversation and provide a cue to

IJLLALW

select a tone for his/her response (p. 43). They play a significant role in turn-taking (ibid); this is a result that this study also approves of in some cases, but rejects in other cases (extract 2: lines 4 & 5; extract 3: line 1)

Looking from a different perspective to floor-taking and also turn-taking, Inoue (1998) affirms the role of seniority or power within a group which leads to a 'right' to speak. This ideology is reflected in Kato (2000) when he explains that rank or a pay scale in the organizational structure is based on seniority, which is one of the key factors in determining the form of a conversation. This is contrary to what was found in this study. This is mainly due to the nature and context of this dispute; the participants try to prove themselves all the time and achieve the floor as much as they can.

What the present study focused on was the recording and analysis of ten minutes of a dispute. What became evident was the fact that in most cases, LMS was not well manipulated and participants did not allow others to speak. Most utterances occurred in the form of overlap. There were 9 cases of which only 2, had a good LMS, the ones I have already analyzed: excerpt 1 and 3; although these two excerpts, too, consist of overlaps, LMS has been successful to some extents. Other cases, where there was not a good LMS manipulation, were mostly cases which had overlaps of objection, interruptions, self-selection of turn, and FTAs such as impositions. The weak LMS manipulation has a reason, of course, that is, the kind of the program leads to a sort of competition among participants. A competition for floor taking, talking, proving themselves, and finally being persuasive to the audience. All these, require a "floor" in which they can talk. The FTA's, overlaps, interrupted TCUs, and speaking where there is no TRP, all these may attest to the struggle participants did for floor-taking and thus a weak LMS manipulation.

Limitations of the study
This study was carried out to show how LMS rules show up in the context of a dispute. Every conversational/speech context requires its specific LMS system. Because of the spatial limitations of the present paper, this study only considered some instances of turn taking in a dispute context, however other studies may use other contexts for LMS analysis or they may stick as well to disputes but investigate another/more instances of LMS manipulation.

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IJLLALW

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APPENDIX 1.
Extract 1.

الف. قرار نیست فقرا له بشن که منو دیگران [راضی باشیم]
ب.　　　　　　　[=یعنی کسانی که در اطراف اون دریاچه زندگی می کنند...و بقیه مردم حسب علاقه مندیشون (())
الف.((=دقیقا همین است))... به دلیل آثار زیست محیطی که برای کشور [داره میتونه(())
ب.　　　　　　　　　　　　[در مورد طرح نکاشت هم اگه میشه...]
الف.　　[=عرضم اینجاست] ببینید یه جدولی هست اینو خود دولت داده سازمان محیط زیست کشور.

Extract 2.

الف. ده سال پیش شما میدونستید باید برای دریاچه ی ارومیه چکار کرد؟(1) تو [دولت اصلاحات؟]
ب.　　　　　　　　　　　　=بله[همین کارا که...]
الف. =خب چرا انجام نشد این ده سال پیش. ؟
ب. =خب از مسولین [سوال کنید]
الف.　　[= خب اونا باید بیان مطرح بشه]

Extract 3.

الف. ...آب خوردن به شهر تبریز دادیم (0.5) [و هیچ آلترنت]
ب.　　　　　　　　=[یعنی بحث نیروگاه اینا دیگه وجود نداره؟]

71

ج. اینا در داخل همونه [همه اینا با همن]
الف.   =[همه در داخل همن]

ب. ((خوبه پس ( )))

APPENDIX 2.

Conventions for Transcribing Text

Symbol	Definition
()	Parens with no text means that the transcriber could not make it out at all.
[ ]	Left square brackets indicate where one person interrupts another or talks simultaneously. Right square brackets mark the end of overlap.
˚text˚	Text between degree symbols is quieter speech than that surrounding it.
>text<	Speech between angle brackets is faster than normal speech.
((text))	Double parens contains comments by the researcher about people's gestures, gazes, and so on.
Text	Underlining means that the words are emphasized.
?	A question mark indicates rising intonation. It does not necessarily mean that a question is being asked.
…	Three dots indicates some words missing intentionally by the transcriber in order to avoid long unnecessary words.
=	The equal sign indicates that a person takes a turn immediately as the previous turn ends.
TEXT	Text in caps indicates louder speech than that surrounding it.

Source: After Jefferson (1983).

IJLLALW

A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL LEARNERS' ANXIETYAND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN LANGUAGE CLASSES

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ABSTRACT
This study aimed at investigating the relationship between anxiety and English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes. 350 female high school students, grades two and three, in five different schools in Kerman, district 2 (15 to 17 years old) were the participants of this study. To homogenize the subjects of the study sample, the researcher employed Cambridge Placement Test to function as a test of homogenization, and based on the placement test, the intermediate students were considered as the sample of the study. The researcher employed two instruments to collect the required data (a WTC questionnaire, and an anxiety questionnaire). To analyze the collected data through the two questionnaires, the researcher used correlation. The results revealed that there is a negative relationship between EFL learners' anxiety and their tendency to communicate. Language teachers should try to remove the learners' anxiety so the learners will perform better and more actively in the oral language classes.

KEYWORDS: anxiety, WTC, EFL learners

INTRODUCTION
Anxiety is one of the most important factors in second language acquisition and can influence learners' willingness to communicate. This simple fact is known by all who have themselves learned a second language or taught those who are learning a second language.

One of the effective variables in foreign language is anxiety. More than half of foreign language learners experience some kinds of anxiety in their language classrooms. Anxiety has been considered as the most important emotional factor in second language acquisition. Clement (1980) defined foreign language anxiety as a complex construct that deals with learners' psychology in terms of their feelings , self-esteem , and self-confidence. Young (1991) defined foreign language anxiety as a complicated psychological phenomenon peculiar to language learning. More specifically, foreign language anxiety as the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second or foreign language contexts , including speaking , listening ,

IJLLALW

and learning , or the worry and negative emotional reaction arousal when learning or using a second or foreign language (MacIntyre et al.,1999).

A decade of research (Horwitz & Young 1991; Young, 1991) has given the researchers useful information on foreign language anxiety . Most of these studies conclude that foreign language anxiety can be distinguished from other types of anxiety and it can have a negative effect on the language learning process. Getting students to respond in the classroom is a problem that most ESL teachers face. Although one should avoid making the sweeping generalization that talking equals learning, and forcing students to participate when they are not ready, one cannot deny that participation is very important in language learning. When students produce the language that they are studying, they are testing out the hypotheses which they have formed about the language. When they respond to the teacher's or other students' questions, raise queries, and give comments; they are actively involved in the negotiation of comprehensible input and the formulation of comprehensible output which are essential to language acquisition (Swain, 1985).

One of the variables which has been frequently foregrounded in literature as playing an influential role in L2 learning is learners' L2 WTC. For learning to talk in the L2, learners need to be willing to communicate in the L2. Developing learners` L2 WTC should be the fundamental goal of language instruction. MacCIntyre et al. (2001) defined L2 WTC as a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons. Considering WTC as a situational construct, researchers have examined how it is influenced by situational variables such as contextual variables and social support. A student-friendly and supportive environment should be created so that learners would be more willing to talk in class . In a stress-free supporting environment, learners can build a better rapport not only with each other but also with the teacher, which will in turn boost the learning process to a considerable extent. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between anxiety and WTC in EFL classrooms.

Statement of the problem
One of the problems of EFL learners is the existence of anxiety in speaking classes. Brown (1994) claimed that one of the most important affective variables in learning a foreign language is foreign language anxiety. Although language anxiety is sometimes viewed as a helpful "energizer " for approaching complex tasks of L_2 learning , the potentially harmful effects of anxiety , often called "debilitating anxiety" cannot be easily dismissed in the context of L_2 teaching.

The other problem in EFL classes is that learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) varies considerably over time and across situations. Even if learners have excellent communicative competence, their WTC is not guaranteed (Maclntyre, Dörnyei, Clément & Noels, 1998, p. 545). For learners, WTC is a highly anxiety-provoking situation (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). This research attempts to identify the relationship between EFL learners' anxiety and their willingness to communicate in English language classes.

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Significance of the study

The significance of this study is showing the relationship between anxiety and willingness to communicate in English language classes. This study can help EFL teachers and learners to know the anxiety provoking factors in order to control them. Oral language is an important component of language development, especially in the area of ESL. WTC in the foreign language is an anxiety producing experience for most of the students (Young ,1991). Some researchers reported a negative relationship between language anxiety and achievement; the higher the anxiety , the lower the performance (Clement,1986).As an affective variable, anxiety is assumed to influence second language acquisition. Much research (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Young, 1991) has been carried out to find the correlation between anxiety and achievement in learning a second language. Most studies (Horwitz, 1986; MacInvyre & Gardner, 1994) found that anxiety and achievement are negatively correlated and second language anxiety has a debilitating effect on the oral performance of speakers of English as a second language. Anxiety acts as a barrier in the process of second language acquisition. So this study probes the relationship between EFL learners' anxiety and their willingness to communicate in English language classes.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Anxiety and WTC

The literature suggests that the speaking is extremely anxiety-provoking in many language studies and that it is often to seen to arouse more anxiety than the other skills. Indeed, in some individuals fear of giving a speech in public exceeded such phobias as fear of snakes, elevators, and heights. Anxiety reactions suffered by many students when speaking or when being asked to speak by the teacher in the foreign language classroom include distortion of sounds , inability to reproduce the intonation and rhythm of the language, ' freezing up' when called on to perform, and forgetting words or phrases just learned or simply refusing to speak and remaining silent (Young, 1991). Hortwitz et al. (1986) noted that students who are apprehensive about making mistakes in front of others seem to feel constantly tested and to perceive every correction as a failure. Anxious participants tended to overestimate the number and seriousness of their errors, while low-anxious students took them lightly. Speaking anxiety creates a low self-confidence which makes students remain quiet in all situations, even if they have the capacity to express themselves and knowledge that is worth hearing. Lightbown and Spada (1999) discussed speaking anxiety and how it can affect language learning. They argue that anxiety is something that is more likely to depend on special situations and circumstances that can make on feel uncomfortable, for example, an oral presentation in front of a large group of people. Nevertheless, in these situations researchers prefer to use the term tension. They claimed however that one should distinguish temporary anxiety or tension from anxiety that interferes with a student's learning process. Anxiety that interferes with the learning process affects most speaking activities and is not simply related to specific situations such as oral presentations in front of the whole class.

Today's school is a place where the voluble children are the ones that achieve most attention. They do not have the patience to listen to others since they are often worried not to be heard themselves. The quiet children are therefore put in a position where they have to speak out loud,

IJLLALW

and clear if they are going to be heard and that makes it even harder for them to speak out. Therefore it is very important to establish a good climate in the classroom where anyone's voice is equally heard and respected.

Studies on WTC and Language Learning
The construct of WTC was first developed by McCroskey and Baer (1985) in relation to communication in the first language. The construct is defined as a stable predisposition toward communication when free to choose to do so. In later years several researchers conducted studies to investigate the variables responsible for the variation of a person's WTC. In the early 1990s the development of research on WTC in first language (L1) started to gain researchers" attention in the area of L2 acquisition. Studies conducted in various Canadian contexts combined WTC model with Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model in order to examine the relations among variables underlying WTC in a L2.

MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) model was the first to focus on WTC in L2. The two variables, self-perceived communication competence and communication apprehension, were included in their model, but they preferred the term 'language anxiety' instead of 'communication apprehension'. They broadened MacIntyre's (1994) model by adding integrativeness, attitude and motivation from Gardner's socio-educational model. In their study, WTC was a predictor of frequency of communication in a L2, whereas motivation was a predictor of WTC, frequency of communication in a L2, or both. They tested the mixed model to predict the frequency of using the second language in the daily interactions of 92 Anglophone students, and investigated the relations between affective variables, such as perceived L2 competence, L2 anxiety, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation, and their impact on the frequency of second language communication. The role of personality traits was also investigated. It was found that perceived communication competence has a strong and direct influence on the L2 communication frequency. The students with greater motivation for language learning reported that they used the language more frequently.

MacIntyre et al. (1998) argued that in the L2 context, WTC should be treated as a situational variable. They conceptualized WTC in an L2 in a theoretical model which has a total of twelve constructs. In their heuristic model, there are six categories referred to as „layers" of the model. The layers from top to bottom are communication behavior (I), behavioral intention (II), situated antecedents (III), motivational propensities (IV), affective cognitive context (V), and social and individual context (VI). In this model, factors influencing WTC are divided into two groups: enduring influences and situational influences, which are the last three layers from the bottom. The top layers (I, II, III) of the pyramid are believed to have immediate influence on WTC, whereas the bottom layers (IV, V, VI) signify relatively stable and enduring influences on WTC. In this pyramid-figure model of L2 WTC, placed WTC in a Layer II and identified it as a behavioral intention, the final step before using L2.

Their heuristic model was important because it was "the first attempt at a comprehensive treatment of WTC in the L2' (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 55). Several researchers have tested various aspects of this model since it was proposed (Bektaş, 2005; Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Jung,

Akbarzadeh, M., & Haddad Narafshan, M
www.ijllalw.org

2011; Kim, 2004; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2003; Matsuoka, 2006; Sun, 2008; Yashima, 2002; Yu, 2009; Wen & Clemént, 2003). These studies concluded that motivation, communicative competence, and language anxiety are predictors of WTC.

In the Japanese context, applying WTC model to the EFL context, Yashima (2002) conducted a study with 389 Japanese EFL students to examine the predictors of learners' WTC in English. She examined relations among L2 learning and L2 communication variables in the Japanese, English as a foreign language context using the WTC model and the socio-educational model as a framework. It was found that a lower level of anxiety and a higher level of perception of L2 communication competence led to a higher level of WTC. This finding was consistent with the results of MacIntyre and Charos (1996).

Matsuoka (2006) conducted a study to test the applicability of MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) and Wen and Clément's (2003) modified model in the Japanese EFL context. She investigated how individual difference variables, such as integrativeness, communication apprehension, perceived competence, introversion, motivation, attitudes and other- directedness, are related with L2 willingness and English proficiency. The analysis of data, obtained from 180 Japanese college students, indicated that four independent variables contributed to the prediction of L2 WTC. SPCC was the most influential factor contributed to the prediction of L2 WTC (22%), and the second strongest factor was introversion (11%).

In a Korean setting, Kim (2004) worked with 191 Korean university students to investigate the nature of MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) Heuristic Model in terms of its being trait-like or situational. She found significant positive correlations with motivation, desire to learn English, attitude toward learning English. Kim's results also indicated that students' WTC was directly related to their confidence in English communication and indirectly related to their attitudes and motivation through confidence in English communication.

Kang (2005) carried out a qualitative study in order to deepen the understanding of WTC and to provide pedagogical implications. She examined how the situational variables affect WTC in L2 in a communication situation, and how the situational WTC in L2 changes over the course of communication. She collected data from four volunteer Korean male students and provided evidence that situational WTC can dynamically emerge through the role of situational variables and fluctuate during communication. Kang proposed situational WTC as a multilayered construct that could change moment-to-moment in the conversational context, under the joint effect of the psychological conditions of excitement, responsibility and security.

Cao (2011) investigated the dynamic and situated nature of WTC in second language classrooms, and found that situational WTC in L2 classrooms emerged from the joint effects of individual characteristics including self-confidence, personality, emotion and perceived opportunity to communicate, classroom environmental conditions such as topic, task, interlocutor, teacher and group size, together with linguistic factors. The findings suggest that language teachers should be mindful of the interdependence of all these involved factors that create students' WTC in class.

In the Turkish context, Bektaş (2005) examined whether college students who were learning English as a foreign language were willing to communicate when they had an opportunity and whether the WTC model explained the relations among social-psychological, linguistic and communication variables in this context. In order to collect data, a questionnaire was administered to 356 randomly selected college students in Turkey. Then, interviews were conducted with 15 randomly selected students. The findings revealed that students were somewhat willing to communicate in English, were moderately motivated to learn English, had a positive attitude toward the international community, had low communication anxiety, perceived themselves somewhat competent to communicate in English, and were slightly extraverted and people oriented, and their perceptions of their personalities were directly related to their linguistic self-confidence. These students' willingness to communicate was found to be directly related to their attitude toward the international community and their perceived linguistic self-confidence. Students' motivation to learn English and their personality were found to be indirectly related to their willingness to communicate through linguistic self-confidence.

Rahi Shahraki and Seyedrezaei (2015) in a study examined the relationship between the foreign language anxiety (FLA) of Iranian EFL students with willingness to communicate (WTC) in relation to four language skills i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing at intermediate level. Data were collected from 60 participants who were learning English as a foreign language by the use of a modified version of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and an adapted version of Likert-type Willingness to Communicate Questionnaire. A series of descriptive statistics, Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, and Pearson Correlation test were run to provide answers to the research questions. Results of this study revealed that the foreign language anxiety which was experienced by EFL learners differed in relation to language skills.

RESEARCH QUESTION
The study seeks to answer the following question:
What is the relationship between anxiety and EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
350 female high school students, grades two and three, in five different schools in Kerman, Iran (15 to 17 years old) were the participants of this study. In fact the subjects were a combination of the second and third high school grades. To homogenize the subjects of the study sample, the researcher employed Cambridge Placement Test to function as a test of homogenization, and based on the placement test, the intermediate students were considered as the sample of the study.

Instruments
The researcher employed two instruments to collect the required data. The first one was a WTC questionnaire designed based on the questionnaires of Yashim , 1999 ; MacIntyre et al. ,2001. It

IJLLALW

was a 16 item questionnaire using five-point Likert style (1= completely agree, 2=agree, 3=no idea, 4=disagree, and 5=completely disagree). The second instrument was an anxiety questionnaire designed based on the questionnaires of Horwitz et al., 1986; Xu, 2011. It consisted of 20 items. A 5-point Likert scale (1- completely agree, 2-agree, 3-no idea, 4-disagree and finally 5-completely disagree) was used to gather the data.

Both questionnaires were translated into Farsi for the high school candidates to fully understand them. The reliability of the translated anxiety questionnaire used in this study was o.90 . The reliability of the translated WTC questionnaire used in this study was 0.91. It was obtained through Cronbach 's Alpha. To ensure the validity of the questionnaires, a sample of ten university professors as experts of teaching English field were asked to leave their comments on the redundant items to mark unclear parts in the questionnaire. Then the answers were analyzed based on the Content Validity Ratio Formula (CVR). The validity of the anxiety questionnaire used in this study was 0.95, and the validity of WTC questionnaire used in this study was 0.96. In accordance with Lawshe (1975), questions whose CVR was more than 0.62 were chosen as the main items.

Design of the Study
This study was a survey conducted in five high schools located in Kerman, district 2. The questionnaires were given to the students with the permission of the school head. Anxiety was considered as independent or predictor variable, and WTC was the dependent or criterion variable in this study. The main source of collecting data in this study was using the required questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed among the students by the researcher. Before distributing the questionnaire, the researcher gave enough instruction to fill the questionnaires. She moreover spoke about the purpose and significance of her study. Furthermore, they were reassured that the given information would remain confidential and be employed only for the research purpose.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In this study, anxiety was considered as independent or predictor variable, and WTC was the dependent or criterion variable in this study.

Table 1: Descriptive Data of the two Variables

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Anxiety of Learning English	350	22	100	62.79	13.79	-0.21	0.03
Willingness to Communicate	350	16	78	50.80	11.33	-0.38	0.59

Based on the data in table 1, the mean for anxiety of learning English is estimated to be 62.79 and the mean for willingness to communicate is calculated to be 50.80. The standard deviations for these variables are 13.79 and 11.33 respectively.
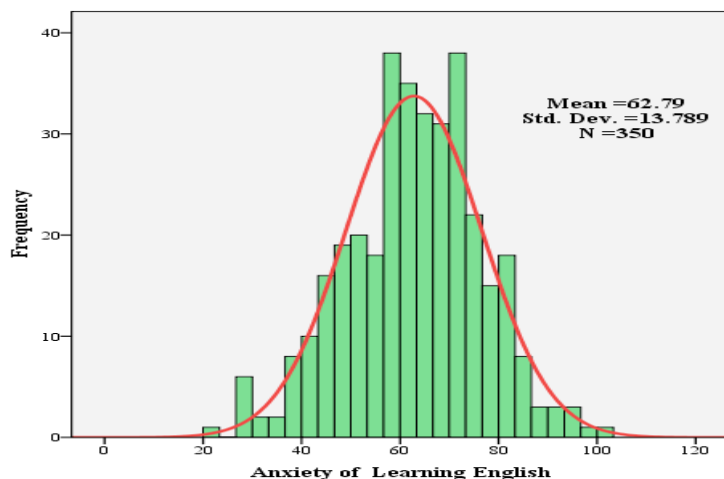
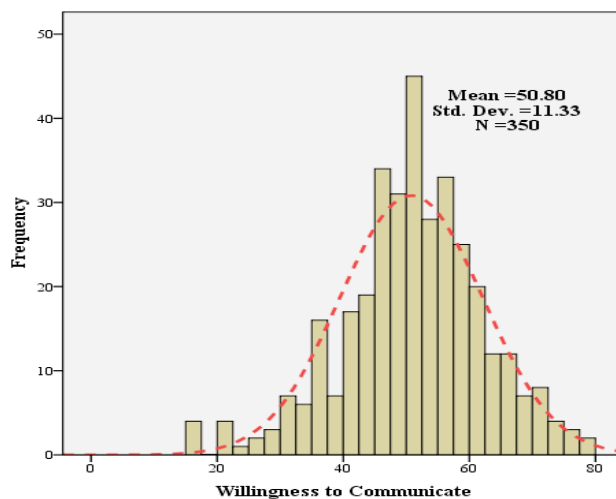*Figure 1: Histogram Displaying the Anxiety of the Learners*

Figure 2: Histogram on Willingness to Communicate

What is the relationship between EFL learners' anxiety and their willingness to communicate?

To examine this question, Pearson correlation was run. Based on the data in table 2, there is a meaningful relationship between the two variables; anxiety and WTC, P value= 0.0005< .05. Therefore with 99% of confidence it can be claimed that there is a negative relationship between the two variables of anxiety of the learners and their WTC. It indicates the idea that the more the female learners are anxious, the less they are willing to communicate or vise versa. This very idea can be supported by referring to figure 3 where the variance for anxiety makes up 40% of willingness to communicate.

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)

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Table 2: Correlation between Anxiety and WTC

Variables	Pearson Correlation	P-Value	N
Anxiety of Learning English Willingness to Communicate	-0.633	0.0005	350

Table 2 presents the data of correlation between anxiety of the subjects and their WTC. As it is clear, the relevant correlation is estimated to be- 0.633 which is not high enough.
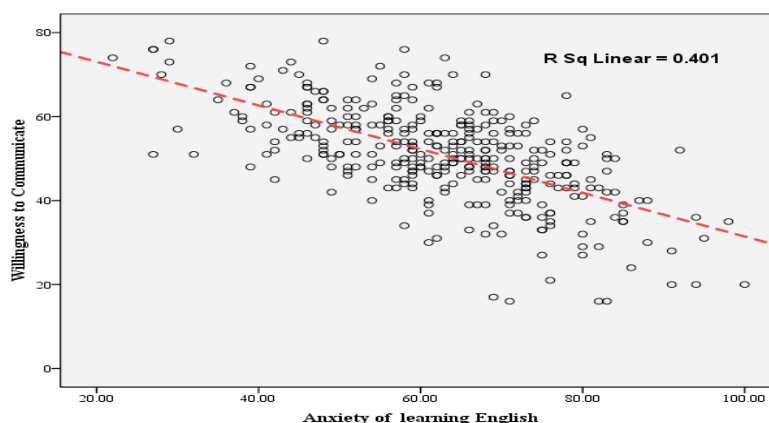
Figure 3: WTC and Anxiety Scatter Plot

CONCLUSION
The study was set out to explore the relationship between anxiety and EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes. The main findings were summarized and this section synthesizes the findings to answer the study's research question:

What is the relationship between anxiety and EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes?

Evidence from this thesis shows the negative relationship between anxiety and EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes. According to the results (Table 7.1) it can be said that there is a negative relationship between anxiety and EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes. Therefore, the research hypothesis, H1: There is a relationship between anxiety and EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes, is accepted. The present study in line with several other studies (Young, 1991; Hortwitz et al.,1986; MacIntyre, 2007) found that anxiety is significantly effective in decreasing EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English language classes. This study had some limitations since some of the participants did not take part to respond the question items, and some schools didn't cooperate to carry out the study. It also had some delimitations as the subjects were limited only to female students; grades two and three of high school (15-17 years old), and only public schools were the study target and institutes were not involved in the study.

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WIDAL SLANG LANGUAGE
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ABSTRACT
The development of dynamic society influences ~~to~~ the use of language that results in emerging of language variation. One of the language variations emerged and developed is Widal Slang Language at Tipar District Sukabumi City, West Java Indonesia. The research focuses on the disclosure of today's Widal Slang Language users, the distribution to other regions, as well as the function of Widal Language. The research applied qualitative – descriptive method to explain the phenomena encountered. The data collection of the research was conducted by the means of interview and questionnaire distribution. The research result shows that the Widal Slang Language is used by Tipar Society. Besides, the slang language has been spread out to other regions. However, there is a shift in the function; from code language into lingua franca among young people.

KEYWORDS: *Language, Slang, Widal Language*

INTRODUCTION
Language is a means of communication both in speaking and writing. People, in daily life, often use utterance as their media in communication. In linguistics it is called as spoken language which is a primary object of linguistics while the secondary one is called as written language (Munif , 2008: 16).

According to Kridaklaksana in Aslinda and Leni (2010:1); "language is a system of arbitrary symbol used by society to collaborate, interact and identify themselves". In the process of interaction, they generally use a language they understand for their community; the community can be in a large or even small scope. The small scope includes a certain community such as the language used by transgender, ethnic, or even gang. However, the language in a small scope can also be used by a group of people living in a region or even in the level of district. The example is at Tipar District Sukabumi City West Java Indonesia. The

IJLLALW

language meant is 'sani/widal' language. Sani means 'sandi' (code), while 'widal' means 'Tipar' (Tipar District) Sukabumi people recognize it as 'Widal'.

Widal Slang Language is derived from Sundanese, but it has some adjustments that make it different from Sundanese used in general. The language has become a trend and has ever been widely used by the young people. However, its use is rare today. Such phenomenon has become an attention for the researchers to know more what exactly occurs to the language. The research related to Widal Slang Language has ever been conducted by Yusuf Junaedi in 2007. The title is *Tipar Language as Sundanese Phenomenon (A case Study in Tipar Community, Sukabumi).* The research analysed about the structure, register and code mixing of Tipar Language. It is, certainly, different from our research since the research we conducted analysed about the users and the distribution of Widal Slang Language as well as the shift of its language function. In analysing the language function, the researchers applied Sociolinguistics approach.

The purpose of the research is to obtain some scientific answer regarding t the language variation developed in Sukabumi so that it can be documented since a language must be written or documented to avoid from its extinction. It is as quoted by Janson (2002: 25):

> "A language without a written form also runs a considerable risk of losing poems and other linguistic artefacts. It is not that literature cannot exist without writing. There are abundant examples of poems transmitted orally, including very long epic tales. But this requires that at least a few people in each generation can devote themselves to the task of memorizing and performing the material"

Jason argues that language must be documented in writing because the preservation of language through speaking requires people to remind and retell it. As the result, it prone to extinct. That's why Widal Slang Language needs documenting in writing in the form of report as the result of the research and it also needs to be published in an international seminar.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Language Variation
In communication, we need language as a media. When we use a language, it will be influenced by linguistics and non - linguistics factors. The linguistics factors meant are phonology, morphology, syntax, etc. While the non- linguistics factors include social and situational factors. The social factors that influence the use of language are social status, education level, age, gender, etc. While the situational ones include from whom the one is speaking, using what languages, to whom, where and about what problems (Fishman in Aslinda & Leni, 2010, 37). It is the factors that result in language variation.

According to Labov in Aslinda and Leni (2010: 37), language variation has something to do with group, status, and social class of the speakers and one of which is slang language.

IJLLALW

Slang Language

Slang language is a language which is understood and used by a certain society in a place. Slang language is a language variation of which the characteristics are new vocabularies which are found and could easily change. The slang language variation is used by young people, social group and professional to communicate 'in secret language' (Alwasilah in Aslinda and Leni, 2010:18). Besides, Allen dan Burridge (2006: 69) stated that:

> "Slang is language of a highly colloquial and contemporary type, considered stylistically inferior to standard formal, and even polite informal, speech. It often uses metaphor and/or ellipsis, and often manifests verbal play in which current language is employed in some special sense and denotation; otherwise the vocabulary, and sometimes the grammar, is novel or only recently coined."

Allan and Burridge asserted that slang language is informal language in daily conversation which does not pay attention to grammar. Fromkin and Rodman (2003:264) said that all people could use slang language in several occasions by introducing some new vocabularies combined with words into new meanings. For example, the words 'grass' which means a very common plant consisting of large numbers of thin, spiky, green leaves that cover the surface of the ground, and 'pot' of which the meaning is 'deep round container used for cooking stews, soups, and other food.(Collins Cobuild Dictionary on CD –Room 2006). When the two words are combined then it results in a new meaning of 'marijuana'.

The word slang was first introduced in the 18th century to refer the conversation among criminals. However, its function changed in the 18th and 19th centuries that slang language referred to the burglars coming from Latin and to the black guardians whose language was vulgar so that the slang language at that time was associated as 'bad language'. Meanwhile, in the 20th century slang was used by homosexuals in UK coming from the actors (Fromkin and Rodman, 2003:264).

The Use of Slang Language

The use of Slang language will be different in each place. The slang in USA is different from the slang in UK, and so is the slang in Sukabumi. It is Sani/ Widal Language. Sani is derived from the word 'Sandi' (code). However, most of the people of Sukabumi are familiar with Widal Language.'Widal" means 'Tipar', it is a name of a district in Sukabumi where the language was first created.

'Widal' Slang language is very different from the slang language propounded by Fromkin and Rodman that only combined some old words into a new meaning. Widal Language is a slang language created by changing consonants with other consonants and vowels with consonants, and consonants with vowels. Here are some of the proposed changes:

Table 1: Vowel Changes in Widal Slang Language

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
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VOWELS CHANGE IN INITIAL WORD			
LETTERS		SAMPLE	
A	Nya	Abi	Nyahi
I	Nyi	Ibu	Nyihu
U	Nyu	Ubi	Nyuhi
E	Nye	Eka	Nyena
O	Nyo	Opah	Nyodab
EU	Nyeu	Euweuh	Nyeuteub

Table 2: Consonant Change in Widal Slang Language

CONSONANT CHANGE IN INITIAL WORD			
LETTERS		SAMPLE	
B	H	Bumi	Huyi
C	J	Cinta	Jikwa
D	P	Damai	Payam
F	D	Feri	Deli
G	S	Gagal	Sasar
H	B	Hari	Bali
J	C	Jadi	Capi
K	N	Kemana	Neyaka
L	R	Libur	Rihul
M	Y	Mama	Yaya
N	K	Nakal	kanar
P	D	Palid	Darip
Q	N	Qiqi	Nini
R	L	Runtuh	Lukwub
S	G	Salerea	Garelenya
T	W	Teu	Weu
V	D	Vida	Dida
W	T	Wadah	tapab
X	N	xena	nena
Y	M	Yen	mek
Z	C	Zanat	Canat

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
  a. How vast is the Widal Slang Language Users today?
  b. How is the spread of Widal Slang Language to other regions?
  c. How is the change of Widal Slang Language Function?

METHODOLOGY
The research method applied in this research is descriptive qualitative method. It is a research that reveals qualitative information and accurately defines the characteristics of a thing, situation, and symptom or phenomena that can be captured. By applying the method, the researchers could accurately and deeply reveal the problems statement proposed in the research.

The approach applied in the research is sociolinguistics. The approach has a function to clearly see the social phenomena toward the use and the development of slang language in Sukabumi.

The techniques of collecting data are interview and questionnaires techniques.

IJLLALW

The source of data in the research is the Widal Slang Language users in Sukabumi.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Widal Slang Language Users
In Sukabumi, we can find some regions using the name of Tipar. In the city of Sukabumi Tipar is located in the sub districts of Citamiang and Lembur Situ, while in the Regency of Sukabumi the name of Tipar can be found in the sub districts of Cisaat and Sukaraja. Widal Slang Language was first developed in the region of Tipar, Citamiang Sukabumi City. The word *widal* is derived from *Tipar* since there is a change of consonant T into W, and P becomes D, as well as R becomes L, so *Tipar* becomes *widal* in Widal Slang Language.

The slang language was used during the struggle against the Dutch as *sani* or *sandi* (code). No one knows who the initiator of the language was, and so was the reason why the change of the consonants and vowels occurred. The most important thing at that time was the need of hiding message from the enemy. Almost all people who are the original inhabitants (not immigrant) in Tipar know Widal Slang Language. For the people of Tipar, mastering Widal Slang Language is a pride showing the identity of Tipar people. While for the immigrants living in Tipar, they are interested to learn the slang language because of social intercourse particularly for those who are still young. That's why the immigrants who have been long living there could understand and comprehend the language. Today, communication within family in the district of Tipar, in general, does not use Widal Slang Language, nevertheless it is found that some of family there still use the language in daily conversation. They do it due to their habit.

Nowadays, Widal Slang Language is commonly used by teenagers, adult and children. The old people have never used it anymore. However, the language is not commonly used as a whole in daily conversation, it means that not all expressions in daily conversation used in the language. They use it as a code – mixing by inserting some of widal words in their conversation. Though Widal Slang Language is rarely used as a whole in daily conversation, it does mean that the language has been forgotten by the society and the young generation in Tipar. Widal Slang Language still remains well preserved for the knowledge of the language is learnt from generation to generation. It occurs informally in the family and in the social intercourse among the Tipar people. Most of the people in Tipar start to learn Widal Slang Language since they were child. The language is taught to children by the adult. Besides, the curiosity of the children in learning the unusual Sundanese language makes them learn more how to use it. With the age development, Widal slang Language is sometimes used by Tipar people in their informal conversation; in spare time as a habit, in addressing their friends or only to show off to others as the language is a code for those who do not understand it.

Source Language of Widal
Widal Slang Language is a slang language created from the modification of vowels and consonants to disguise the meaning of the source language. The main purpose of the vowels and consonants change is to keep the secret of the messages delivered in Sundanese as a

IJLLALW

source language. In general, the source language used in Widal Slang Language is Sundanese. Besides, in social intercourse of teenagers and in a certain group of people like civilians, they use rough Sundanese as their source language in using Widal Slang Language. The following are the examples of source language adapted into Widal Slang Language.

Table 3: List of samples for Widal Slang Language

Sundanese	Widal Slang Language	Indonesian
Teh	Web	Teh
Kamana	Nayaka	Kemana
Duit	Putiw	Duit
Tipar	Widal	Tipar
Calana	Jaraka	Celana
Arek kamana	Nyalen nayaka	Mau ke mana?
Arek kadieu	Nyalen napinye	Mau ke sini
Ngomong	Nyoyong	Ngomong
Naon	Kanyok	Apa
Maneh	Yakeb	Kamu
Nguseup	Nyuged	Mancing
Balik	Harin	Pulang
Isuk – isuk	Nyigun – nyigun	Pagi – pagi
Boga	Hosa	Punya
Butuh	Huwub	Butuh
Budak	Hupan	Anak
Cokot	Jonow	Ambil
Hayam	Bamay	Ayam
Jurig	Culis	Hantu
Sorangan	Golanyak	Sendirian
Bapa	Hada	Bapa
Indung	Nyikpung	Ibu
Nyaho	Nyabo	Tau
Bau	Hanyu	Bau
Kawin	Natik	Menikah
Awewe	Nyatete	Perempuan
Nginum	Nyikuy	Minum
Tipu	Widu	Tipu
Sakola	Ganora	Sekolah
Parawan	Dalatak	Perawan
Randa	Lakpa	Janda
Ieu	Nyime	Ini
Roko	Lono	Rokok
Dahar	Pabal	Makan
Gelo	Sero	Gila
Ulin	Nyurik	Main
Tolol	Woror	Tolol
Ida	Nyipa	Ida
Gede	Sepe	Besar
Urang	Nyulang	Saya
Baju	Hacu	Baju
Tara mandi bau tarasi	Wala yakpi hanyu walanyi	Gak pernah mandi bau terasi

Basically, the vowels and consonants change used in Widal Slang Language could also be used in other languages. The changes can be used in other source language like Indonesia by applying the change of standard vowels and consonants in source language with the consonants and vowels in Widal Slang Language.

IJLLALW

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Regional Distribution of Widal Slang Language Users

Sukabumi City consists of 7 subdistricts and 33 villages. From the 7 subdistricts, Widal Slang Language is spread to 6 subdistricts. Some of the inhabitants in there use the language. It shows that the language is not onlu used in Tipar but has spread to other regions in Sukabumi.

Table 4: The Distribution of Widal Slang Language in Sukabumi City

Region	Subdistrict
Cipoho	Citamiang
Pasar Pelita	
Citaming	
Kebonjati	Cikole
Cikiray/pintuhek	
Cikole	
Jalan Ir. Juanda	
Balandongan	Lembur Situ
Cipanengah	
Baros	Baros
Lingkar Selatan	
Warudoyong	Warudoyong
Nyomplong	
Bhayangkara	Gunung Puyuh

The distribution of Widal Slang Language is not only spread in Sukabumi City but also to other regions of Sukabumi Regency. Some regions in Sukabumi Regency whose people use the language are Cisaat, Cibatu, Sukaraja, Cibadak, Jampang, and Pelabuhan Ratu. In addition, Widal Slang Language is also spread to other cities like Cianjur, Bandung, Jakarta, and Majalengka. In teh cities, the users of Widal Slang Language are those who have relevance to Sukabumi City or Sukabumi community.

The spread shows that Widal Slang Language has developed to other regions though the users are still limited. Nevertheless, people at least know that the language is derived from the subdistrict of Tipar Sukabumi City.

Distribution process of Widal Slang Language

Nowadays Widal Slang Language in not only popular in Tipar. The slang language has spread to some regions in Sukabumi City and other regions. It occurs because of population mobility and social intercourse.

The movement of Tipar popolation to other regions is one of the factors in the spread of Widal Slang Language to other regions. There are many population of Tipar who master the slang language move and stay permanently to other regions.

In their new place, they do not forget the language especially for the young people. By the time they meet up one another they always use the language to show the familiarity and to show thier identity that they are from Tipar, Sukabumi. Such familiarity indirectly indicate the

92

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existance of Widal Slang Language. As the result, the language is known by the people living around them and it makes them interested to know and try to learn the language.

The spread of the language does not only occur by population mobility, but also occurs because of job opportunity in other places that attract people from Tipar to work there. In their new place they usually use Tipar Language and teach it to their new friends.
Besides the mobility of population the spread of the Slang Language also happens due to the social intercourse. This factor is the most dominant one in the spread of Widal Slang Language to other places especially the places around Sukabumi.

The spread of Widal Slang Language through social intercourse is mostly done by the young people. The spread happens when they make friend with young people from other places. They usually use the language when they want to conceal something in their conversation. For those in their community who do not understand the slang language will be taught how to speak or they are eager to learn it.

The youngsters from other place who have learnt Widal Slang Language will usually use it in their places. They introduce the slang language to their friends so the Widal Slang Language is known in their places. Another factor that influences the spread of Widal Slang Language is the people coming to Tipar. After they live there for long time, they learn and understand the slang language. They feel proud after they master it and they feel really like the origin of Tipar People. Then they will introduce the language to their friends when they return to their places. This process helps the slang language to spread to some other places in West Java such as; Cianjur, Bandung, Jakarta and Majalengka.

The Change of Widal Slang Language Function
As discussed previously that Widal Slang Language was created as the secret language in the time of Indonesian struggle against Colonialists (Netherland). On that time, there were many Dutchmen living there. This condition inspired the patriotic and Tipar People to create secret language so that the information about the struggle was not easily understood by the enemy. This was the reason why Widal Slang Language was created that was, in the beginning, known as 'Sani' (Code) Language or Widal Code.

After Indonesia got its independence, Widal Slang Language is still used but the main function has changed. The main function of Widal Slang Language today is as common language not as a secret language anymore. Tipar People were so proud to perpetuate and descend to the next generation of Tipar but in a certain community the langauge is still used as secret language especially when they communicate among people who do not understand it.

The use of the Widal Slang Language among the youngsters is not intended to be the secret language because usually there is no message to hide in their conversation. They use it just to be more intimate with their friends. Among Young people of Tipar, the use of the slang language is also to show off that they are from Tipar. The pride of having the slang language

93

is indirectly to perpetuate Widal Slang Language until today. Besides Young people at Tipar, the users of the language are gangster community.

Besides the main function as lingua franca among the youngsters, Widal Slang Language is still used as secret language in a certain community. The use of the language as secret language has different context as it had previously. Today Widal Slang Language is used as secret language especially by the seller from Tipar in the traditional market.

The seller community from Tipar use Widal Slang Language as secret language for economic purposes. The language is used by the sellers when they want to ask the price of a certain goods so the buyers do not know the basic price. For example, when one of the seller asks the price to another seller using Widal Slang Language; *Sabaraha*? (How Much?), *Dua Rebu* (Sundanese) (Two Thousand) in Widal Slang Language; *Gahalaba*? (how much?) *Puta Lehu*. (two thousand). Besides the sellers, gangster communities from Tipat also use the slang language as their secret language. They use the slang language to communicate among them.

CONCLUSION
The Conclusions of this research are;
1. Widal Slang Language is still used by most Tipar People eventhough the use of it as daily language is rare. The slang language is mostly used by the young people. The Sundanese language used as language source for Widal Slang Language is semi-language. Today the of Widal Slang Language is not in Tipar but it has spread to other places around Sukabumi.
2. There are two main ways of Widal Slang Language spread to other places around Sukabumi and West Java; through community association and population mobility. The process of people association is the most significant way.
3. Widal Slang Language function today is as lingua franca among the youngs although certain communities still use it as secret language.

Limitation of study
There are many slang languages either in Sukabumi City or in West Java, therefore the researchers made a limitation on the slang language which is only available at Tipar District, Sukabumi City.

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A STUDY ON THE EFFECT OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY: A CASE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

Critical pedagogy as a teaching approach attempts to help students question and challenge domination, and the beliefs and practices that dominate in order to motivate the learners to be more successful language achievers. Consequently, this study is focused on the impact of the critical pedagogy on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' reading comprehension. In this study, 54 students were randomly and equally assigned to the experimental and control groups (27 students in each group). To see the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension, reading comprehension test in form of multiple choice and some open ended questions were used as a pre – test and post – test to assess the participants' reading comprehension in both control and experimental group.The results revealed that the critical approach to the teaching of reading leads to a better comprehension of the text. In this way, learners develop a deeper understanding of their social environment, their histories, and themselves.

KEYWORDS: critical pedagogy, reading comprehension, EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners

INTRODUCTION

There has always been an attempt to improve the pedagogical practices in any educational system to increase learning. While learning English as an international language has been increased, language practitioners, teachers, and educational authorities have tried to present better ways of learning and teaching English to promote learners' awareness. This awareness can be fostered through critical pedagogy. Teaching under the critical pedagogy aims to lead to social changes. From this standpoint, language is not simply a means to express or communicate; instead, it is a product that is constructed by the ways language learners recognize themselves, their social surroundings, their histories, and their potentialities for the future.

According to Brown (2000), critical pedagogy emphasizes that learners be free to themselves; to think for themselves; to behave intellectually without coercion from the powerful elite; and to develop their beliefs, traditions, and cultures. Bercaw and Stooksberry (2004) believed that

96

IJLLALW

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critical pedagogy follows three main principles: a) reflection upon the individual's culture or lived experience, b) development of voice through a critical look at one's world and society, and c) reduction of social oppression and transforming the society toward equality for all citizens. Therefore, there is a great need for its users and learners to be critical in their learning and using of the language. The idea of associating critical pedagogy with education has mainly been developed by some key figures such as Freire (1970), Giroux (1992), Luke (1988), McLaren (1989), and Simon (1992).

According to McLaren (2003), critical pedagogy is a way of thinking, negotiating, transforming, and producing the knowledge. As Aliakbari and Allahmoradi (2012) also mentioned, critical pedagogy raises students' consciousness of the injustices and inequalities surrounding them. Critical pedagogy intends to enhance students and teachers' self-esteem to question the power relations in society (McLaren, 2003; Peterson, 2003).This pedagogy encourages individuals to cooperate with one another to solve problems and develop the sense of trust among people. As Kanpol (1998) stated, critical pedagogy is creating a classroom environment which is democratic and highlights students' viewpoints through discussion. Critical pedagogy aims at preparing learners who can solve both their own problems and the ones related to the society. It tries to develop cooperative learning and consciousness-raising among learners.

In a democratic society, schools serve as the place where students learn to become informed citizens. Schools empower learners toward participation and action by teaching them how to listen, how to identify alternatives, how to consider possibilities and how to search for multiple possible answers (Freire, 2002). From this perspective, reading is a libertarian activity and not an action of conformity (Freire, 1992).

Reading is an interactive process and meaning is constructed as a result of the dialogue between a text and a reader (Rosenblatt, 1996). Reading has been used in classrooms both as a tool for language development and as a way of supplementing and extending content area knowledge (Rudman, 1993; Smallwood, 2004). Reading comprehension is an interactive process that students complete between themselves and a text. The more students can question and summarize a text, the more they are using prior knowledge and arriving at new conclusions from their reading (Gonzalez, 2003).

Sweet and Snow (2003) declared that reading comprehension doesn't occur in vacuum. It involves the reader, the text, and the activity of reading that is further influenced by the learners' socio- cultural context. They added that the socio- cultural context for readers may be characterized by home, school, community, and peer groups. According to Grey (1987), the major goal of students' reading should be to understand and comprehend a text. Comprehension involves fluency, vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of the ways text are organized, knowledge of the world, and strategies for fostering, decoding and monitoring comprehension (Middleton, 2011).

A critical approach to the teaching of reading involves the search for multiple possible interpretations and requires that teachers stimulate differences in the way readers relate to a text.

Equally important, learning to read a text critically requires developing an awareness of how the themes that students read can lead to individual and collective transformation (Naiditch, 2009*).*As a result, having lifelong literacy learners, learners must be motivated to engage in literacy activities (Baker & Wigfield, 1999). These literacy activities can be done through using critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy intends to enhance students and teachers' self-esteem to question the power relations in society. A crucial aspect of reading engagement is considered to be motivation because it is an effortful activity that involves choice (Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks, & Pen, 2004).

Despite the significance of applying critical pedagogy in educational settings, it has been neglected in Iranian EFL contexts to some extent. So investigating the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension needed to be reviewed. The present study aims to investigate the following question:
What is the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension?

Statement of the problem
The poor English reading ability of EFL students is a commonly recognized problem in EFL classes. The reading ability of EFL students especially those who are not English majors is reported low to medium (Anusornorakarn, 2002; Chinwonno, 2001; Rattanawanitpun, 1999; & Sucompa, 1998). In traditional pedagogy, teachers are considered the sole authority in the classroom whose main responsibility is to transfer content knowledge from their mind to students' mind. There is a socially failed connection between the teacher and the students in the classroom and learners are passive recipients of knowledge.

The main purpose of critical pedagogy is to use education as a means to bring about a more socially just society (Kanpol, 1999; Kessing-Styles, 2003; Kincheloe, 2004). According to Kincheloe (2008), the main assumptions of critical pedagogy are the positive changes in relationship between student and teacher, and the promotion of emancipation. Norton and Toohey (2004) believed that critical pedagogy considers language as a social practice that paves the way for learners to understand themselves, their social surroundings, and their histories when they learn English. According to Shor (1992), this radical approach to education relates personal growth to public life by developing strong skills, academic knowledge, habits of inquiry, and critical curiosity about society, power inequality and change. The teaching of reading is an appropriate vehicle for teachers to help learners develop critical thinking skills (Krashen, 2004), a way to enable students to develop reasoning and argumentative skills, and a means to learn to express their opinions in socially acceptable ways (Naiditch, 2006). The critical language educator relates knowledge of grammar and vocabulary to knowledge of social problems to act to solve these problems. Learners are active in the classroom and in society in critical pedagogy. Therefore, this study probes the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension.

Significance of the study
This study is in significance of providing information on the issue of reading comprehension in EFL classrooms. Reading comprehension is a skill that is critical in the educational success of all

IJLLALW

individuals. It is an important skill needed for all areas of school (Baier,2005). For developing students' reading comprehension, creating positive and dynamic conditions are necessary. The importance of reading according to Wigfield and Eccles (1992) is the value of work which is derived from reading motivation process. Reading in the classroom should be a fun and motivating activity that engages students at the same time and promotes the development of critical thinking skills. While reading, students learn to question and to search for answers (Naiditch, 1993).

Moreover, this study is in significance of integrating critical pedagogy as a teaching approach. Through critical pedagogy, students can become socially engaged citizens and more active, autonomous, and energetic in the teaching – learning process (Naiditch, 1993). Critical pedagogy is a movement involving relationships of teaching and learning so that students gain a critical self-consciousness and social awareness and take appropriate action against oppressive forces (McLaren,2012). Using critical pedagogy in teaching or learning helps not only learners to learn better but also increases learners' motivation, corporation and social action.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Definition of Pedagogy
Pedagogy is the practice of teaching framed and informed by a shared and structured body of knowledge. This knowledge comprises experience and evidence, and understands moral purposes and shared transparent values. It is by virtue of progressively acquiring such knowledge and mastering the expertise through initial training, continuing development, reflection, classroom inquiry and regulated practice that teachers are entitled to be treated as professionals (Pollard, 2010).

Bhowmik, Roy and Banerjee (2013) believed that pedagogy is the art (and science) of teaching. Effective teachers use an array of teaching strategies because there is no single universal approach that suits all situations. Different strategies are used in different combinations with different groups of students to improve their learning outcomes. Some teaching strategies are better suited to teaching certain skills and fields of knowledge than are others. Some strategies are better suited to certain student backgrounds, learning styles and abilities. Pedagogy, incorporating an array of teaching strategies supports intellectual engagement connected to the wider world, and should be implemented across all key learning, and subject areas**.**

According to Bhowmik, Roy and Banerjee (2013), pedagogical practice promotes the wellbeing of students, teachers and the school community. It improves students' and teachers' confidence and contributes to their sense of purpose for being at school; it builds community confidence in the quality of learning and teaching in the school. Effective teaching necessitates making difficult and principled choices, exercising careful judgment, and honoring the complex nature of the educational mission **(**Bhowmik, Roy & Banerjee, 2013).

Bhowmik, Roy and Banerjee (2013**)** proposed that based on the latest developments in pedagogy, teaching has become more than an activity that conserves valued knowledge and skills by

99

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transmitting them to succeeding generations. Therefore, teachers also have the responsibility to challenge existing structures, practices, and definitions of knowledge; to invent and test new approaches; and, where necessary, to pursue organizational changes in a constant attempt to improve the school.

Effective teaching through pedagogy displays skills at creating curricula designed to build on students' present knowledge and understanding and move them to more sophisticated and in-depth abilities, knowledge, concepts, and performances. In addition, pedagogy helps to make a range of instructional strategies and resources to match the variety of student skills and provide each student several ways of exploring important ideas, skills, and concepts (Bhowmik, Roy & Banerjee, 2013).

Definition of Critical Pedagogy
The concept of "critical perspectives" including critical pedagogy, critical language awareness, and critical literacy in the field of education has been appropriated by a group whose intellectual root is perceived as a realization of critical theory of pre-World War II Frankfurt School (Pinar & Bowers, 1992), which advocated a Marxist analytical model using injustice and class subjugation as the primary lens for understanding human experience (Kincheloe & McLaren, 1994).Immerging from within the critical theory of the Frankfurt School, the concept of critical pedagogy is often associated with the work of scholars such as Freire (1970), Giroux (1992), Luke (1988), McLaren (1989), and Simon (1992) in the field of education. These scholars have much in common in their understandings of critical pedagogy. Such realizations, along with propositions and introductions by leading figures, were influential in maintaining basic assumptions and principles of critical pedagogy.

In a recent study, Aliakbari and Faraji (2011) reviewed critical pedagogy's principles. They referred to these principles as problem posing education, political educational system, use of authentic materials, paradigm shift in the assumed roles for teachers and students, learners' empowerment, avoidance of marginalization, and development of critical consciousness, praxis, dialogism, and learners' conscientization. To provide a common background for the research conducted, these principles are briefly introduced. One principle of critical pedagogy is problem posing education, introduced as an alternative to banking model education in which the teacher is active and the student is passive in the learning process (Freire, 1970).

Shor (1980) stated that problem posing education encourages critical learning. Such learning "aids people in knowing what holds them back and imagining a social order which supports their full humanity" (p.48).Through problem posing, students and teachers examine their experiences and perspectives in the light of those of other people and in relation to large public issues and processes of domination and liberation. Such a multiplicity of perspectives under meaningful inquiry can illuminate students' understanding of why people act in the ways that they do (Nieto, 1995). According to certain theorists of the field (Giroux, 1997; Shannon, 1992; Shor, 1992), the most important theme running through critical pedagogy literature is the belief that educational systems worldwide are political. Keessing-Styles (2003) asserted that school and political analysis of life should be at the center of the curriculum.

IJLLALW

According to Shannon (1992),all of the decisions made by educators regarding program and lesson goals, the materials to be used, and the nature of teacher interaction with students "are actually negotiations over whose values, interests, and beliefs will be validated at school" (p.2). The use of authentic materials constitutes another principle of critical pedagogy. The authentic materials help students link their knowledge to the existing problems in society and take necessary actions for their improvement.

Ohara, Safe, and Crooks (2000) pointed out that a critical pedagogy lesson plan should be based on authentic materials such as TV programs, commercials, video movies, and etc., which are representative of the culture that is to be examined by the students and which serves as the basis for discussion and critical reflection of the culture. In critical pedagogy, teachers and students are asked to adopt new roles. Freire (1970) asserted that the teacher is no longer merely the-one-who-teaches, but the-one-who-is taught-in-dialogue-with-the-students, the one who while being taught also teaches.

In Kanpol's (1998) view, a critical pedagogue will seek education by understanding that "authority" has multiple meanings and can be democratically negotiated. The teacher is an authority over his/her subject matter.The teacher is not the only authority in the classroom; teachers and students share each other's knowledge. Teachers can use their authority to create relationships which, in turn, enhances an education relationship that challenges schooling notions of oppressive race, class, and gender stereotypes. Critical pedagogy requires a classroom environment that is democratic, where students' viewpoints are highlighted through discussion and debates and there is shared power and dialogue among teachers and students.

In Momenian and Shirazizadeh (2009), the term critical pedagogy is like a tree with some very central branches, or the basic principles. "Empowerment" is one of those main branches of great moment in critical pedagogy. It is mainly concerned with developing in students and teachers the self-esteem to question the power relations in society (McLaren, 2003; Peterson, 2003).

One aim of critical pedagogy, according to Freire (1970), is to return to marginalized groups their lost voices and identities to think about their situation and find out why things are the way they are. Critical pedagogy focuses on power relationships between different groups and on how power is used. According to Kincheloe (2007), students must be able to identify who gains and who loses in specific situations and they must be made aware that privileged groups often have an interest in supporting the status quo to protect their advantages.

Praxis also constitutes another principle of critical pedagogy. The key in praxis is the ongoing partnership among action, reflection, and dialogue. For Monchinski (2008), praxis is a complex activity by which individuals create culture and society and become critically conscious human beings. He also refers to self-determination and rationality as characteristics of praxis. For Freire (1970), dialogue is a conversation with a focus and a purpose which shows that the object of the study is not the exclusive property of the teacher. Knowledge is not produced somewhere in a textbook and in offices and then transferred to the students.

IJLLALW

Another principle of critical pedagogy is conscientization or raising students' consciousness of the injustices and inequalities surrounding them. Walker (2008) maintained that conscientization cannot exist without or outside praxis; the two exist in unity and express the permanently dialectical characteristics of the way people are and the way they transform the world. He also states that similarly, critical consciousness cannot exist without a sense of historicity. By understanding how the actions of people in the past have led to the current situation of reality, people can then understand how their own actions will have an impact on the future. Only with historicity and praxis does the attainment of a critical consciousness become a reality.

Critical Pedagogy in ELT
Critical pedagogy in language teaching is a perspective in language curriculum theory and instructional practice that supports and advances teaching and the study of languages in ways that would promote social justice (Crookes, 2012). Crooks (2012) added that ,in this case, the popular term social justice is based in one or more critiques of present-day society (or societies) that reflects the interests of the working class, women, non-heterosexuals, ethnic minorities, marginalized people, and includes perspectives that valorize environmental conservation and peace. 'Critique' refers to systematic and constructive criticism based on empirical and theoretical study of society, language, and the person reflecting alternative, progressive, or radical theories of societies, individuals, and languages. Language is understood here broadly, as having both structural and functional dimensions, socially implicated as discourse and thus involved in the construction of individuals and the maintenance and change of societal structures (Crooks, 2012).

When a teacher is not satisfied with the current methods suggested in SLA, what alternative options are available? Researchers (Benesch, 2001; Canagarajah, 1999, 2002a; Morgan 1998; Norton, 1997; Norton & Toohey, 2004; Pennycook, 1999, 2001;Ramanathan 2002) have recently proposed that critical pedagogy is crucial to English language teaching. Given the importance of social, cultural, and historical perspectives on language learning, it is unwise to claim any approach to be the 'universal' and 'absolute' answer. Yet it is worth considering how a critical approach understands learning as locally situated, personal, socio-historical, and political, and thus allows for teaching approaches which are appropriate to particular situations.

Critical pedagogy has its origin in the field of education. A Brazilian educationalist, Freire, has probably been the most influential person in adult education as well as community development and is considered to be the founder of critical pedagogy. In the 1960s, Freire challenged the predominant view of literacy as mastering a set of cognitive skills. He proposed that when literacy is taught as a collection of decontextualized, and meaningless skills, starting with letters and sounds divorced from any significance in learners' lives, the learners cannot be reflective or bring their own experiences to the learning process, and therefore literacy becomes the object rather than the means of instruction.

Freire called this the "banking model" of education. He suggested that a "problem-posing" process makes literacy immediately relevant and engaging by focusing on problematic issues in learner lives. This process also creates opportunities where 'common-sense' knowledge is

IJLLALW

examined in an uncommon and critical manner (Simon, 1992). From this theoretical position of sociopolitically situated learning, Freire created a grass-roots movement that trained college students for work in a critical literacy campaign. The campaign teachers engaged adult learners in dialogues about key words representing problematic issues in their lives in order to foster critical analysis of these issues. In addition, being a learner along with the students, the teacher showed how knowledge is constructed and shared by the group through dialogues.

In this way, learners become the creators rather than the recipients of knowledge. They became subjects as opposed to objects of their world and learned to recognize hegemonic forms of control for what they were and together found ways to resist them. The Freirian approach to education both contributed to a reconceptualization of literacy as socially constructed rather than skill-based and initiated "problem-posing" as a model for enabling learners to become active agents in shaping their own realities.

Through the perception that society is actually unequal and unfair, critical approaches to second Educators of English as a Second Language (ESL) who believe in critical pedagogy find it significant to adapt the theory of critical pedagogy into their curriculum and syllabuses particularly as ESL teaching mostly deals with racial and language minorities (i.e. immigrants and foreign students).

According to the studies conducted on second language learner identities by Norton, 2000; MaKay and Wong, 1996; Miller, 2003, some second language learners, without social, communicative, and linguistic competencies, and often with damaged identities, face hardships living in a new country. Language teaching and learning must be connected to the objectives of educating students, to understand why things are the way they are and how they got to be that way (Simon, cited in Morgan, 1998). Critical ESL pedagogy is the "pedagogy of hope" (Freire, 1992).

In the field of second language learning, a critical pedagogy approach has attracted considerable attention and rapidly gained momentum (Norton & Toohey, 2004). Pennycook (1999) reviewed several important shared critical pedagogical concepts as well as different approaches to critical pedagogy for second language learning. He maintained that a critical approach to pedagogy needs to "aim at transformation, a way of shifting pedagogical relations to give students more curricular control, and ways of engaging with difference not merely in terms of inclusivity and issues but also at the level of desire" (p.341). Pennycook cautioned that teachers and learners need to see critical approaches not so much a static body of knowledge and practices, but as always being in flux and involving a complex cluster of social, cultural, political, and pedagogical concerns.

According to Safari and Pourhashemi (2012), the concept of critical pedagogy is actually associated with the work of scholars including Freire (1970), Giroux (1992), Luke (1988), Mclaren (1989), and Simon (1992) who focused their efforts on examining and understanding the roles that schools play in transmitting certain messages about political, economic and social life. Critical pedagogy will allow educators to realize the possibilities of democratic social values within their classrooms (Kincheloe, 2004). Freeman and Anderson (2011) believed that CP is an

IJLLALW

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approach to teaching that aims to create a more egalitarian society by raising awareness of social injustice as a necessary part of the curriculum.

Critical pedagogy is a teaching approach that attempts to help students question and challenge domination, beliefs and practices that dominate. It is a theory and practice of helping students achieve critical consciousness (Riasati & Mollaei, 2012). Luke and Gore (1992) pointed out that critical pedagogy is not single-strategy pedagogies of empowerment and liberation but should be able to evolve in response to local contexts and needs. Critical pedagogy encourages teachers to consider their practice critically and complexities of the educational process through various viewpoints. Moreover, critical pedagogues share an end of academic success for each student, demonstrated in the preparation and experience of children to be active citizens in a fully democratic society (Riasati & Mollaei, 2012).

In order to be satisfactorily implemented in ELT classrooms, any innovative approach encounters ups and downs in the process of development to reach to its burgeoning phase. Lopez (2004) applied critical pedagogy for examining teacher and students' perceptions of language, development of cultural awareness, and critical thinking skills in a Spanish classroom. She concluded that through the application of critical pedagogy, the Spanish language classroom has the potential of becoming a space in which students not only attain language proficiency, but also become cross-culturally competent.

Jeyaraj (2014) conducted semi-structured interviews with thirteen ELT teachers who were from different countries. ELT teachers, who were critical pedagogues, reported that their students learning experiences so that they could find out more about the impact of adopting critical pedagogy. Leanna (2014) considered teachers who may not have explicitly learned about or applied critical pedagogy in their teaching and investigated how feasible and desirable they find the common themes in critical pedagogy to be based on their teaching experiences. Through the interviews, three themes emerge most strongly; power/authority among students and teachers, the political nature of education, and teaching about social issues in the classroom.

Sadeghi (2008) conducted a research on critical pedagogy in an EFL teaching context in Bandar Abbas and emphasized on the partnership between critical pedagogy and an indigenous way of thinking in which both teacher and learners are aware and proud of their traditions, beliefs, priorities and collaboratively work to create a richer pedagogical context. Akbari and Allahmoradi (2012) surveyed 200 Iranian school teachers' views concerning critical pedagogy at elementary, secondary, and high school levels and the results indicated that critical pedagogy was absent and unknown in the Iranian educational system. Pishghadam and Naji (2012) investigated the effect of critical pedagogy in educational system by asking 15 Iranian university students to write down their feeling under the title of philosophy of education. At the end, they concluded that it should be considered appropriate place for critical pedagogy in the educational system. Although the concept of CP has been around for some time in education, it has been recently explored in the practice of English Language Teaching (Davari ,2012).While educators in the fields of literacy education, ESL, and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) have discussed a great number of articles and descriptions of the actual application of critical pedagogy

(e.g.Norton and Toohey, 2004;Benesch, 2001;Auerback, 1995), much less has been reported in the EFL context, since critical pedagogy has been set aside as culturally inappropriate specially for the East Asian contexts (Crooks 2010).

One of the few studies carried out in an EFL context is reported by Shin and Crooks (2005). The study investigated Korean high school students' responses to critical dialogues and non-authoritarian interactions with teachers. The results of the study indicated that students were not resistant to the materials including critical topics, and that East Asian students are capable of coping with critical approaches. EFL learners are quite different from ESL learners, since many of them involve the category of future bilinguals. Within the EFL context, learners come from different backgrounds of gender, sexuality, social classes, and the endeavors within micro-relations of power always exist. In addition, when the learners are actually the elite members of the society who exercise power, critical pedagogy might play an important role in education since the language learning could be a tool for them to understand how to dominate societal power, how to convert that power to the less-powerful, and how to exercise their influence in a right way to make the world a better and more equal place.

EFL critical pedagogy might be the "pedagogy of possibility" (Simon, 1992). Crooks (2010) firmly pointed out that more reports of the actual application of EFL critical pedagogy are required. Increased sensitivity to diversity, to different types of oppression, is likely to make radical pedagogical initiatives more relevant in a variety of classrooms, especially in EFL contexts.

Reading Comprehension in ELT
Reading is a lifelong skill to be used by EFL speakers both at school and throughout life. According to Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson (1985), reading is a basic life skill. It is a cornerstone for a child's success in school and, indeed, throughout life. Without the ability to read well, opportunities for personal fulfilment and job success inevitably will be lost. Reading has been considered the most important of the four language skills (Koch, 1974).Therefore, various aspects of reading have been heavily investigated over the past years. Some of the most prolific research reported in the literature has been concerned with readers' interests, preferences and tastes (Gray, cited in Koch,1974). Because educators have recognized the importance of reading interests as a motivating factor in the reading process, more studies were concerned with reading interests and preferences of children and adults than any other reading issues.

Reading is also considered an essential skill by all types of people, and perceived as being vital for people's job prospects. Parents feel that reading with their children is very important and a vital part of their children's development (The National Literacy Trust, 1998). However, despite there being a universal belief in the importance of reading, different groups of people (including students) hold different attitudes to reading and have very different reading interests and habits.

A consistent theme in the literature on reading instruction for the EFL students is the importance of personal interests as a significant determinant of positive attitude toward reading. Fostering the optimum level of reading motivation for developing readers' abilities depends heavily on

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providing reading materials that appeal to students' personal interests. Most scholarships on building reading programs recommend that readers be given some freedom to shape their own literacy development by self-selecting personally interesting reading materials for a variety of purposes. Indeed, recognizing the power of personal interest to inspire engagement with reading, many researchers advocate building into the literacy curriculum as many opportunities as possible for all students to self-select reading materials that interest them (Cavazos-Kottke, 2004).

Reading experts believe that reading interests play a very important role in reading instruction and improvement. Furthermore, helping students learn through reading requires an understanding of their interests and abilities. Edgier (1999) claimed that interest is a powerful psychological factor in learning. Moreover, the individual's reading interests are considered one of the major factors that determine what s/he reads, not to mention the importance for one's attitudes toward reading.

The importance of capitalizing on reading motivation stems from the fact that there is a relationship between reading interests and reading comprehension. Spache (cited in Shnayer, 1967) claimed that when interest is high, students read materials that are above their proficiency levels. He also maintained that books that are high in interest may be reacted to as appropriate in difficulty even when these are actually above the students' reading levels by two or more grade levels. But when the interest is low, students often rate books as too hard even when they are below their reading levels. Hence, any proper evaluation of the students' reading comprehension should take into account the interest factor and its influence on performance.

Learning to read is a very complex activity requiring the use of knowledge, skills and strategies (Davis, 2011). It involves a process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning (Sweet & Snow, 2003). Since reading comprehension is like dialogue between the reader and the author and the author is trying to communicate his / her thoughts and ideas through the text. Not only does reading comprehension at the most basic level include mastery of "the basic decoding skills that serve to attach meaning to written symbols (Wagner & Sternberg, 1987)**,** but it also encompasses the prior knowledge of the reader. In addition to these skills, reading comprehension may also entail the ability to determine how and where to apply one's reading resources in order to maximally reach one's goals in a comprehension given situation (Wagner *&* Sternberg, 1987)**.** In other words, beyond the mechanical skills of reading and the application of the reader's prior knowledge and experience, a reader also needs to know what is to be done with the information he or she is processing.

Meehan (1999) investigated the reading interests and habits of teenagers. They found that 66% of the respondents read magazines, 59% read newspapers; and 48% read the backs of cereal boxes or other packages. They also found that their favourite genres are mysteries, adventure, horror, and true stories. Moreover, it was found that the favourite books are classics, bestsellers, and young adult novels. Finally, they found that the teenagers read for pleasure, personal satisfaction, and for study purposes.

IJLLALW

Machet (2001) examined the reading interests of young people at the end of the 20th century. Machet also attempted to discern conventional forms of reading (printed matters) and new developments in the presentation of the interactions with text including audio tapes, CD-ROMs and internet. The study showed that children aged between 7 and 11 were highly interested in reading religious books. The findings also indicated that children showed a relative lack of interest in comics.

Mao (2011) carried out a research on L2 motivation and its application in a reading class in senior high schools to understand the effect of motivation on learning. The researcher used a questionnaire in order to collect the data and he concluded that combination of integrative motivation and instrumental motivation can exert a more influence on reading class improvement and English teachers shall take some effective application to arouse student's motivation in reading classes and help them develop integrative motivation for English learning.

Since reading comprehension is so critical in terms of academic success, it can be argued that motivating a student to read is equally crucial. In order to understand the significance of what is read one must be a critical reader. Critical readers have the ability to move forward or backward through the text and can relate different parts of the text to each other to get a better grip on understanding (Chapman, 1993).

The concept of critical pedagogy (CP) has been around for some time in education but there hasn't been so much research in ELT conducted on implementing the basic tenants of CP into the classrooms regarding the current developments in EFL contexts. Critical pedagogy as a new approach to language teaching has not long been introduced, studied, and researched in the educational settings of Iran. According to Safari & Pourhashemi (2012), it is not exaggeration to say that critical pedagogy is like a new born infant in the educational system of Iran, in need of maturity and development. Hence, lots of researches and studies are required to theoretically and practically indicate a vivid picture of its application in such an EFL context.

Reviewing the literature of CP, a wide range of researches across the globe attempting to theoretically and conceptually appreciate the different aspects of CP can be seen. However, much less has been reported to explore the practical considerations and problems of CP in EFL contexts like Iran. So investigating the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension needed to be reviewed to fill the existing gap.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. What is the different between EFL learners' reading comprehension in control group before and after using critical pedagogy?
2. What is the different between EFL learners' reading comprehension in experimental group before and after using critical pedagogy?
3. What is the different between EFL learners' reading comprehension in control and experimental group after using critical pedagogy?

IJLLALW

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In this study, 100 students were randomly selected among boy high schools located in Kerman, district 2. The population was intermediate male (14 -16 years old) EFL students in high schools. A Cambridge Placement Test (CPT) was used to have almost homogenous groups. After administrating the CPT, a number of 46 students who couldn't get the desired score were omitted. Finally, the number of students reduced to 54 students who were randomly and equally assigned to the experimental and control groups (27 students in each group).

Instruments

To see the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension, reading comprehension test (EnglishForEveryone.org graded English Worksheets) in form of multiple choice and some open ended questions were used as a pre – test and post – test to assess the participants' reading comprehension in both control and experimental group. The reading tests were graded tests; intermediate (low to high) with controlled level of difficulty (lexicon and structure).

To consider the internal consistency reliability (to evaluate the degree to which different test items that probe the same construct produce similar results), split-half reliability as a subtype of internal consistency reliability was used. The process of obtaining split-half reliability begun by splitting in half all items of the test that were intended to probe the same area of knowledge in order to form two sets of items. The entire test was administered, the total score for each set was computed, and finally the split-half reliability was obtained by determining the correlation between the two total set scores. The reliability of the test was (0.87). To check the validity, (EnglishForEveryone.org graded English Worksheets) comprehension tests, as valid reading comprehension tests were used in a way to test the topics being covered at class to follow the content relevance and content coverage validity, and also ten university professors as experts of English language teaching filed were asked to check the questions considering the content validity of the test, and the answers were analyzed based on the Content Validity Ratio Formula (CVR).In accordance with Lawsche (1975), questions whose CVR was more than 0.81were chosen as the main items.

Procedure

This study was conducted in boy high schools located in Kerman, district two. It was a quantitative experimental study. In this study, the independent variable was critical pedagogy, and dependent variable was reading comprehension of EFL learners. To see the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension, reading comprehension test (EnglishForEveryone.org graded English Worksheets) in form of multiple choice and some open ended questions were used as a pre – test and post – test to assess the participants' reading comprehension in both control and experimental group. Both groups received the same materials during the course considering the same teacher, and the same setting. Both groups participated in the study for 20 sessions, and 9 reading comprehension texts were practiced in both groups. In control group, the reading texts were practiced in a traditional way, but in the experimental group, the reading texts were practiced in the problem-posing model of critical pedagogy; the

teacher participated in critical dialogues along with the students, contributing them to identify the subjects they themselves saw as problematic, and rather than solving problems, reflect back these problems (problem-posing) as the incentive for a process of collaboratively constructed knowledge.

During the dialogical engagement between teacher and students and students themselves, the life experiences of students were underlined through which the students began to recognize each other as sources of knowledge. While producing and evaluating their learning materials, students were engaged in the decision making process in class, which in turn resulted in their own decision-making outside the classroom. From this perspective the teacher worked to lead students to question ideologies and practices considered oppressive (including those at school), and encouraged libratory collective and individual responses to the actual conditions of their own lives.

Data Collection and Data Analysis
The data in this study was collected by asking the participants (students) to answer the reading test questions (pre and post). All the answers to reading tests were used as the data in this study. In analyzing the data, descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, statistical package for the social science (SSPP 16) and Excel 2010 were used. In descriptive statistics, frequency tables, and bar charts were used. In inferential statistics, independent – sample T test and paired – sample T test were used to examine the research questions.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
In this part, the data investigating the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension is analyzed.

What is the different between EFL learners' reading comprehension in control group before and after using critical pedagogy?
To investigate this question, the Independent Sample T test was used (table 4.6). Regarding the P – value that is less than 0.01 (p – value = 0.0005), it can be said with more than 99% confidence, that mean of reading comprehension in control group before and after using critical pedagogy was not significantly different (t= - 8.13 , df=26, p<0.01). It means that the mean of reading comprehension in control group after using critical pedagogy (M_2 = 11.57, SD_2 = 2.49) was not significantly more than before using critical pedagogy (M_1= 10.74, SD_1= 2.52).

Table 1: Independent – Sample T Test of Reading Comprehension Scores in Control   Group before and after using Critical Pedagogy

Time	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Test	df	P-Value
Pretest	27	10.74	2.52	-8.13	26	0.0005
Posttest	27	11.57	2.49			

What is the different between EFL learners' reading comprehension in experimental group before and after using critical pedagogy?

To investigate this question, the Independent Sample T test was used (table 4.7). Regarding the P – value that is less than 0.01 (p – value = 0.0005), it can be said with more than 99% confidence, that mean of reading comprehension in experimental group before and after using critical pedagogy was significantly different ($t= -27.97$, df=26, $p<0.01$). It means that the mean of reading comprehension in experimental group after using critical pedagogy ($M_2 = 14.27$, $SD_2 = 3.25$) was more than before using critical pedagogy ($M_1 = 9.52$, $SD_1 = 3.47$).

Table 2: Independent – Sample T Test of Reading Comprehension Scores in Experimental Group before and after using Critical Pedagogy

Time	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Test	Df	P-Value
Pretest	27	9.52	3.47	-27.97	26	0.0005
Posttest	27	14.27	3.25			

What is the different between EFL learners' reading comprehension in control and experimental group after using critical pedagogy?

To investigate this question, the Independent Sample T test was used (table 4.8). Regarding the P – value that is less than 0.01 (p – value = 0.001), it can be said with more than 99% confidence, that mean of reading comprehension in experimental group after using critical pedagogy was significantly different ($t= -3.42$, df=52, $p<0.01$). It means that the mean of reading comprehension in experimental group after using critical pedagogy ($M_2 = 14.27$, $SD_2 = 3.25$) was more than control group ($M_1 = 11.57$, $SD_1 = 2.49$).

Table 3: Independent – Sample T Test of Reading Comprehension Scores between Control and Experimental Group after using Critical Pedagogy

Time	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-Test	df	P-Value
Pretest	27	11.57	2.49	-3.42	52	0.001
Posttest	27	14.27	3.25			

CONCLUSION

This study has investigated the impact of critical pedagogy on EFL learners' reading comprehension. According to the results (table 6.1-6.3), based on the P-Value, independent sample t- test and paired sample t-test, reading comprehension increased in both groups, but the change in experimental group reading comprehension was dramatically more significant than the change in control group. It can be said confidently that there is a relationship between critical pedagogy and EFL learners' reading comprehension. Therefore, the research hypothesis, there is a relationship between critical pedagogy and EFL learners' reading comprehension, is accepted. This study in line with several other studies (Wagner & Sternberg, 1987 **;** Edgier, 1999; Simon, 1992; Lopez , 2004;Cavazos-Kottke , 2004; Sadeghi, 2008; Mao ,2011) found that critical pedagogy can increase EFL learners' reading comprehension.

IJLLALW

Evidence from this thesis shows that learning to read a text critically requires developing an awareness of how the themes that students read can lead to individual and collective transformation. Critical pedagogy makes the students take a stance and express their own beliefs and views towards the material at hand. In transposing critical pedagogy to the teaching of reading, teachers need to encourage learners to reflect on what they read, create and discuss possible interpretations, and move toward some kind of action based on what is read which leads to a better comprehension of the text. A critical approach to reading, highlights the importance of having learners actively engage in their leaning process and being able to find and develop their opinions and positions (Freire, 2005). Freire (1992) believed that for the learner to move from object to subject, he or she needed to be involved in dialogical action with the teacher and the materials being studied.This study has used empirical findings to show that a critical approach to the teaching of reading looks at learners as subjects who need to be empowered to elaborate on and express their views. Reading becomes as much about getting information as it is about assigning meanings and creating interpretations based on what is presented. This does not mean that, in reading a text, anything goes. Interpretation needs to be based on facts presented in a text and students need to learn how to develop points of view based on reality. However, reality is a much broader concept than what some teachers would like to think and it encompasses each individual student and the personal and collective histories in a classroom. The classroom, therefore, becomes a locus for the generation of knowledge and action. It is a participatory sphere, engaged and sometimes improvisational, that promotes liberation from established, official narratives and conventional action. This study has several limitations and delimitations. First limitation is that conducting critical pedagogy in the classroom took time and the process was time – consuming. Another limitation of the study was that some students didn't cooperate properly in the process of the class. And the first delimitations is that this study considered the reading skill, and other language skills were ignored. Second, level and gender were controlled variables in this study. The treatment might show different results with different age range, level and gender. Third, the setting was limited to one district of Kerman Education Department. It could be done in both districts (1 & 2).

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IJLLALW

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113

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IJLLALW

THE PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EFL LEARNER MOTIVATION
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ABSTRACT
Classroom motivation has been the subject of a significant body of research lately; however most English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom problems pertaining to motivation remain largely unchanged, a fact which intensifies the need to further appraise the most appropriate type of motivation in EFL classrooms. This is precisely the focus of the present paper which examines learner motivation in Saudi university students by devising particular classroom aspects, and further discusses the teacher's endeavors in motivating learners. The paper tackles both issues in the light of a comprehensive student questionnaire and teacher interview. The findings indicate that integrative motivation is the least common type and that extrinsic instrumental motivation gains particular favor in EFL classrooms. Still, intrinsic motivation has potentials for growth if furnished with considerable amount of non-monetary rewards by supportive teacher who promptly and appropriately incorporates classroom aspects with enjoyable delivery. This predicts learners' success and solves many inevitable pedagogical pitfalls that undermine their motivation. These findings, the researcher hopes, will have significant implications for research and practice.

KEYWORDS: Motivation   Aspects Classroom   Implications   Pedagogy

INTRODUCTION
The plethora of terms, definitions and research articles provided by linguists , educators and researchers (for example, Crystal,1985; Ellis, 1985; Brown, 2000**;** Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Ellis, 2004) on motivation indicates the pivotal role played by motivation in language learning. Richards and Schmidt (2002) stated that motivation in language learning "refers to a combination of the learner's attitudes, desires, and willingness to expend efforts in order to learn the second language". (p. 343). In addition, motivation is a specifically important element that drives and determines language learners initiating any language activity to achieve its goals successfully. (Littlewood, 1984).

Therefore, this study defines it borders by investigating at the outset the optimal type of motivation in the EFL classroom. Then it centers on particular classroom aspects that the researcher sees in the foreground to not only activate, but also to create EFL learner motivation in the presence of a qualified well trained teacher who can adopt good practices and adapt these aspects in more motivating ways in the language classroom.

IJLLALW

Statement   of the problem

Learner motivation merits the academic attention it has recently received. It is prominently an important classroom aspect that is vital "not just…for understanding language learning but also… for maximizing its success" (Ellis, 2004: 536). It is also the primary legitimate determinant of L2 proficiency (Gardener, 1979).

This paper attempts to discuss motivation in EFL classrooms and its pedagogical implications, employing a questionnaire and interview. It specifically examines extrinsic instrumental, integrative, and intrinsic motivation. The paper discusses these issues hoping to come out with findings and implications that would ameliorate learner motivation and support its pedagogical enhancement in the language classroom. To do this the following objectives are provided:

Objectives of the Study

This paper aims at sharing with other teachers and researchers a possible avenue which may put more emphasis on learner motivation. Its main concerns are to identify the most effective type of motivation for EFL classroom, to discuss areas that pertain to classroom motivation, and to come out with useful implications.

Significance the Study

Investigating this problem will hopefully more highlight motivation as a crucial classroom component, will provide educators, researchers, teachers, syllabus designers and EFL learners with some information on the optimum EFL classroom motivation. The findings of this study will have particular value for EFL classrooms.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK & LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation and classroom learning

Basically, motivation has been defined by three major schools of thought using different terms. The first is behaviorism which views motivation as the anticipation of rewards where the learner is driven by previous experiences of rewards for the behavior to acquire positive reinforcement (Brown, 2000). The second is presented by cognitive psychologists who emphasize individual internal decisions on the choices that learners make to encounter or avoid a goal or experience, and the efforts exerted to do the given task as well (ibid). This matches, first, with Dornyei's (2001) pre-actional stage of motivation which includes 'choice motivation' that relates to learners' reasons and goals for learning language, and second, with their actional- stage of 'executive motivation' which focuses on efforts made by learners to attain particular goals. These choices, Brown(2000) went on to say, are forced by underlying needs and drives. One of the most influential need in classroom is the need for achieving success and avoiding failure, where learners attribute their success to their own ability and effort, thus being motivated for exerting more efforts in future activities. They however, attribute their failure to factors beyond their control (Weiner, 1972). The third view is provided by the constructivists who support the cognitive psychologists' notion of internal choices, but they assert the importance of social contexts in which the individual acts.(William & Burden,1997). In introjected regulation Ryan and Deci (2000) found that individuals are motivated by their conformity to social norms.

IJLLALW

So far, in classroom the three views convey inseparable linkage in describing learner motivation. The rewards and reinforcement are effective motivating tools in learning languages if used properly, and the internal motives, needs and contexts of situations in which persons act to do different social roles more energize learners.

More specifically, motivation has been examined by Gardener and Lambert (1972) as instrumental and integrative ,this is according to the learner orientation; 'a class of reasons for learning a language' (Richards & Schmidt, 2002: P. 343). Instrumentally orientated learners have instrumental functional goals for learning L2 such as career opportunities ,passing exams, or facilitating study of other subjects through the medium of L2 (Ellis,1985), getting monetary rewards such as grade or pay. On the other hand, learners with integrative motivation seek to develop identity with the culture of the target language groups, due to their positive attitudes towards them and their language (ibid). The valuable motivation in EFL/ESL learning depends on learners' orientation for learning language and its use within particular contexts of situations. For instance, in some foreign/second language situations students with more integrative motivation appear to be more successful, and instrumental motivation works well when there is no desire to identify with the foreign culture.(Gardner & Lambert,1972). Nonetheless, learners can be both instrumentally and integratively orientated; for instance, to learn and succeed in FL for career requirement and adoption of the cultural values of the target language group. (Brown,2000).

More comprehensively, Gardener and Lambert's (1972) instrumental motivation has been recently offered by linguists into extrinsic motivation, which implies the external instrumental rewards as a consequence of the activity. (Richards & Schmidt,2000; Noels et al,2000). More details for extrinsic motivation is provided by Ryan and Deci (2000) as follows: The commonest type is 'external regulation' in which individuals choices are driven by gaining incentives and avoiding consequences. In 'introjected regulation' individual seek to avoid guilt and raise their self –esteem conforming to the social norms. In identified regulation individuals are moved to the task because they value its importance. In integrated regulation individuals are directed by their personal instrumental goals gained from the activity other than their interest in it (Gagné & Deci, 2005). However, formerly, Deci and Ryan (1980) found that "extrinsic rewards may depress the aspiration it is supposed to" (quoted in McDonough, 2002, P.97). This is perhaps when the learner has no purpose for learning EFL and depends sonly on external rewards.

On the other hand, in intrinsic motivation learners can be rewarded internally by being interested in learning the language itself and its activities ,rather than external rewards. Deci, (1975) explained intrinsic motivation as follows:
Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except   the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. . . . Intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination (cited in Brown,2000, p. 164).

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Further, Noels et al (2000) ascertained that: Intrinsically motivated learners are motivated due to three things: 1) knowledge and the novel ideas gained from learning,2) accomplishment of the assigned task and enjoyment in mastering challenges),and 3) excitement and pleasure result from its performance. (cited in Ellis, 2004).

In general, intrinsic motivation largely encourages learners to work efficiently in classroom activities since they are interested in them, this results in successful mastery of the skills to which these activities are prepared. This is perhaps most evident is that intrinsic motivation leads to further extrinsic motivation on the part of the learners due to this success. This matches the fact that motivation does not cause achievement but results from it. (Wen & Johnson,1997).

The researcher feels that motivation and achievement enhance each other, a fact that needs to be instilled in EFL classes to both motivate to achieve and achieve to motivate. Besides, developing EFL learners' intrinsic motivation requires effective appropriate planning, designing, selecting, and timing of interesting tasks and activities with enjoyable learning materials delivery. Because rewards "have no detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation for boring, routine and tedious work" (Ledford,G., et al P. 25)

Moreover, intrinsic motivation can be enhanced by means of extrinsic rewards to sustain it. These agree with the opinions of Cameron and Pierce (2005) who found that extrinsic rewards and praise increase and produce intrinsic motivation.

Surely, if learners are capable of attaining motivation in the absence of outside reward, i.e. being intrinsically motivated, this will be an ultimate end in language classroom. But ,a salient question is whether this motivation will last long or it will extinct with continued lack of instrumentation and reward?

As per the researcher's observations being thoroughly intrinsically motivated characterizes some EFL classrooms learners, but the majority of EFL learners are in a dire need to satisfy their extrinsic instrumental need, and this perhaps can take different forms of non-monetary rewards.

Motivation enhancement and some EFL classroom aspects such as a) tasks and activities, b), learner self -confidence and autonomy, and c) reinforcement and rewards?
The vitality of enhancing learner motivation necessitates good utilization of certain aspects inside the classroom ,this paper focuses on tasks and activities , building learners self-confidence and autonomy, and also reinforcement and rewards.

Activities determine students' commitment in the language tasks, thus positively or negatively affect their motivation. Ellis (1985, p. 119) suggested that: "Motivation can be developed by careful selection of learning tasks both to achieve the right level of complexity to create opportunities for success and to foster intrinsic interest'. Therefore, learners should be encouraged to carry out meaningful and purposeful tasks and activities that raise their motivation (Bartels, 2005). This is what Brown (1981) termed 'task motivation', to motivate learners to perform particular tasks for more interesting learning (Ellis,1985, p. 117). These may include a

IJLLALW

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 116-134   *Fatima A. Zein*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

number of personal challenges with realistic goals that can be established by the learners themselves.

It is important to value the goal of the activity or task to engage themselves in. Learners will be motivated to accomplish tasks successfully when they value the rewards that they expect from them and when they anticipate their ability to perform them well.

Equally important, tasks and activities should be designed with a purpose of active engagement of learners attention and memory by developing sense of curiosity and noticing by presenting 'some kind of discrepancy' (McCdonough,2002, p.72) and surprise, in accordance with the learners' individual differences, and interest. 'The key to success is to focus our conscious mind on things we desire not things we fear" (Tracy, 2013). This aids teachers to vary the activities to deal with all learners easily to facilitate classroom learning. Above all, some tasks should be designed to be practiced individually with the intention of building learner *self- confidence and autonomy.*

Self-confidence and self -autonomy are combined by the researcher in discussion due to their entire interdependence on each other. EFL learners will not be autonomous unless they trust their abilities and capacities i.e. becoming more self-confident. Autonomy has been described as taking charge of one's own learning (Holec ,1981).

Benson (2000) confirmed that: In language learning autonomy is to take more control of the purposes and ways for which and in which languages are learnt. In this respect, it is important to free learners from the ties of the group and let them think individually to set their own goals and follow certain strategies to fulfill them.

Moreover, Learner self–confidence and autonomy can be developed by building self-management, which implies that management of learning is done by learners themselves. However, this will not be attained, unless learners are well prepared to manage their own learning; to be taught to learn ''teach learners to learn'' (McDonough,2002, p. 82). This can be maintained by particular techniques for instance, "how a study note book can be organized"(ibid, p. 82), chunking, , summarizing, writing essays, etc. When completing such tasks and the like, learners will be more self –confident and more self- satisfied; since they feel that they are contributors and that they receive personal encouragement from their teachers. This in turn leads to self-evaluation in 'less stressful situations' (Dornyei,2001, p. 130) and learners well preparedness to be autonomous.

Benson's (2000, found in Dornyei, 2001,p. 131) in 'resource- based approaches' pointed out to specific practices to develop learner autonomy. These are summarized as follows:

The individual learner is involved into independent interaction with the material to be learnt under 'resource- based approaches' ,and with the educational technologies in 'technology -based approaches'. These are followed by learners' direct production, which indicates that a real change in the learner 's behavior takes place as per 'learner-based approaches'. Another type of

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World
(IJLLALW)
Volume 11 (2), February 2016; 116-134   *Fatima A. Zein*
EISSN: 2289-2737 & ISSN: 2289-3245   *www.ijllalw.org*

change is in the relationship between the learner and the teacher inside the classroom under 'class-based approaches'. The final stage is 'curriculum-based approach' in which learners have complete control over their learning, where they are capable of controlling , planning and evaluating learning and the curriculum.

If implemented properly, these successively based approaches will enable the learner to reach and maintain optimum autonomy in an entirely learner-centered learning.

In 'curriculum-based approach' it is reasonable and preferable for learners to evaluate their own learning, their curriculum, and even their teachers. This can solely be done by asking learners about their   views through questionnaires and interviews, for future reformation and improvement ,which is applicable in some institutions that seek quality assurance. It is unfortunate that curriculum planning for EFL is mostly done by outside authorities, with no teacher or learner involvement. However, EFL learners will be able to contribute in planning particular items in the syllabus with teacher's support , rewards and reinforcement.

The term reinforcement was rooted in the behaviorism school of learning that views reinforcement as stimulus that produces change in the behavior and affects the probability of its occurrence or not.(Wikipedia). Learning is commonly defined as a 'change in the behavioral tendency' resulted from reinforced practice for the desired utterances (Kimble and Garmezy,1963). The academic review of rewards research in the past 30 years has reported that monetary rewards increase performance significantly (e.g., Gerhart, Rynes, & Fulmer, 2009 in Ledford et al., p. 27). Therefore, in EFL language classroom, positive reinforcers such as good instruction, good instruction fit ,rewards ,incentives and verbal praise can be used profitably to strengthen a target behavior. Abbasi, et al(2015) found positive correlation between EFL students' achievements and teacher use of praise and verbal individual feedback as motivating factors.

Reinforcement can be in a form of congratulatory feedback ,which is essential an indicator of learners progress. When the language items produced by the learner are well-formed ,there should be reinforcement, and when they are ill-formed they would perhaps be corrected (Ellis,1985) in smooth non-threatening way within warm classroom atmosphere to make their mistakes work for them. Students receive content feedback when they perform classroom activity, regardless of language incorrectness. This is fluency versus accuracy feedback, and it is preferable in EFL classroom. But when accuracy is essentially required for credit they receive form feedback (McDonough, 2002; Krashen,1987).

However, successful language learning and good mastery of a particular skill are rewarding motivating factors, since "motivation is seeking success" (McDonough, 2002 p. 98). Besides, supportive classroom atmosphere can actually reward the learner who feels that his effort is recognized by the teacher. "feeling of satisfaction is a significant factor in reinforcing achievement behavior". Therefore, increasing learner self-satisfaction is an ultimate end (Covingto,1999:127) that teachers should internalize to keep them on track.

Teachers' involvement in classroom and its effect on   students' motivation
Teachers contribution to learners' motivation falls into two main issues; one is being a good *organizer* for tasks and activities ,learning material ,and learners' grouping , the other is being a *facilitator*.

Being a good *organizer* is essential for teacher to appropriately use materials ,tasks and activities to develop learners particular skills and abilities, whether individually, in pairs or in groups. The materials should be adapted, modified, and sequenced from general to specific, easy to difficult, factual to abstract, and known to un-known. This is to accomplish the objectives of both linguistic and subject-matter objectives and curriculum objectives; so as to meet learners' needs using interesting techniques of delivery in which teacher devices all the tasks ,activities and exercises to realize these objectives (Brown, 2000) according to the learners' interest and styles.

Styles are consistent tendencies or preferences within an individual that differentiate him from others. Learning styles are cognitive, (affective and physiological) factors pertaining to educational contexts that indicate how learners perceive and interact to the learning environment (Keefe, 1979, in Brown, 2000). Ellis (2004) proposed some ways through which understanding of learner style can be pedagogically useful:

There are some fairly obvious ways in which language pedagogy can benefit from an understanding of learning style. One is through attempts to match the kind of instructional activities to learners' preferred learning styles. Another is through encouraging learners to identify their own natural way of learning to ensure   that they can learn efficiently. A third application is to help learners to see the advantages of learning styles other than the one they incline to and thereby to become more flexible in the way they learn (cited in Davies & Elder, 2004,p. 536).

A variety of taxonomies of learning styles have been identified by educators and psychologists, but second language research focuses on those which contribute mainly to successful language learning. (Brown,2000). For instance, impulsive learners give quick guesses for answering teacher's questions but reflective learners seem to be more slow and calculative to answer questions. This requires the teacher to deal with them differently by giving more time and patience to slower learners. Another example: Some learners are more tolerant of ambiguity ;they are willing to accept other views that oppose theirs and to approach new ambiguous items ;they are more creative and innovative (ibid), while others are intolerant of ambiguity and they may easily get bored and lose interest to complete the activity. Therefore, in EFL classroom ,such learners ought to be encouraged to ask questions so as to develop ambiguity tolerance ,and the theoretical explanation for them can be appropriately brief and simplified, dealing with few rules at a time. Krashen (1987) previously pointed to "the values of second language classes, then lies not only in the grammar instruction, but in the simpler 'teacher talk', the comprehensible input". (P. 59)

IJLLALW

Further, learning styles can be viewed through the preferences for sensory channel for learning new linguistic materials, namely, sound, vision, touch, and movement (Reid,1987,in McDonough ,2002). For instance, visual learners learn better when they read. The teacher can distribute questionnaires among the students to engage students in a conversation about how they learn and detect learners' classroom learning styles, preferences and strategies.

Strategies are particular ways of approaching a problem or a task, and a learner may approach one problem in a number of possible ways (Brown, 2000). The three- way taxonomy of strategic behavior given by Chamot (1987,in McDonough,2002,p. 76) includes cognitive strategy, meta-cognitive strategy (self-management, self- monitoring, self-evaluation), and social -affective strategies. Some guidelines for strategy building activities were provided by Chamot et al (1999) that can be helpful for teachers. There is also what is termed "Ten Commandments" that can usefully be extended by teachers in their classrooms (Brown,2000, P.137). Nevertheless, EFL classroom learners tend to use the 'least complex cognitive strategies'(McCdonough,2000, p. 76) such as, repetition and note taking. They can use more complex strategies such as inference , elaboration, deduction, grouping, recombination, etc. with the teacher encouragement as being a facilitator.

Being a facilitator is another way that teacher can motivate learners ,and the researcher believes it can be achieved by the following four aspects: a) grouping learners, b) helping them adopt positive attitudes and set their goals, c) assessing their performance, and above all, d) creating good language classroom environment.

Firstly, "Group work dramatically increases the amount of talking for individual, it promotes learner's autonomy . . .there is a greater chance of different opinions . . . there are plenty of chances to cooperate and negotiate with one another" (Sarosdy, 2006, p. 41). A class of academic freedom helps learners express their opinions informally; where they share expertise and ownership, and therefore, be motivated for learning. Thus, grouping learners should be organized skillfully for them to get its advantages. There are four useful stages of group formation that are traceable to Argyle (1969,in Thanasoulas), and that can be adopted by EFL teachers in their classes. These are *forming, storming, norming, and performing*. Forming stage is accompanied by certain type of anxiety that results from being with the teacher in an attempt to prepare learners. This is succeeded by another type of tension results from being with other group members, this storming stage is a period of real conflict between members of groups. Then the members began to accept each other and settle their conflict in norming stage; by being involved into interactive cooperative activities. Finally, in performing stage, all members are enthusiastic and more responsible to accomplish the tasks allotted to them in time.

Secondly, the type of attitudes learners possess towards foreign language learning affects how much they are motivated to succeed in achieving proficiency in learning it. Negative attitudes towards the target language and towards members of the target language community increase learners 'affective filter' that damages their motivation to learn. "Acquirers with optimal attitudes are hypothesized to have low affective filter" (Krashen,1987, p. 32). The support comes from Littlewood (1984) who confirmed that: "attitudes relate more directly to learning as it is

IJLLALW

experienced in the classroom, If this attitude is negative there may be   strong internal barriers against, and if learning has to take place because of external compulsion, it may proceed only to the minimum level required by these external demands"(pp. 56-55).

The researcher thinks that it is possible that learners have negative attitudes due to the overall class room physical conditions, such as the scarcity of resources , the large number of students, and the long classroom hours. Added to this are lack of : enough interaction and English input, strong role models, and social acceptance for being proficient in English (Rost,2006).

Thirdly, directing learners setting their own goal motivate them (Brown, 2000). Goals should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time bounded (SMART). Goals arouse and direct learner action (Wood & Locke, 1990), that can be performed outside the classrooms, without teachers help, for instance, it is possible for learners to list what they will do in a particular week, and set study hours for doing 'extra credit work' in EFL (Brown,2000,p. 138). Putting these goals into real practice and accomplishing them   should be recognized by the teacher who praises, reinforces good achievement and encourages reluctant learners to exert more efforts to attain their goals.

Furthermore, by setting his/her own goals and stating clear realistic objectives that are related to the material taught, the teacher can help students reaching their goals. In EFL classrooms learners' ultimate goal is communicative competence whether verbally or written. Communicative competence enables learners to communicate to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meaning interpersonally within appropriate contexts. Language is commonly agreed upon as a means of communication and language learners are communicatively forced to fulfill this need. But, achieving this communicative need relies heavily on the social situation in which language is used. In some cases language is a 'necessary extension of learners communicative repertoire for coping with life's demands' , it is perhaps used to attain the needs of professional ambitions in the society (Littlewood, 1984,p. 54). This agrees with second language learning, in which learners are compelled to learn a particular language, as it is a necessity of living, i.e. "the communicative function of language inside the community where the learner lives " (ibid, p. 54). In other circumstances of foreign language learning, the target language is not used for communication ,but rather it is used in specific purposes, the individuals are unaware of its communicative need. Nevertheless, when English/a foreign language is used an important tool of communicating outside its country "this learner is considerably more likely to perceive the communicative value of the foreign language and , as a consequence, to be motivated to acquire proficiency in it" (ibid, p. 54). This accomplishment needs to be assessed and evaluated by the teacher.

Fourthly, assessing and evaluating learner's language learning and achievement using both formative and summative assessment reflect the quantity and the quality of what they learnt. Formative assessment in which learners take part can be regularly conducted by teacher in the learners normal in- class performance and can be used as a feedback for future improvement. "We should therefore avoid becoming over-critical of their performance" (Littlewood, 1984, p. 97). Learners can partially be evaluated on the basis of their effort regardless of their full mastery

IJLLALW

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of subject matter, to encourage weaker students to perform better; this is when accuracy is not a target. Nevertheless, summative assessment makes EFL learning more appealing and satisfying when the students feels that the teacher uses clear methods of assessing their work with fairly scheduled tasks and marks. Besides, student diligent work should be recognized by their teacher and assessed very well.

Fifthly, creating good classroom language atmosphere would be provided by *avoiding anxiety* and *building good relationships*, the researcher thinks "A teacher may …affirm the ultimate importance of learning in a relaxed state of mental awareness"(Brown,2000, P. 169).   Negative atmosphere and uncontrollable tense, on the part of the teacher, should be avoided in the classroom, and problems should be left outdoors; since these undermine learning , demotivate learners, and they are at the expense of understanding input. "language learning takes place in a relaxed supportive atmosphere"(Good & Brophy ,1994:215). Krashen (1987:32) stated that: "The effective language teacher is someone who can provide input and help make it comprehensible in a low anxiety situation". Creating classroom with no tension and anxiety is fruitful and beneficial, and perhaps correlates positively with successful classroom language learning. Moreover, it will create good teacher students' rapport.

Sixthly, Building rapport with and among learners is a key factor in learners motivation. This involves a peaceful negotiations between the teacher and learners in sessions where all participants keep themselves busy in spontaneous reciprocal exchange. This   interaction can initially be teacher-learner centered, then learner-teacher centered/free, with both being decision makers in the classroom (ibid :19), and finally leaner-learner centered where learners are decision makers and decision takers. By this the teacher can "develop learners instead of teaching them, help them to become independent (learning to learn), provide them with motivation and interest for life-long learning and urge them to become autonomous learners"(Tray,2013, p.3) .

Further, teacher-learner relationship should be based on trust, mutual understanding and respect. The teacher knowledge and how this knowledge is presented in clear instructions, perhaps are two crucial pedagogical aspects in language learning that render learners trust their teacher and his knowledge. "Professional teachers will be well educated, especially in the subject matter content they teach, and that their career-long professional education experiences must continue to be grounded in the certainty of that content" (Shulman,2000:XIII,cited in Bartels,2005: 161). Moreover, teachers should be good model "teacher behavior is most powerful tool of motivation" (Dornyei,2001: 120). Teachers should seek self-development and promotion, as McDonough (2002) argued:

It is instructive for teachers to find out more about their own learning and teaching , to be able to understand more about their preferences, both in the teacher and the learner role,might affect their learners. They suggest that teachers should evaluate themselves on one or more of standard   learning styles, motivational, or strategy inventories, perhaps during training…to encourage teachers to adopt a reflective approach in tune with contemporary ideas of professional training (p. 99).

125

IJLLALW

More important, learner motivation should be protected by keeping learners attention by providing challenging and surprising learning situations, by helping learners   to be active participants in classroom tasks and activities in order to stimulate learning and make it more enjoyable. This agrees with Dornyei's (2001, p.539) post-actional stage which involves 'motivational retrospection'. It concerns with the learner's attributes   that   results from   his learning experience and that influences his preparedness to continue being motivated

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following set of questions guided the study:
What type of motivation best suits EFL classrooms?
To what extent can motivation be enhanced in the classroom by devising a.) tasks and activities, b.)building learner self -confidence and autonomy, and c.) reinforcement and rewards?
What   manners of teachers' involvement in classroom that positively or negatively affect their students' motivation**?**

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Participants

The sampling group was drawn from the Department of English, College of Education, Sttam bin Abdulaziz University,Saudi Arabia Originally they were supposed to be 100 students but only 60 students actually responded. Their age ranged between 15 and 7, and they had approximately similar mastery of EFL language. It was homogenous group.

Instruments

The data has been collected by two instruments- student questionnaire and teacher interview.

Students' questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of 30 questions that were relevant to the study research questions. For each area of the research questions a set of items were specified to test students views in this particular area, but the items were not grouped together so as to elicit more information from the subjects. Table(1) shows percentages of students responses to these items.

Table 1: Shows Percentages and Frequency of Students' Responses to the Questionnaires

Number	Strongly agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Not answer	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	38	63.6%	20	33.3%	1	1,7%	1	1,7%	0	0%
2	39	62%	20	33.3%	0	0%	1	1,7%	0	0%
3	34	56.7%	22	36.7%	4	6.7%	0	0%	0	0%
4	29	48.3	26	43.3%	3	5%	0	0%	2	3.3%
5	9	15%	29	48.3%	16	26.7%	2	3,7%	4	6.7%
6	18	30%	25	41.7%	15	25%	1	1,7%	1	1,7%
7	27	45%	23	38.3%	10	16.7%	0	0%	0	0%
8	44	73.3%	12	20%	3	5%	0	0%	1	1,7%
9	29	48.3	25	41.7%	4	6.7%	0	0%	2	3.3%
10	33	55%	24	40%	2	3.3%	0	0%	1	1,7%
11	24	40%	30	50%	5	8.3%	0	0%	1	1,7%
12	37	61.7%	17	28.3%	6	10%	0	0%	0	0%
13	35	58.3%	22	36.7%	2	3.3%	0	0%	1	1,7%
14	21	35%	34	56.7%	4	6.7%	0	0%	1	1,7%
15	12	20%	34	51.7%	13	21.7%	1	1,7%	3	5%
16	36	61.7%	31	36.7%	0	0%	0	0%	1	1,7%
17	33	55%	22	43.3%	1	1.7%	0	0%	0	0%
18	16	26.7%	26	30%	20	33.3%	4	6,7%	2	3,3%
19	20	33.3	29	48.3%	7	11.7%	0	0%	3	5%
20	48	80%	11	18.3%	0	0%	0	0%	1	1,7%
21	42	70%	16	26.7%	1	1,7%	0	0%	1	1,7%
22	22	36.7%	27	45%	9	15%	1	1,7%	1	1,7%
23	29	48.3	25	41,7%	4	6.7%	1	1,7%	1	1,7%
24	21	35%	20	33.3	14	23.3%	4	6.7%	1	1,7%
25	30	50%	23	38.3%	5	8.3%	0	0%	2	3,3%
26	29	48.3	26	30%	5	8.3%	0	0%	0	0%
27	27	45%	24	40%	5	8.3%	0	0%	4	6.7%
28	28	46.7%	26	30%	3	5%	0	0%	3	5%
29	31	36.7%	20	33.3	6	10%	1	1,7%	2	3,3%
30	25	41,7%	28	46.7%	7	11.7%	0	0%	0	0%

127

Teachers' interviews
Teachers were interviewed to respond to an email interview of open-ended questions. The data was compiled and analyzed, and percentages were quantitatively calculated. The literature review of the research in the field covered a variety of sources, including references, periodicals and websites.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Research question I posed in this paper is: *What type of motivation best suits EFL classrooms?*
Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 16 , 20 of the questionnaire correspond to this research question.

Graph 1: Students Reasons for Studying EFL
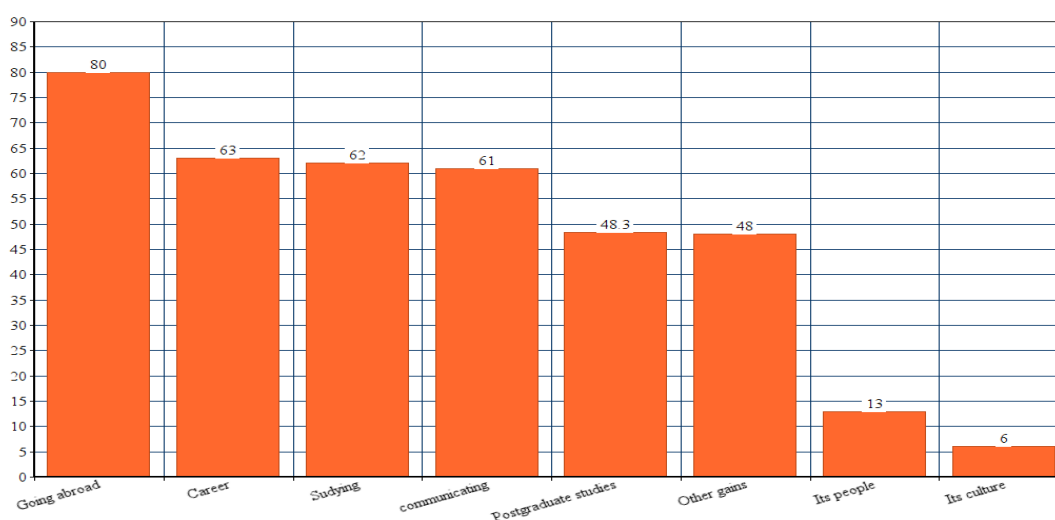
Figure 1: Students' Reasons for Studying EFL

The results in figure 1 show that large number of the students responses coincide with studying English: to help them when they go abroad(80%,item 20), to communicate (61%, item 16),for career (63.7%,item 1), for studying (62%) (item2), for postgraduate studies(48.3% ,item 4) ,and for what they gain from it (48%,item 9).

Nonetheless, only (15%) of the responses correspond to learning English because of its people (item 5), and 30% to learning English for its culture (item6). This means that most learners learn EFL for instrumental extrinsic and utilitarian purposes, but few of them are interested in the foreign language culture and community. This has previously been supported by Littlewood (1984), Noels et al (2000: 61), and Richards and Schmidt (2000).

Based on her observations related to teaching EFL students, the researcher believes that the majority of her EFL students are rewarded by their expectations of fulfilling ultimate ends of better careers or postgraduate studies aboard. They are thus rewarded by extrinsic instrumental

motivation, which correlates positively with successful learning of English as an international language for its own sake, regardless of its community (Littlewood, 1984).

Research question 2 posed in this paper is: *To what extent can motivation be enhanced in the classroom by devising a.) tasks and activities, b.) building learner self -confidence and autonomy, and c.) reinforcement and rewards?* Items 5, 7, 13, 14, of the questionnaire correspond to this research question.
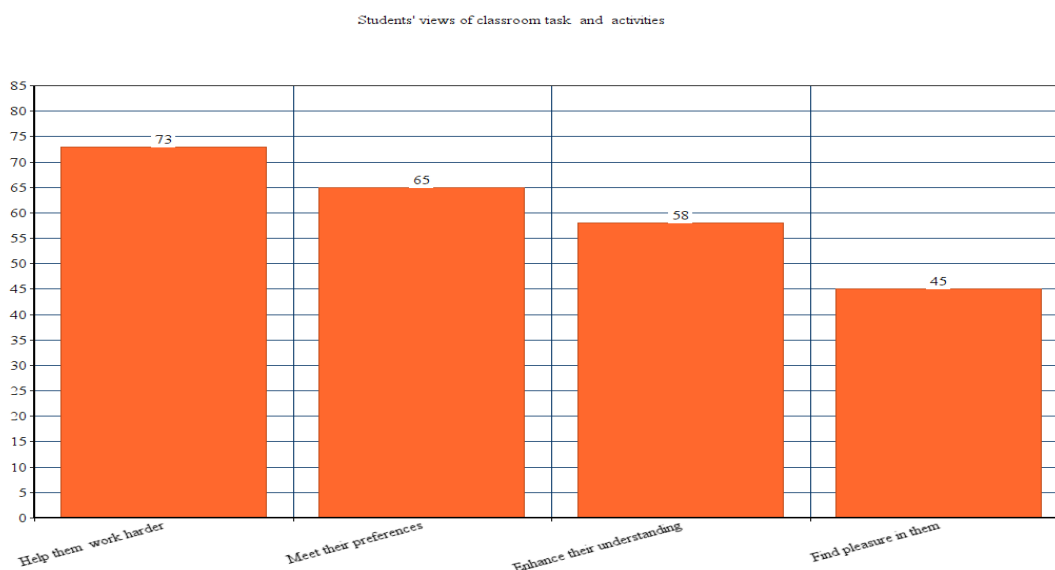

Figure 2 : Students' views of tasks and activities

The results in figure 2 show that 73% of the responses favor doing certain activities and tasks to helps them work harder (item 5). (45%) of the responses agree with doing classroom activities and tasks because the candidates find pleasure in them (item 7). In this respect intrinsic motivation gains some consideration. Similar findings were reached by Wen and Johnson (1997, Noels et al (2000), and Ellis (1985).

Moreover, quite a number of students see classroom activities and tasks enhance their understanding (58%,item13), particularly when these are designed according to their preferences (65% , item 14). Careful selection of learning tasks raise motivation and leads to success. (Ellis (1985:119) A considerable number of students (55%, item 10) report that group work makes them more enthusiastic, and that working alone makes them less enthusiastic (33%item 18),but some prefer (30 %, item 18) working alone.

This perhaps, is due to fear of being with others, or feel of self-independence and autonomy. So, for the researcher this is not an inconvenience in language classroom, but it is due to learners' individual differences which should be the language teacher focal center of interest.

More students like their teacher to give them more attention (46.7%, item 30). This conforms to the findings of McDonough (2002) and Dornyei (2001). Therefore, many think that they exert

more efforts when they are praised by their teacher (46%, item 28), and when their errors are corrected in a rewarding way (45%, item 27). This kind of feedback is valuable because it indicates students learning (Sarosdy,2006).

Research question 3, *What manners of teachers' involvement in classroom that positively or negatively affect their students' motivation*? Items 15,22,23, 24, 25, 30, of the questionnaire relate to this research question.
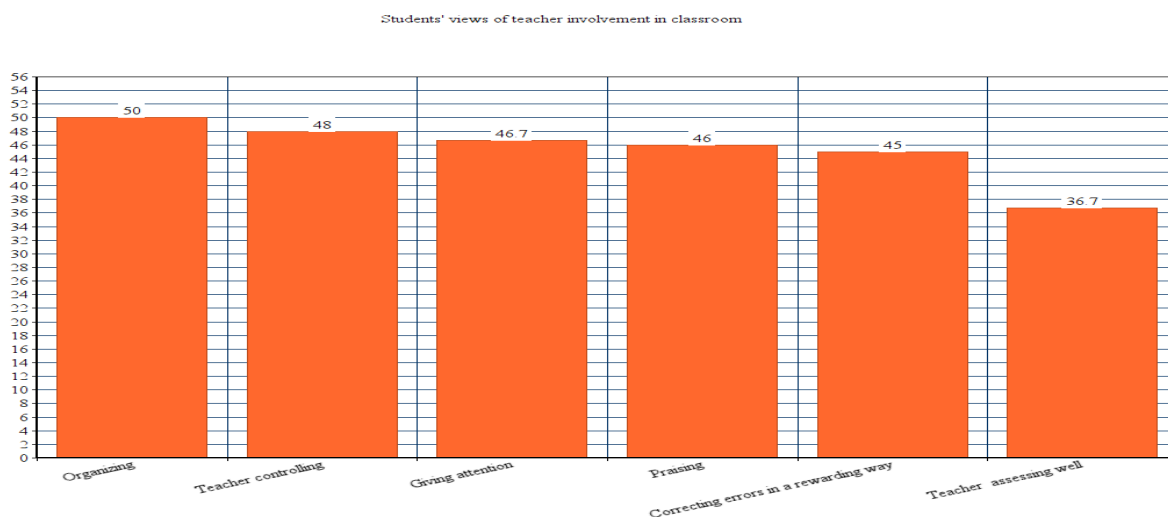

Figure 3 : Students' views of teacher involvement in classroom

Figure 3 shows that students feel more motivated when their classroom is well controlled (48%, item 23), and well organized (50%,item25) by their teacher, and that they dislike classroom maximum freedom (35%, item 24). The researcher has previously mentioned the benefit of controlling the initial preparatory stages of building learner autonomy when forming groups. Further, some students think that the teacher's good assessment of their work encourages them to do better (36.7, item22). (Littlewood, 1984). 51% of the' responses show that the bad classroom conditions make learning English unrewarding (item 15) and undermine learner motivation.

It is important to note that some classroom problems pertaining to the physical environment of the classroom such as the huge number of students are beyond the reach of the teacher control. It is unfortunate that most of the English foreign language learning, as far as I know, is conducted in large basins with large numbers of students, particularly university classes, in which specializing in English is desirable and attractive for many FL learners.

The results of the teacher interviews show that teachers have ascertained the importance of motivation in language classroom and suggested that: One way to motivate EFL learners is to change the negative attitudes that some hold towards EFL language. The researcher believes that the primary role teachers have to play is to gradually change learners' negative attitudes and to convince them of real significance of what they are studying . Whatever tool used by teacher, learners should be motivated to view the target language, the teacher and the material presented in the classroom positively.

Another way of motivating learners that teachers see :is by being aware of their goals and specific aims of learning. The goal of learning English for the majority of students is to communicate (61%,item 16), and they are therefore moved by their mastery of the communicative competence. Formerly, it was found that setting learners' learning goals leads to future success and that students will do better when engaged in interesting activities and tasks (Brown, 2000; Ryan, 1998) to achieve these goals. Individual work helps learners to be more self-confident, but groups give them more advantage. Learners can exchange ideas and opinions, coordinate efforts and work as a team. Besides, the teacher will be aware of their potentials and weaknesses. Immediate feedback, according to them helps teachers know how successful learning and teaching are. It further helps learners monitor themselves and avoid mistakes. Teachers attribute the un-motivating conditions of EFL contexts to the lack of interesting activities and tasks ,and to the fact that English is not spoken around the foreign environment and is not institutionalized in the Arabic media.

CONCLUSION
The main theme of the paper centered on the best way to motivate EFL classroom learners, Accordingly, students and teachers were given questionnaires and interviews respectively, and their views were discussed with relevant literature. The discussion has shown that EFL classroom learners were mainly aspired by utilitarian purposes to learn English, and only partially by their integrative and intrinsic motivation. It moreover has showed that well investment of classroom aspects assists EFL learning and create good motivating language classroom atmosphere. Further, supportive dynamic teachers who utilize to the utmost classroom aspects to inspire learners from the point of having them possess positive attitudes towards learning EFL till self-autonomy building, and who likewise ,help them retain motivation along the line of study to prepare them for future challenges. By this class motivation becomes not just an end in itself but essentially a means through which learners become responsible future decision makers.

Limitations of the Study
The key limitation is the sample size, is that only 60 students responded out of hundred from the randomly selected group. Moreover, the investigation includes only motivation in classroom; it does not include the learners outside environment that affects their classroom motivation. Furthermore, the domain of study was on particular focal classroom aspects, and teacher employment of these aspects to motivate learners. Furthermore, the questionnaires and interviews used to collect data suffice the purposes of the study.

Suggested implications
The implications of the paper has manifestly underscored the need :
To foster and optimize learners' extrinsic instrumental motivation inside the classroom by relating the material being taught to the learners' life. In that learners skills and abilities should be developed to meet the requirements of their future involvement.
To empower motivation by addressing learners' minds and souls using non-monetary rewards such as positive feedback and praise, besides, their efforts should be recognized by the authorities (administrators).

IJLLALW

To promote intrinsic motivation by enjoyable materials delivery and challenging tasks in warm classroom atmosphere and good learning conditions, so that learning can come from within an individual, which leads to learners' creativity and innovation.

To encourage the use of teacher pre-guides that provide learners with programmed instructions that train them to attain complete control over their learning so as to be prepared to meet future challenges.

Future studies
Factors that affect learner motivation beyond classroom such as parents and community.
Assessing learner motivation using appropriate rubrics.
Brain internalization in classroom learners' motivation

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132

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IJLLALW

IMPROVING READING COMPREHENSION OF ESP LEARNERS: GRAMMAR PRACTICE

Melahat Amir Jahansouz Shahi

ABSTRACT

Researchers state that grammatical explanation in the classroom relies on the assumption that rules learnt consciously can be converted into unconscious process of comprehension and production. The present study aims at appraising the effect of explicit teaching of grammatical structures enhances reading comprehension of ESP (English for specific purpose) students or not. Participants in this study were of EFL (English as a Foreign language) university students majoring in computer engineering and IT (information technology). To assure the criterion of homogeneity, seventy students were selected from 150 learners based on the results obtained from a Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) which was conducted at the outset of the study. A pretest and posttest of grammar contain multiple choices; fill in the blank, substitution, written form in composition. Two groups were randomly selected as a control group and experimental group in the study. The Experimental group was taught grammar explicitly while control one did not receive any treatment. An experimental design was utilized for the study with its treatment lasted 4 months (one semester). The results reaped out of statistical procedure such as ANCOVA bore witness to the proposed hypothesis in the paper, confirming the superiority of the experimental group to the control one, and, in the long run, spotlighted explicit grammar instruction as a scaffolding device that can provide a fertile ground for students to improve reading comprehension and also it shows that grammar pedagogy in English Language Teaching (ELT) foster consciousness-raising.

KEYWORDS: ESP learner, reading comprehension, explicit and implicit knowledge of grammar

INTRUDUCTION

Theoretical framework

Language is an effective tool used in everyday communication. A widely held view in the current literature on foreign language acquisition is that one major way in which foreign language learners acquire grammatical and other kinds of language knowledge is through exposure to and comprehension of the meaning of oral and written texts in that language. Grammar constitutes a crucial concept of the language and it is a device for constructing and expressing meaning without which, effective communication would be impossible (Crivos & Luchini, 2012).

Even though reading comprehension is mostly conceptual, it still is affected by the knowledge of grammar either directly or indirectly. When the issue turns to second language reading, the role of grammar becomes more complex. Reading could be the most basic skill for second language learners, especially for EFL learners. This claim is best manifested in Chastain (1988), who states, "Reading is an important component of learning a second language for various reasons," (p. 219). Many language learners regard reading as the first skill that should be mastered among

135

the academic skills (Grabe, 2001; Jalilifar, Hayati & Saki, 2002; Richard & Renandya, 2008). In recent years, there has been increased focus on the teaching of reading and other literacy skills to L2 learners. Part of this may relate to the recognition of the fact that reading is probably the most important skill for second language (L2) learners in educational contexts (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Grabe, 1991), and part of it may come from an increase in the number of learners worldwide who are learning English as a second or foreign language. The importance of reading for some researchers and methodologists is so obvious that they equal learning language to learning reading (Krashen, 1993 a & b); in other words, they claim that in order to learn (or acquire as they like to name it) a second language one has to read a lot. Krashen (1993b) maintains that reading in and of itself is almost powerful enough to result in language acquisition. He promotes the theory that reading is the foundation of language education and is the most powerful tool for increasing vocabulary and the abilities to read, write, spell, and comprehend. The approach teachers employ to teach reading to students depends on their functional definition of learning, language, and reading (Chastain, 1988).

Nunan (2006) argues that, "reading is not something that every individual learns to do. An enormous amount of time, money and effort is spent on teaching reading in elementary and secondary schools around the world. In fact, it is probably true to say that more time is spent on teaching reading than any other skills." (p. 249). Since the 1980s, reading skill has received increased attention in terms of both research and its application to second language (L2) classrooms. Much of the study of L2 reading has concluded that readers only rely upon different sets of competencies while reading (Arens & Byrnes, 1991; Barnett, 1990; Brantmeier, 2002; Carrell, 1988; Hadley, 2001; Hosenfeld, 1984; Lee, 1997; Liontas, 2002; Omaggio Saricoban, 2002; Singhal, 2001; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Shrum & Glisan, 2000; Swaffar, as cited in Gascoigne, 2005). Learning to read in a second language (L2) is different from learning to read the first time around. Although people have a great deal of information about the processes involved when children learn to read in their native language (L1), we don't have adequate empirical data or well developed theoretical models to describe what kinds of skills are involved in good English second language reading, particularly when this population is comprised of adults rather than children (August, 2002; Snow, 2002). Cook (2008) points out that "grammatical explanation in the classroom has thus relied on the assumption that rules that are learnt consciously can be converted into unconscious process of comprehension and production." (p. 41). Explicit grammar instruction refers to those instructional strategies used to raise learners' conscious awareness of the form or structure of the target language. Through explicit instruction learners are able to notice features in the input data. Implicit knowledge, on the other hand, is a non-conscious and automatic abstraction of the structural nature of the material arrived at from experience of instances (Ellis, 2005).

The effects of the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary on reading comprehension are all positive (Gelderen, et al., 2007). There are certain grammatical topics which particularly benefit from explicit, systematic instruction. To put it differently, there are some grammatical topics which particularly suffer if they merely receive fleeting mention as they arise in context, or indeed are not dealt with explicitly in instruction at all (Klapper, 2003). The grammar of a language is the description of the ways in which words can change their forms and can be

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combined into sentences in that language. If grammar rules are carelessly violated, communication may suffer although a good grammar rule is extremely difficult (Harmer, 2007). L2 readers may lack knowledge of English grammar and structure and, therefore, may read word by word. They may encounter a bulk of unfamiliar vocabulary so that they would be unable to grasp the overall concept conveyed in the sentence. L2 readers are also challenged when reading idiomatic expressions and unfamiliar grammatical constructions (Mora, 2001).

To explain the difficulties of L2 reading, it can be assumed that poor L2 lexical and grammatical knowledge prevents beginning L2 readers from applying reading strategies and metacognitive knowledge they use in L1 reading. The research on syntactic processes in L2 reading raises issues germane to the assessment and diagnosis of syntactic-processing problems in L2 reading. Research points to the need to distinguish between two potential sources of difficulty in syntactic processing. One source is simply the lack of knowledge of the grammar (Carlo & Sylvester, 1996). Atai (2003) argues that "in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) context, providing readers with some knowledge about structural patterns and grammatical features of the corresponding academic or occupational discourse may enhance comprehension of ESP texts." (p. 25).

However, the role of grammar in L2 reading has not received much attention by researchers (Alderson, Nassaji, Shiotsu & Weir, Urquhart & Weir, as cited in Grabe, 2008). On the one hand, this may be attributable to the very nature of reading as a receptive language skill for comprehending the messages of the texts. Thus, knowledge of structure was regarded to have less to do with comprehending a text than levels of other components such as vocabulary, background knowledge, and reading strategies. On the other hand, the 30-year long dominance of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) that puts a near-exclusive emphasis on macrolanguage skills and communicative functions has somewhat downgraded the need to address the issue of the role of grammar in L2 reading (Han & D'Angelo, Urquhart & Weir, as cited in Grabe, 2008). Briefly, the role of grammar in understanding is not recognized (Grabe, 2008). Despite doubts cast over the role of grammar knowledge in reading comprehension, there are compelling reasons to consider this issue (Nagy, Nation, as cited in Grabe, 2008).

Moreover, reading is an active, fluent process which involves the reader and the reading materials in building meaning. Meaning does not reside on the printed page, nor is it only in the reader (Anderson, as cited in Ueta, 2005). As a result, both explicit and implicit instructions suit complex grammatical rules; however, explicit instruction is better suitable for difficult rules and whether explicit or implicit instruction work depends on the features of the language points. Although a large number of studies have shown the positive effect of teaching explicit grammar on general reading comprehension (see for example Atai, 2003 or Jalilifar, Hayati & Saki 2008), regarding the effect of explicit teaching of grammar on reading comprehension of ESP text, to the best of researchers' knowledge, very little research has been conducted. Therefore the aim of this study is to examine whether or not there is a direct relationship between explicit grammar teaching and reading comprehension in ESP texts.

137

IJLLALW

Statement of the problem and purpose of the study

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).

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the approach to ESP should be based on the learner's needs in their respective specialized subjects.

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.

Assessment and evaluation are also two important issues that should be included in the course design process. Assessment is a process of measuring what learners know and what they can do, whereas evaluation reveals how well the ESP course works with emphasis not only on successful factors but also on modifying less successful aspects (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

ESP practitioners often have to provide the material for the course. This involves selection of published material, adapting material if it is not suitable, or writing it. ESP teachers also need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching material used whether it is published or self-produced.
The concern of this study is to understand the correlation between learners' knowledge of grammar and reading comprehension .

Significance and Justification of the study

Because English language teaching plays an important role in educational curriculum in Iran and special attention is given to it, the findings of the present study can be both theoretically and practically significant. Such a study provides information to be taken into consideration by language-planners and test takers.

Hopefully, the results of the study will be useful for ESP teachers. Finding the type of relationship between learners' knowledge of grammar and reading comprehension. It will provide us with opportunities to look differently at the curriculum, instruction, and assessment.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS

In keeping with the purpose of this study, which was specified above, the following question can be then:
Does grammar practice explicitly have any impact on Iranian ESP learners reading comprehension skill?

IJLLALW

In order to investigate the above mentioned research question empirically, the following null hypothesis can be stated:

H0: Grammar practice explicitly does not have any impact on Iranian ESP learners'   reading comprehension skill.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
This sample consists of both male and female undergraduate junior EFL university students majoring in computer engineering and IT (information technology) ,the participants were 150 Iranian ESP students from four intact classes who had low-intermediate to intermediate level of English. They were then randomly assigned to two groups. Group A was considered as the experimental group and received explicit grammatical instruction, and group B was considered as the control group and received no explicit grammatical instruction.

Instrumentation
Two parallel reading comprehension tests were constructed consisting of 30 items and contain multiple choices; fill in the blank, substitution, written form in composition. One was given to both groups as a pre-test at the start of the course before giving any instruction. The other one was given to both groups as post-test at the end of the course of instruction. The pre-test aimed to determine the current level of the participants' reading comprehension and their homogeneity or heterogeneity in terms of reading comprehension ability. The post-test aimed to determine the degree of reading comprehension after the experimental group received treatments in the course. To check the participants' reading comprehension ability, a pre-test containing technical text of computer science information was constructed before starting the course. An attempt was made to construct the passages which included computer information that students had not encountered before by their own accounts. That is, the passages were constructed to include thoroughly new information of computer science.

Procedure
Prior to the intervention training program, a pilot study was conducted by the researcher to ensure that the subsequent formal study ran smoothly. In order to develop the pilot study, the researcher conducted the test to determine its reliability and equivalence. It was conducted at a university that similarly ranked with the university selected for the purpose of this study. The proficiency levels of these pilot participants were also similar to the target population of the formal study. The pilot test illustrated reliable and equivalent test results.

Thereafter filling out the background questionnaire, the proficiency of 70 participants was determined by CELT proficiency test. Based on the result of this test, participants were divided into two groups.

The questions were prepared by a mixture of multiple choices; fill in the blank, substitution, written form in composition. It is necessary to explain about this factor now that as was

IJLLALW

mentioned in tests section, the content of the pre- test and post- test are the same. After determining two groups in experimental and control group, the researcher gave pre-test to both groups to see their performance before training the explicit grammar instruction to the experimental group. Next phase of the experiment started with some treatment sessions that included a demonstration of given explicit grammar instruction to experimental group and there is no instruction for control group. The students practiced the grammar exercises and familiar tasks which were provided for them by the instructor after the treatment sessions. For clarity of the effectiveness of applying the explicit grammar instruction, it is necessary to add that here, instructor explained the aforementioned grammar subjects by using those techniques in short and brief explanation and then immediately asked them to apply those explicit grammars to their tasks to observe the result of training consequently to compare control group performance (without taking explicit grammar instruction) which lasted roughly four months, the participants went through the post-test phase, which included the same written task test as the pre-test. All participants were to answer the questions. After the treatment sessions come to an end, the same grammar test (post-test) was given to the students in both groups in order to see whether there is any significant difference between students' scores on the acquisition of explicit instruction before and after treatment or not (pretest and posttest). In the long run, the results, reaped out of both pretest and posttest, were compared for data analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
This study explores the effect of explicit teaching of grammar on the Iranian EFL learners reading comprehension. To achieve this goal, the following research question was raised;

Does grammar practice explicitly have any impact on Iranian ESP learners reading comprehension skill?

The data were analyzed through analysis of covariance which has four main assumptions; normality, homogeneity of variances, linear relationship between the dependent variable (posttest) and the covariate (pretest) and homogeneity of variances.

The present data enjoyed normal distribution. As shown in Table 1, the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over the standard errors were lower than the absolute value of 1.96.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics; Testing Normality Assumption

Group		N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Experimental	Pretest	35	-.181	.398	-0.45	-.333	.778	-0.43
	Posttest	35	-.059	.398	-0.15	-.784	.778	-1.01
Control	Pretest	35	-.422	.398	-1.06	-.801	.778	-1.03
	Posttest	35	-.297	.398	-0.75	-.719	.778	-0.92

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was also met. The results of the Levene's test (Table 2)(F $(1, 68)$ = 1.16, p = .285) rejected the null-hypothesis that the groups did not enjoy homogenous variances.

IJLLALW

Table 2: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.160	1	68	.285

The relationship between the dependent variable (posttest of reading comprehension) and the covariate (pretest) was linear. As displayed in Table 3, the results of the linearity test (F (1, 50) = 121.82, p = .000) rejected the null-hypothesis that the relationship between dependent variable and the covariate was not linear.

Table 3:Testing Linearity Assumption

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	(Combined)	461.777		1924.304	7.087	.000
	Between Groups Linearity	417.788	1	417.788	121.826	.000
Posttest * Pretest	Deviation from Linearity	43.989		182.444	.713	.782
	Within Groups	171.470		503.429		
	Total	633.246	69			

The probability associated with the interaction between groups and the covariate was not significant (F (1, 66) = 1.25, p = .266) (Table 4). Thus it can be claimed that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was retained.

Table 4: Testing Homogeneity of Regression Slopes

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	12.271	1	12.271	16.925	.000
Pretest	417.070	1	417.070	575.235	.000
Group * Pretest	.911	1	.911	1.256	.266
Error	47.853	66	.725		
Total	15365.250	70			

As shown in Table 5, the experimental group (M = 16.05, SE = .14, 95 % CI [15.76, 16.33]) had a higher mean on the posttest of reading comprehension than the control group (M = 12.96, SE = .14, 95 % CI [12.67, 13.25]) after controlling for the possible effect of their entry reading comprehension ability as measured through the pretest.

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of Reading Comprehension by Group
(Controlling for Pretest)

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Experimental	16.050	.144	15.762	16.338
Control	12.964	.144	12.676	13.252

Based on the result displayed in Table 6 (F (1, 67) = 229.03, p = .000, Partial η^2 = .774, representing a large effect size) it can be claimed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups' means on the posttest of reading comprehension after controlling for their performance on the pretest. Thus the null-hypothesis **was rejected**.

Table 6: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects; Posttest of Reading Comprehension by Group (Controlling for Pretest)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pretest	416.308	1	416.308	572.000	.000	.895
Group	166.695	1	166.695	229.036	.000	.774
Error	48.763	67	.728			
Total	15365.250	70				
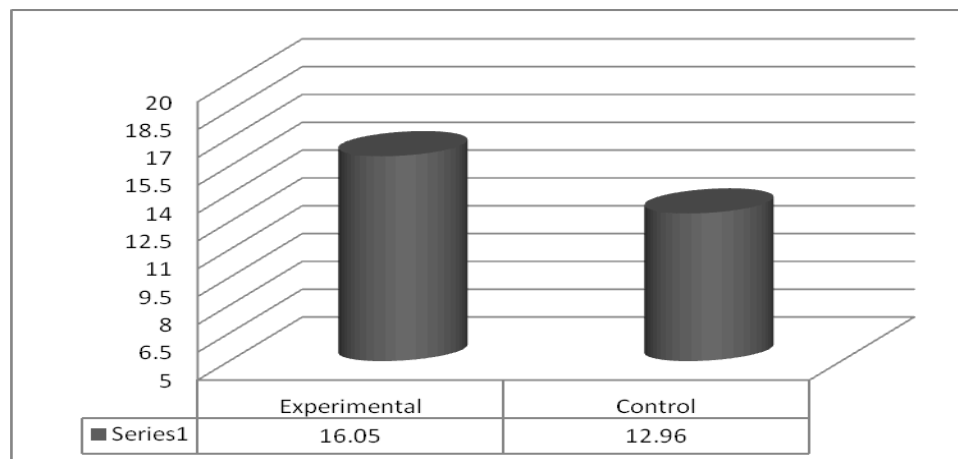
Figure 1: Mean scores on posttest of reading comprehension by groups after controlling for pretest

CONCLUSION

The study reported in this research investigated the effect of explicit teaching of grammar on enhancing reading comprehension of ESP students. As the results indicated, explicit teaching of grammar improved the comprehension of reading ESP text. Current grammar pedagogy in English Language Teaching (ELT) foster consciousness-raising (CR) approaches (Batstone, Celce-Murcia, Thornbury, as cited in Nitta & Gardner, 2009). Consciousness-raising is a cognitive approach to grammatical instruction developed by Sharwood-Smith (as cited in Walsh, 2005). It is a learner-centered orientation, with emphasis on learning processes and strategies where the learners rely on their intellectual capacities and use their cognitive modes to learning. Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined consciousness-raising as: …techniques that encourage learners to pay attention to language form in the belief that an awareness of form will contribute indirectly to language acquisition.

Some linguists such as Krashen (1982) believed that formal instruction in grammar would not lead to the acquisition of knowledge. Prabhu (1987) also argued that by practicing in meaning-focused tasks, learners can acquire L2 grammar naturalistically. According to Crivos and Luchini (2012), "An effective grammar teaching model should be compatible with a communicative framework that emphasizes learners' understanding of classroom input through meaningful, negotiated interactions" (p. 149). Such a model should integrate explicit grammar instruction with communicative language teaching. It should aim at helping students become aware of how grammatical features work. This awareness can facilitate and trigger learning and help students in

the process of becoming active participants and less dependent on teachers. Learning a language, and hence its grammar, is a lifetime commitment and the contact between teacher and learner is just a short phase in this undertaking. Therefore, it is essential to give learners the means and motivation to take part in their own learning processes.

Limitation and Delimitations of the Study
Researcher will select the sample concerned only with the following; the conclusions will not be extended beyond it.
1- The study is delimited to Iranian ESP learners
2- The study is delimited to junior ESP learners at BA level
3- The study is delimited to Iranian universities

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